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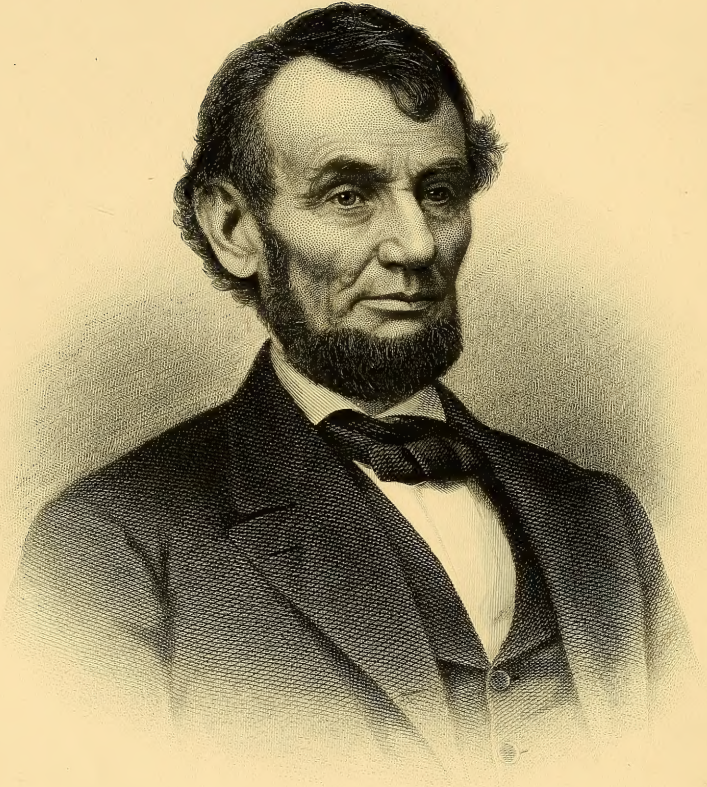
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A. Lincoln

NEWLY REVISED AND ENLARGED EDITION

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HARPER'S POPULAR CYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

CONTAINING BRIEF SKETCHES OF
IMPORTANT EVENTS AND CONSPICUOUS ACTORS

BY

BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.

ILLUSTRATED BY OVER ONE THOUSAND ENGRAVINGS

IN TWO VOLUMES

VOL. II.

NEW YORK AND LONDON
HARPER & BROTHERS PUBLISHERS

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Lincoln Medals. Andrew C. Zabriskie, of New York, an earnest student of numismatics, printed, for private circulation, a descriptive catalogue of one hundred and eighty-nine med-

ple; a fifth proposing to commit the business of "reconstruction" to the people, and a sixth enjoining the duty of confiscating the property of rebels and giving it to the Union soldiers and



MEDAL FROM THE FRENCH DEMOCRATS. (See p. 794.)

als struck in honor of Abraham Lincoln. No other public man in the United States excepting Washington has been so honored in this way.

Lincoln, PRESIDENT, IN RICHMOND. The President had been at City Point and vicinity several days before the fall of Richmond, and on that day (April 4, 1865) he went up to that city with Admiral Porter on the *Malvern*. Captain Ralph Chandler, with the *Sangamon*, several tugs, and thirty small boats, had fished up the torpedoes with which the river was strewn. At Richmond the President was cheered by a vast concourse of emancipated slaves, who were told that the tall man was their liberator. He returned the same day, and on the 6th he again visited Richmond, when he authorized General Weitzel to allow the assembling of the Virginia Legislature, which he had been assured by leading members would work faithfully in the interests of peace and the restoration of the Union. Their promise was not kept, and the President revoked his order to Weitzel.

Lincoln, PRESIDENT, RE-ELECTION OF. In the Administration party were men who deprecated the cautious policy of Mr. Lincoln and were opposed to his re-election. They held a nominating convention at Cleveland, Ohio, May 31, 1864. It was composed of about three hundred and fifty persons, very few of whom were regularly chosen delegates. They were called "the radical men of the nation." They adopted a "platform of principles," consisting of thirteen resolutions, among which was one proposing an amendment to the Constitution to prevent the re-establishment of slavery; another declaring the wisdom of the "Monroe Doctrine" (which see); a third asserting the policy of restricting the incumbency of the presidential office to one term; a fourth recommending the election of President directly by the peo-

ple. They nominated General John C. Frémont for President, and General John Cochrane for Vice-President. They afterwards withdrew. The Union National Convention assembled at Baltimore June 7, 1864, wherein all the states and territories were represented by chosen delegates, excepting those in which insurrection existed. Their "platform of principles" was equally strong in support of national honor, national freedom, the emancipation of the slaves and the perpetuation of their freedom, the "Monroe Doctrine," etc. It was the regular Republican Convention. It endorsed the acts of the administration, and nominated Abraham Lincoln for President and Andrew Johnson for Vice-President. The Democratic National Convention met at Chicago Aug. 29, 1864. Horatio Seymour, of New York, was its chairman, and, in his opening address on taking the chair, he expressed sentiments of extreme hostility to the policy of the administration, and condemnatory of the war for the preservation of the Union. They adopted a "platform of principles," composed of six resolutions. It declared the fidelity of the Democratic party to the Union; that the war was a failure, and that "humanity, liberty, and the public welfare" demanded its immediate cessation; that the government, through its military power, had interfered with elections in four of the late slave-labor states, and was, consequently, guilty of revolutionary action, which should be resisted; that the government had been guilty of unwarrantable usurpations (which were specified), and also been guilty of a shameful disregard of duty respecting the exchange of prisoners and the relief of its suffering captives. The resolutions closed with an assurance that the Democratic party extended its sympathy to the Union soldiers, and that, in the event of their obtaining power, the soldiers should receive "all the care and protection and kindness" which they de-

served. General George B. McClellan, who had been relieved from military duty about twenty months before, was nominated for President, and George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, for Vice-President. The opposing parties carried on the canvass with great vigor during the autumn. The real practical issue was expressed in two words—Union and Disunion. Mr. Lincoln was re-elected by an unprecedented majority in the Electoral College. His opponent—General McClellan—received the votes only of the two late slave-labor states of Delaware and Kentucky and the State of New Jersey. The soldiers in the army gave 121,000 votes for Lincoln and 35,050 for McClellan, or three to one in favor of the former. They did not regard the war in which they were struggling as “a failure.” The freedmen rejoiced at the result, for they regarded it as the seal of their sure deliverance, for there was a wonderful power slumbering behind that vote.

Lincoln's Cabinet (1861). On the day after his inauguration (March 5, 1861) President Lincoln nominated the following gentlemen as his constitutional advisers: William H. Seward, of New York, Secretary of State; Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of War; Gideon Welles, of Connecticut, Secretary of the Navy; Caleb Smith, of Indiana, Secretary of the Interior; Montgomery Blair, of Maryland, Postmaster-general, and Edward Bates, of Missouri, Attorney-general. These were immediately confirmed by the Senate.

Lincoln's Cabinet (1865). Mr. Lincoln retained his cabinet—namely, W. H. Seward, Secretary of State; Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury; Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War; Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy; William Dennison, Postmaster-general; J. P. Usher, Secretary of the Interior; James Speed, Attorney-general. There had been previously some changes in his cabinet. At the request of the President, Montgomery Blair had resigned the office of Postmaster-general, and was succeeded by Mr. Dennison, of Ohio. On the death of Chief-justice Taney, Salmon P. Chase had been made his successor, and the place of the latter in the cabinet had been filled by Hugh McCulloch.

Lincoln's Election, EFFECT OF. It was not denied that the election had been fairly and legally conducted, or that the platform of the Republican party pledged the nominee and his supporters to absolute non-interference with the rights and domestic policy of the several states. During the canvass the friends of the slave system labored with great zeal in the creation of a “solid South,” in opposition to the Republican party and its nominee. They asserted, with all the solemnity of seeming truth, that the people of the free-labor states, “grown rich and powerful through robbery of the people” of the slave-labor states, had elected a sectional President, for the purpose of carrying out a long-cherished scheme of ambition—namely, the political and social subjugation of the people of the slave-labor states; the subversion of their

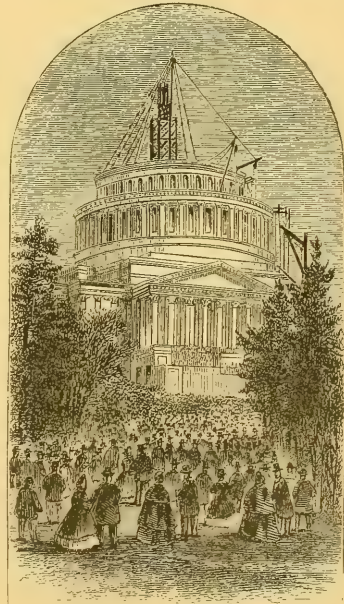
system of labor; the elevation of the negro to social equality with the white man, and the destruction of slavery, upon which, they alleged, had rested in the past, and must forever rest in the future, all substantial prosperity in the cotton-growing states. They held the Republican party responsible for John Brown's Raid (which see), and cited as proof of the intentions of the Republicans their declarations that “there is an irrepressible conflict between freedom and slavery;” “freedom is the normal condition of all territory;” “the Republic cannot exist half slave and half free.” The press and the pulpit became powerful auxiliaries in disseminating these views concerning the Republican party. The “common people” were blinded, confused, alarmed. When the fact of Mr. Lincoln's election had been flashed by the telegraph over the land, the voice of disunion was heard in vehement utterances all over the slave-labor states. South Carolinians were anxious to put the pre-concerted scheme of revolution into immediate operation. An extraordinary session of the Legislature had been called at Columbia, Nov. 5, in anticipation of the result, and the governor of that state received congratulatory telegraphic despatches from other commonwealths where the political leaders were in sympathy with disunionists. A grand plan of the disunionists was for the sympathizing states to first withdraw from the Union. “North Carolina will secede,” said a despatch from Raleigh. “A large number of Bell men (see *National Constitutional Union Party*) have declared for secession.” “The state will undoubtedly secede,” said a despatch from the capital of Alabama. Another, from Milledgeville, Ga., said: “The hour for action has come. This state is ready to assert her rights and independence. The leading men are eager for the business.” “There is a great deal of excitement here,” said a despatch from Washington; “several extreme Southern men, in office, have donned the Palmetto cockade (which see) and declared themselves ready to march South.” A despatch from Richmond said: “If your state secedes we will send you troops and volunteers to aid you.” “Placards are posted about the city,” said a message from New Orleans, “calling a convention of those favorable to the organization of a corps of minute-men.” A second message from Washington said: “Be firm; a large quantity of arms will be shipped South from the arsenal here to-morrow. The President [Buchanan] is perplexed. His feelings are with the South, but he is afraid to assist them openly.” “The bark *James Grey*, owned by Cushing's Boston Line, lying at our wharves,” said a message from Charleston, “has hoisted the Palmetto flag and fired a salute of fifteen guns [the number of the slave-labor states], under the direction of her owner. The minute-men throng the streets, with Palmetto cockades in their hats. There is great rejoicing here.” So, within thirty hours after the election of Mr. Lincoln, the fact was clearly revealed, by the unanimity of expressed sentiments among the Southern politicians in favor of disunion, that a scheme for the dissolution of the Union had been

preconcerted. The effect of Mr. Lincoln's election was to bring into active co-operation all the disloyal elements in the Union, North and South.

Lincoln's Inaugural Address. This message to the people at the opening of President Lincoln's administration gave no uncertain sound. He said he had no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with slavery in states where it existed. He believed he had no lawful right to do so, and he had no inclination to do so. He gave assurance that the prosperity, peace, and security of no section were to be endangered by the incoming administration, and that every section of the Union should have equal protection. He then discussed the political character and structure of the Republic, showing that the Union is older than the Constitution; that it is necessarily perpetual; that there is no inherent power in the whole or in part to terminate it, and that the secession of a state is impossible. Assuming that the Republic was unbroken, he declared that, to the extent of his ability, he should take care, as the Constitution required him to do, that the laws should be executed in all the states, performing that duty as far as practicable, unless his "rightful masters, the American people," should withhold the requisite means. "I trust this will not be regarded as a menace," he said, "but only of the declared purpose of the Union that it will constitutionally defend and maintain itself." "In doing this," he added, "there need be no bloodshed or violence, and there shall be none, unless it shall be forced upon the national authority." He declared that the power confided to him should be used to "hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the government, and to collect the duties and imposts." This frank, generous, and kindly avowal of his intention to do his duty faithfully gave force to his statement at Trenton, when on his way to Washington: "The man does not live who is more devoted to peace than I am—nor one who would do more to preserve it; but it may be necessary to put the foot down firmly." The President also declared that he should endeavor, by justice, "to reconcile all discontents;" and he asked the enemies of the government to point to a single instance where "any right, plainly written in the Constitution," had ever been denied. He showed the dangers of the precedent established by secession. "Plainly," he said, "the central idea of secession is anarchy." He referred to the physical impossibility of the dissolution of the Union; asked, in view of a separation, "whether treaties could be more faithfully enforced among aliens than laws among friends?" He reminded them that their respective territories must remain "face to face;" that they "could not fight always," and that the causes of feuds would always exist. He begged his countrymen to take time for consideration. "In your hands," he said, "my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without

being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in heaven to destroy the government, while I shall have the most solemn one to preserve, protect, and defend it." The enemies of the government would listen to no words of kindness, of justice, or of warning; they had resolved to destroy the Union at all hazards.

Lincoln's Inauguration. On Monday, the 4th of March, 1861, Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, was inaugurated the sixteenth President of the United States under circumstances of peculiar interest. In expectation of open violence on the part of the conspirators against the life of the Republic, General Scott had made ample provision for the preservation of order by the strong arm of military power, if it should be necessary. This fact was known, and no disorder occurred. So almost imperceptibly had about six hundred troops been gathered at different points in the city of Washington [and yet it was known that they were gathering], that there was a general impression that a vast number of them were there. The Secessionists were not undeceived until it was too late to organize the "minute-men" of Maryland and Virginia to prevent the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln. In response to inquiries from Congress, from time to time, President Buchanan, on the 1st of March, replied that only six hundred and fifty private soldiers were in the city, besides the usual marines at the navy-yard, and that they were there to act as a *posse comitatus*, strictly under the civil authority, to maintain the public peace. More than twenty-five thousand strangers were present at the



LINCOLN'S INAUGURATION.

ceremony, a large portion of them the political friends of the President-elect. Mr. Lincoln, accompanied by Mr. Buchanan, rode to the Capitol

in an open barouche, escorted by military and followed by an immense procession of civilians. As they sat waiting before the desk of the Senate, "Mr. Buchanan sighed audibly and frequently, and Mr. Lincoln was as grave and impassive as an Indian martyr." Mr. Buchanan was pale and nervous. Mr. Lincoln's face was slightly flushed with excitement. Going to the platform on the eastern front of the Capitol (the new dome was then in course of construction), Mr. Lincoln was introduced to the people by Senator Baker, of Oregon. Then, with a clear, strong voice, and rising, like Saul, in his height, above the people, he read his inaugural address, during which Senator Douglas, his opponent in the race for the Presidency, held his hat. At the close of the reading, Chief-justice Taney administered the usual oath to the new President. Leaving the Capitol, Mr. Lincoln proceeded to the "White House," and the next day ex-President Buchanan departed for his beautiful seat, Wheatland, near Lancaster, Penn.

Lincoln's Journey to the Capital. Abraham Lincoln, President-elect of the Republic, left his home in Springfield, Ill., Feb. 11, 1861, for Washington city, accompanied by a few personal and political friends. To the crowd at the railway station, evidently impressed with the solemn responsibility laid on him, he said: "A duty devolves on me which is, perhaps, greater than that which has devolved upon any man since the days of Washington. He never could have succeeded except for the aid of Divine Providence, upon which he at all times relied. I feel that I cannot succeed without the same divine aid which sustained him, and on the same Almighty Being I place my reliance for support; and I hope you, my friends, will all pray that I may receive that divine assistance without which I cannot succeed, but with which success is certain." The journey then undertaken was performed at about the same time that Jefferson Davis, the elected President of the Southern Confederacy, was on his way from his home to the capital of the Confederacy. (See *Inauguration of Jefferson Davis*.) Lincoln made a long journey of hundreds of miles through Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, everywhere greeted with demonstrations of profound respect, and speaking to the crowds who came out to see him words full of cheerfulness, kindness, forbearance, and tenderness. Common prudence counselled him to say little or nothing on the grave affairs of state, but occasionally words would drop from his lips that clearly indicated his views and intentions. He often alluded to the condition of the country. "It is my intention," he said at Pittsburgh, "to give this subject all the consideration I possibly can before specially deciding in regard to it, so that when I do speak I may be as nearly right as possible. I hope I may say nothing in opposition to the spirit of the Constitution, contrary to the integrity of the Union, or which will prove inimical to the liberties of the people or the peace of the whole country." At the Astor House, in New York, he said to a multitude who greeted

him: "When the time does come for me to speak, I shall then take the ground that I think is right—right for the North, for the South, for the East, for the West, and for the whole country." Mr. Lincoln was received by the municipal authorities of New York city at the City Hall, where the mayor (Wood), who had recently set forth the advantages that the commercial mart would derive from its secession from all government (see *Secession of New York Proposed*), admonished the President-elect that it was his duty "to so conduct public affairs as to preserve the Union." Mr. Lincoln arrived in Philadelphia Feb. 21, where he was informed of a plan in Baltimore to assassinate him, on his way through that city to Washington. On the following morning (Washington's birthday) he hoisted the national flag, with his own hands, over the old State House, in the presence of a vast multitude of citizens. In his speech on that occasion he referred to the Declaration of Independence, adopted and signed in that building, and said that it was the sentiment of perfect freedom to all, contained in that document, which had kept the Union together so long, and promised the same blessing, in due time, to all men. "If this country," he said, "cannot be saved by this principle, I was about to say I would rather be assassinated on this spot than surrender it. I have said nothing but what I am willing to live by, and, if it be the pleasure of Almighty God, die by." His friends believed his life would be in danger if he carried out the prescribed plan of his journey to visit Harrisburg and thence directly through Baltimore to Washington. But he persisted in keeping his engagement, and went on to Harrisburg. Meanwhile, revelations had been made that convinced his friends that he would be assassinated if the whole plan should be carried out, and he was persuaded to go back to Philadelphia that night, and so on to Washington, instead of waiting until the next day. He passed through Baltimore unobserved, and arrived in Washington early on the morning of Feb. 26. (See *Lincoln's Passage through Baltimore*.)

Lincoln's Passage through Baltimore (1861).

When Mr. Lincoln arrived in Philadelphia on the evening of Feb. 21, 1861, he was informed of an alleged plot to assassinate him in Baltimore while passing through that city to Washington, and he was persuaded to take precautions against such a catastrophe. His movements at that time gave currency to many absurd and untruthful stories. Mr. Lincoln gave, orally, to the writer of this work, early in December, the following narrative of the affair, substantially: "I arrived at Philadelphia on the 21st. I agreed to stop over-night, and on the following morning hoist the flag over Independence Hall. In the evening there was a great crowd where I received my friends, at the Continental Hotel. Mr. Judd, a warm personal friend from Chicago, sent for me to come to his room. I went, and found there Mr. Pinkerton, a skilful police detective, also from Chicago, who had been employed for some days in Baltimore watching or searching for suspicious persons there. Pinkerton informed

me that a plan had been laid for my assassination, the exact time when I expected to go through Baltimore being publicly known. He was well informed as to the plan, but did not know that the conspirators would have pluck enough to execute it. He urged me to go right through with him to Washington that night. I didn't like that. I had made engagements to visit Harrisburg and go from there to Baltimore, and I resolved to do so. I could not believe that there was a plot to murder me. I made arrangements, however, with Mr. Judd for my return to Philadelphia the next night, if I should be convinced that there was danger in going through Baltimore. I told him that if I should meet at Harrisburg, as I had at other places, a delegation to go with me to the next place (then Baltimore), I should feel safe and go on. When I was making my way back to my room, through crowds of people, I met Frederick Seward. We went together to my room, when he told me that he had been sent, at the instance of his father and General Scott, to inform me that their detectives in Baltimore had discovered a plot there to assassinate me. They knew nothing of Pinkerton's movements. I now believed such a plot to be in existence. The next morning I raised the flag over Independence Hall, and then went on to Harrisburg with Mr. Sumner, Major (now General) Hunter, Mr. Judd, Mr. Lamon, and others. There I met the Legislature and people, dined, and waited until the time appointed for me to leave (six o'clock in the evening). In the meantime Mr. Judd had so secured the telegraph that no communication could pass to Baltimore and give the conspirators knowledge of a change in my plans. In New York, some friend had given me a new beaver hat, in a box, and in it had placed a soft wool hat. I had never worn one of the latter in my life. I had this box in my room. Having informed a very few friends of the secret of my new movements, and the cause, I put on an old overcoat that I had with me, and, putting the soft hat in my pocket, I walked out of the house at a back door, bareheaded, without exciting any special curiosity. Then I put on the soft hat and joined my friends without being recognized by strangers, for I was not the same man. Sumner and Hunter wished to accompany me. I said, 'No; you are known, and your presence might betray me. I will only take Lamon (now Marshal of the District of Columbia, whom nobody knew) and Mr. Judd.' Sumner and Hunter felt hurt. We went back to Philadelphia, and found a message there from Pinkerton (who had returned to Baltimore) that the conspirators had held their final meeting that evening, and it was doubtful whether they had nerve enough to attempt the execution of their purpose. I went on, however, as the arrangement had been made, in a special train. We were a long time in the station at Baltimore. I heard people talking around, but no one particularly observed me. At an early hour on Saturday morning [Feb. 23], at about the time I was expected to leave Harrisburg, I arrived in Washington." Mr. Lincoln was received at the rail-

way station by Mr. Washburne, member of Congress from Illinois, who was expecting him. He was taken in a carriage to Willard's Hotel, where Senator Seward was waiting to receive him. Mrs. Lincoln, who had joined him at Philadelphia (Feb. 22), left Harrisburg, with Mr. Sumner and others, at the time appointed, and went on to the capital without molestation.

Lincoln's Second Inauguration. When Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated the second time, with Andrew Johnson as Vice-President, there were sure signs of a speedy termination of the Civil War. Sherman's march through Georgia and the Carolinas showed the real weakness of the Confederacy. In his inaugural address (March 4, 1865), Mr. Lincoln spoke with hope; and when the Chief-justice (Chase) had administered the oath, loud shouts went up from the multitude. The President retained his cabinet (see *Lincoln's Cabinet*), and started on a new term of office with hope and satisfaction. A little more than a month later he fell by the hand of an assassin. (See *Assassination of President Lincoln*.)

Lipans. This tribe, hovering on the borders of Texas, is a branch of the Athabascas. For a long time they roamed from the banks of the Rio Grande and the Chihuahuas to the land of the Comanches. They made war on the Spanish frontiers and desolated mission-stations. Having learned many Spanish words and advanced somewhat in civilization, they became allies of Mexican partisans in the revolutions in that country; and when Texas became an independent state the Lipans roamed over it from Austin to Corpus Christi, but plundered only the Mexicans, generally. At the close of the war between Mexico and the United States (1848) they began war in Texas, and for a while they desolated the frontier settlements. The remnant has since retired to Mexico. Their number does not exceed five hundred.

Little Rock (Ark.), CAPTURE OF (1863). General Frederick Steele organized an expedition at Helena for the seizure of the capital of Arkansas. His forces there, early in August, reached about 12,000 men, with forty pieces of cannon. These moved Aug. 10. They pushed back General Marmaduke, who confronted them; and early in September they moved on the state capital, in two columns, led by Generals Steele and Davidson, having been reinforced. General Sterling Price was in chief command of the Confederates. At Bayou Fourche, on the south side of the river, Davidson was confronted by Marmaduke, and, after a sharp struggle for two hours, the Confederates fell back towards the city. At the same time Steele was moving in a parallel line on the north side of the river. When the Nationals reached Little Rock the Confederates had abandoned it, and on the evening of Sept. 10, 1863, the city and its military appurtenances were surrendered to Davidson by the civil authorities. The troops had fled to Arkadelphia, on the Washita River. When the National troops entered the city eight steamboats, fired by the retreating Confederates, were in flames. In his campaign of

forty days, Steele lost about 100 men, killed, wounded, and prisoners, and captured about 1000 prisoners. The National loss by sickness was very heavy—not less than 2000 men.

Little Turtle (Me-che-cun-na-qua), a distinguished chief of the Miami Indians, who died at Fort Wayne, Ind., July 14, 1812, and was buried in an orchard. He received instructions in a Jesuit school in Canada, it is believed; and he was remarkable for his mental vigor and great common-sense. Little Turtle was a brave and skilful military leader. He commanded at the defeat of Generals Harmar and St. Clair (which see), the former in October, 1790, and the latter in November, 1791. He was present in the fight with Wayne at Fallen Timbers (which see). The brave chief, who spoke of Wayne as "the chief who never sleeps," urged his people to make peace with such a formidable warrior. He was one of the signers at the Treaty of Greenville (which see). Early in 1797 he visited President Washington at Philadelphia. There Kosciuszko, then on a visit to the United States, gave Little Turtle a pair of elegant pistols.

Live-stock. It was not until the close of the old war for independence that much attention was paid to the improvement of the breeds of domestic animals in the United States. In 1783 some horned cattle were imported into Maryland, and passed into the hands of Matthew Patton, of Virginia, who took great pains in raising pure stock from them. He went with a considerable herd of them to Kentucky in 1794. That Patton stock made a sensible impression upon the public mind. Some "short-horns" were imported from England into Westchester County, N. Y., from 1792 to 1796; and these were purchased with the design of improving the breed of American cattle—the first effort of the kind. In 1815 Henry Clay introduced the Herefords from England into Kentucky. Afterwards other fine breeds came, until now we have as fine average horned cattle as any country in the world. Associations have been formed in the West for importing choice stock, and, by importations and crossings, the production and value of our cattle have greatly increased. The same may be said of our horses, sheep, and swine. In 1840 the aggregate number of bulls, cows, and oxen in the United States was 15,000,000 head. In 1880 (in the space of forty years) they had increased to about 35,000,000. In 1876 the number was about 30,000,000, the total value of which was more than \$1,500,000,000. No country raises finer horses than the United States, nor is any country so bountifully supplied with them. We had about 12,000,000 in 1880, of which about 9,000,000 were on farms. This gave one horse to every five persons of our population. We had, also, about 1,800,000 mules and asses. Sheep husbandry is a large and profitable industry. There were fully 36,000,000 sheep in the United States, and they are improving in quality and increasing in numbers. They produce more than 100,000,000 pounds of wool annually; and our woollen-mills (of which there

were 1990 in 1880) use more than 70 per cent. of domestic wool, which is considered the best in the world. The fleece that commanded the highest premium at the World's Fair in London in 1851 was grown among the hills of Tennessee. Early in the present century some efforts were made to improve the breed of swine in the United States. Soon after his return from Europe, Chancellor Livingston imported some and bred from them. There was much opposition at first among the farmers to this innovation; but the palpable superiority of the imported to the native swine was so apparent that the prejudice was soon overcome, and there began to be an improvement in the appearance of swine in many parts of the country. In 1880 the whole number of swine in the Union was 47,681,700. In several of the Western States the slaughter of hogs and the packing of pork form an extensive and important industry.

Livingston, BROCKHOLST, LL.D., a son of Governor William Livingston, of New Jersey, was born Nov. 25, 1757; died in Washington, March 19, 1823. He was attached to the staff of General Schuyler in 1776, and afterwards to that of General Arnold, and was a participant in the capture of Burgoyne. He was promoted to colonel. In 1779 he accompanied John Jay to the Spanish court as his private secretary, and on his return he studied law, and became eminent in his profession. In January, 1802, he was made Judge of the Supreme Court of New York.

Livingston, EDWARD, was born at Clermont, Columbia Co., N. Y., May 27, 1764; died at Rhinebeck, N. Y., May 23, 1836. He graduated at Princeton in 1781, and began the practice of law in New York city in 1785. He soon acquired a high reputation as an advocate. A republican in politics, he became a member of Congress in 1795, and served until 1801. Jefferson appointed him United States District-attorney for New York in 1801, and in the same year he was chosen mayor of the city for two years. Through the misconduct of a clerk, Mr. Livingston became a public defaulter. He went to New Orleans, had great professional success, and paid every debt he owed the government. Livingston prepared a code of judicial procedure for Louisiana, which gained for him great fame at home and abroad. In the battle of New Orleans (which see) he acted as aid to General Jackson. He represented Louisiana in Congress from 1823 to 1829; was United States Senator from 1829 to 1831; was Secretary of State from 1831 to 1833; and then minister to France until the close of 1835. He had been chosen a member of the French Academy, and at his death an elegant eulogy upon his life and works was pronounced before that body by Mignet. At the time of his death, Mr. Livingston owned and occupied the beautiful mansion and estate of "Montgomery Place," at Rhinebeck, built by his sister, Mrs. General Montgomery. He was the youngest brother of the chancellor.

Livingston, HENRY BEEKMAN, was born at Livingston Manor in 1750; died at Rhinebeck, N. Y., Nov. 7, 1831. He was a brother of Chan-

cellor and Edward Livingston. In 1775 he raised a company, with which he accompanied his brother-in-law, General Montgomery, to Canada, where he performed excellent service, and was voted a sword by Congress for his skill and bravery at Chambly. He was with Montgomery at the siege of Quebec (which see). In 1776 he was aid to General Schuyler, and late in that year he was promoted to colonel. He was with Sullivan in Rhode Island, and was in the battle of Quaker Hill (which see). He resigned in 1779. After the war he became attorney-general, judge, and chief-justice of the State of New York. Colonel Livingston was a general in the War of 1812, and was President of the New York Society of the Cincinnati.

Livingston, JAMES, was born in Canada in 1747; died in Saratoga County, N. Y., Nov. 20, 1832. He possessed some influence with the Canadians, and became colonel of a regiment of Canadian refugees, and, with them, joined General Montgomery. With these Livingston captured Fort Chambly, at the rapids of the Sorel (see *Chambly, Fort, Capture of*), and he participated in the attack on Quebec. (See *Quebec, Siege of*.) He was also in the battle of Bemis's Heights (which see), and he served throughout the war.

Livingston, JOHN HENRY, D.D., was born at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., May 30, 1746; died at New Brunswick, N. J., Jan. 20, 1825. He graduated at Yale College in 1762. He studied theology at Utrecht, Holland, where he was ordained by the Classis of Amsterdam. While in Holland he successfully worked for the independence of the American Dutch Reformed Church from the Dutch Classis. He settled as a pastor in New York; but when that city was taken possession of by the British he went on foot to Albany, and thence to Kingston, and finally to Poughkeepsie, whence, at the close of the war, he returned to New York. He was held in high esteem by his denomination; and in 1807 he was chosen President of Queen's (now Rutgers) College, at New Brunswick, N. J., which position he held until his death.

Livingston Manor. Robert Livingston, a native of Ancram, Teviotdale, Roxburghshire, Scotland, where he was born in 1634, emigrated to America in 1674. He possessed a bold, adventurous spirit, and was soon in public employment at Albany, where, in 1683, he married Alida, widow of Rev. Nicholas van Rensselaer, and daughter of Philip Pieterse van Schuyler. She brought him considerable wealth, with which he purchased a large landed estate on the east bank of the Hudson. Its boundary commenced about five miles south of the site of the city of Hudson, and extended twelve miles along the river, and eastward to the line between the states of New York and Massachusetts. The area widened as it extended eastward, so that, on its eastern boundary, the tract was nearly twenty miles in width. In 1686 Thomas Dongan, Governor of New York, granted Livingston a patent for this domain, which comprised over one hundred and twenty thou-

sand acres. It was the largest landed estate in the province, excepting that of Van Rensselaer. Five or six thousand acres of it were purchased for the use of the Palatines who came over with Governor Hunter in 1700, which tract still bears the name of Germantown, given to it at that time. In 1715 the grant of the Livingston Manor, given by Dongan, was confirmed by royal authority, and full manorial privileges were given to the proprietor. The lord of the manor exercised moderate judicial functions within his domain, and had the privilege of electing a representative to the General Assembly of the colony and two constables. This manor occupied a portion of Columbia and Dutchess counties.

Livingston, PHILIP, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Albany, N. Y., Jan. 15, 1716; died in York, Penn., Jan. 12, 1778. He graduated at Yale College in 1737; became a prominent merchant in the city of New York; was an alderman there from 1754 to 1758; and a member of the Provincial Assembly in 1759, in which he was one of the committee of correspondence with the colonial agent in England, Edmund Burke. Livingston opposed the taxation schemes of Parliament, and was unseated by a Tory majority in 1769, when the controversy between Great Britain and her colonies ran high. He was a member of the First Congress (1774), and held a seat in that body until his death in 1778, when their session was held at York, the British having possession of Philadelphia. Mr. Livingston was associated with Lee and Jay in the preparation of two of the state papers put forth by the First Congress. He was very active on the most important committees in Congress. Mr. Livingston founded the Professorship of Divinity at Yale College in 1746, and was one of the founders of the New York Society Library. He also aided materially in the establishment of King's (now Columbia) College. He patriotically sold a part of his property to sustain the public credit with its proceeds just before his death.

Livingston, ROBERT R., LL.D., first chancellor of the State of New York, was born in the city of New York, Nov. 27, 1747; died Feb. 26, 1813. He graduated at King's (now Columbia) College in 1765. He practised law successfully in New York, and was made recorder of the city in 1773. Of this office he was deprived early in 1775, because of his espousal of the patriot cause. He was elected to the Continental Congress in 1775, and was one of the committee appointed to draft a declaration of independence, but his necessary absence from Congress prevented his signing it. On the organization of the State of New York under a constitution, he was appointed chancellor, and held that position until 1801. In 1780 he was again a member of Congress, and was Secretary for Foreign Affairs from 1781 to 1783. Mr. Livingston was a member of the convention of New York which adopted the national Constitution, and voted for it. Minister-pleni-potentiary to France (from 1801 to 1804), he secured the cession of Louisiana to the United

States from Bonaparte. (See *Louisiana*.) He was the coadjutor of Fulton in perfecting the system of steam navigation. (See *Steam Navigation*.)



ROBERT R. LIVINGSTON.

Livingston, WILLIAM, LL.D., was born in the province of New York in November, 1723; died at Elizabethtown, N. J., July 25, 1790. He was an eminent member of the bar of both New York and New Jersey. With William Smith, he published the first *Digest of the Colonial Laws*, in 1752. For a while, in that decade of the century, he published the *Independent Reflector*. Thoroughly educated at Yale College, he possessed many solid as well as brilliant attainments in law and literature, and was an elegant and facile writer. Behind the mask of anonymity, Mr. Livingston



WILLIAM LIVINGSTON.

dealt heavy blows in favor of Presbyterianism, and against Episcopacy, in his weekly periodical, first published late in 1752. (See *Independent Reflector*.) In 1757 he published, in defence of Governor Shirley, a *Review of the Military Opera-*

tions in North America from 1753 to April 14, 1756, in a Letter to a Nobleman. The following year he was elected a member of the New York Assembly. Having purchased land in Elizabethtown, N. J., he built a fine mansion there, which he called "Liberty Hall," and removed there in 1773. Mr. Livingston early espoused the cause of the oppressed colonies, and was a representative of New Jersey in the first Continental Congress (1774). He was again a delegate to that body in 1775, but was soon called (June 5) to command the militia of New Jersey, with the commission of brigadier-general. After William Franklin (which see) was deposed in 1776, William Livingston succeeded him as governor of New Jersey, which post he retained until his death, conducting public affairs with wisdom and energy. The British called him "The Don Quixote of New Jersey" (for he was tall and thin in person), and tried hard to catch him, but he always managed to escape. Mr. Livingston was a delegate from New Jersey in the convention which framed the national Constitution. He was offered the position of minister to Holland, but declined. Mr. Livingston had some poetic genius, and in 1747, when he was twenty-four years of age, he wrote a poem called *Philosophical Solitude*.

Loan-offices Authorized. The Congress, on Oct. 3, 1776, authorized a loan of \$5,000,000 for the use of the United States, whose faith was to be pledged to the lenders for the payment of the same with interest. The Congress also authorized the establishment of a loan-office in each state, and the appointment by the respective states of a commissioner to superintend each office.

Loans and the Peace Faction (1813-14). From the beginning of the second war for independence, the government had to depend upon loans for funds to carry on the war, and in this matter the Peace faction found an excellent chance for embarrassing the administration. They took measures to injure the public credit, and so much did they do so that upon each loan after 1812 a ruinous bonus was paid. On a loan of \$16,000,000, at the beginning of 1813, the lender received a bonus of about \$2,000,000. In March, 1814, the darkest period of the war, a loan of \$25,000,000 was authorized, when the Peace faction, at public meetings, through the newspapers, and even from the pulpit, cast every possible embarrassment in the way of the government. Their opposition assumed the character of virtual treason. They violently denounced the government and those who dared to lend it money; and by inflammatory publications and personal threats they intimidated many capitalists who were disposed to lend. The result was, not half the amount of the proposed loan was obtained, and that only by the payment of \$2,852,000 on \$11,400,000. Then this unpatriotic faction pointed to this event as evidence of the unwillingness of the people to continue the war. So disastrous were these attempts to borrow money, that only one more of a like nature was made through the remainder

of the war, the deficiency being made up by treasury notes. Foiled in their efforts to utterly prevent the government from making loans, the Peace faction struck another blow at the public credit, and the complicity of Boston banks gave it intensity. The banks out of New England were the principal lenders to the government, and measures were taken to drain them of their specie, and so produce an utter inability on their part to pay their subscriptions. Boston banks demanded specie for the notes of New York banks and those farther south which they held, and at the same time drafts were drawn on the New York banks for the balances due the Boston corporations, to the total amount of about \$8,000,000. A panic was created, and great commercial distress ensued, for the banks so drained were compelled to contract their discounts. This conspiracy against the public credit was potent and ruinous in its effects. To make the blow more intensely fatal, the conspirators made arrangements with agents of the government authorities of Lower Canada, whereby a very large amount of British government bills, drawn on Quebec, were transmitted to New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and offered on such advantageous terms that capitalists were induced to purchase them. By this means an immense amount of gold was transmitted to Canada, and so placed beyond the reach of the government of the United States, and put into the hands of the enemy.

Locke, JOHN, born at Wrington, Somersetshire, Aug. 29, 1632; died in Essex County, England, Oct. 28, 1704. His father was a parliamentary captain. He graduated at Oxford, was fond of philosophical studies, associated with men of wit, and chose the profession of a physician. His first public employment was as secretary in a diplomatic mission to the court of Brandenburg in 1664. While pursuing philosophical studies in 1667, he became acquainted with Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury), and by his medical skill advised a surgical operation that saved his lordship's life. By him Locke was introduced to the most distinguished statesmen of the time. He superintended the education of Ashley's son, and assisted him in preparing a scheme of government for the Carolinas. (See *Fundamental Constitutions*.) When Ashley (then Earl of Shaftesbury) was accused of treason (1683), he fled to Holland, and Locke followed him. Locke had held various public offices, but now he remained quietly in Holland until after the revolution (1688), when he returned to England in the same vessel that bore the Princess Mary thither. Locke's principal work was an *Essay on the Human Understanding*, published twenty years after it was begun. Locke ranks among the most eminent mental philosophers.

Loco-focos. A name originally applied to a faction of the Democratic party. At a meeting in Tammany Hall, New York, in 1834, there was great diversity of sentiment upon certain questions. The conservative chairman and his friends, perceiving the radical movement to be

strong, determined to defeat it by a sort of *coup-d'état*. To dissolve the meeting, the chairman left his seat and the lights were all extinguished, but the radicals rekindled the lights with "loco-foco," or friction, matches, reorganized the meeting, and carried their measures; and it finally became a popular designation of the whole Democratic party in the Union.

Logan (Ta-ga-jute), a noted Indian chief, who was born about 1725, and died in 1780. He received his name from James Logan, secretary of the province of Pennsylvania, and was the son of a Cayuga chief who dwelt at Shamokin, on the Susquehanna River. He went beyond the Alleghenies before 1767. In 1772, Heckewelder, the Moravian missionary, met him on the Beaver River, and observed his great mental capacity. His family were massacred by a party of white people in the spring of 1774, which was the occasion of his celebrated speech (see *Logan's Speech*) after the defeat of the barbarians at Point Pleasant (which see). Logan fought the white people desperately afterwards, when occasion offered, in the West. At a council held at Detroit, while maddened by strong drink, he felled his wife by a heavy blow. Supposing he had killed her, he fled. Overtaken by a troop of Indians on the southern shore of Lake Erie, he supposed them to be avengers, and frantically declared that he would slay the whole party. As he leaped from his horse he was shot dead.

Logan, BENJAMIN, a Kentucky pioneer, was born in Pennsylvania about 1742; died in Shelby County, Va., Dec. 11, 1802. At twenty-one he removed to the banks of the Holston from Augusta County, Va., to which his father had emigrated. There he bought a farm and married. He became a sergeant in Bouquet's Expedition (which see), and in 1774 was in Dunmore's expedition. Removing to Kentucky in 1775, in 1776 he took his family to Logan's Fort, near Harrodsburg. There he was attacked by a large force of Indians, but they were repulsed. He was second in command of an expedition against the Indians at Chillicothe under Colonel Bowman in July, 1779. In 1788 he conducted an expedition against the Northwestern tribes, burning their villages and destroying their crops. In 1792 he was a member of the convention that framed the first constitution for Kentucky.

Logan, JAMES, was born at Lurgan, Ireland, Oct. 20, 1674; died near Philadelphia, Oct. 31, 1751. He was an accomplished scholar and linguist. In 1699 he accepted the invitation of William Penn to become the secretary of his province of Pennsylvania; and when the proprietor returned to England in 1701, he left Logan intrusted with important executive offices, which he filled with zeal, ability, and good judgment. He was chief-justice of the province. On the death of Gordon (1736), so long the faithful guardian of the proprietor's rights, Logan, as president of the council, administered the government for two years. Logan was always the friend of the Indians. At his death he left his valuable library of two thousand volumes to the city of Philadelphia.

Logan, JOHN ALEXANDER, was born in Jackson County, Ill., Feb. 9, 1826. He served in the war against Mexico, rising from the rank of private to that of lieutenant and quartermaster. He was admitted to the practice of law in 1852;



JOHN ALEXANDER LOGAN.

was in the Illinois Legislature, and in Congress from 1859 to 1862. He was a private in a Michigan regiment at the battle of Bull's Run (July, 1861); returned to Illinois and raised a regiment, of which he was colonel; was wounded at Fort Donelson, and the following month (March, 1862) was made a brigadier-general. In April of the same year he was promoted to major-general, and commanded a division in the Vicksburg and Atlanta campaigns (1863-64). He was one of the most successful volunteer generals. He was again sent to Congress in 1867, and was distinguished as a fluent and vigorous debater. In 1884 he was the Republican candidate for the office of Vice-President of the United States. Died Dec. 26, 1886.

Logan's Speech. James Logan, William Penn's provincial secretary, was a friend of the Indians, and Shikellimus, a converted Cayuga chief, gave to his son Ta-ga-jute the name of Logan. The latter became a chief among the Mingoes. A greater portion of his family were murdered by the white people on the banks of the Ohio in 1774. Revenge was fearfully aroused in his bosom, and on the war-path he gathered many scalps of white people as trophies of his valor and vengeance. He was invited to a conference with Lord Dunmore on the Scioto. He refused to have any friendly intercourse with a white man, but sent by the messenger (Colonel John Gibson, who married his sister) the following remarkable speech to the council: "I appeal to any white man to say if he ever entered Logan's cabin hungry and he gave him no meat; if he ever came cold and naked and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they passed and said, 'Logan is the friend of the white man.' I had even thought to have lived with you

but for the injuries of one man. Colonel Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not even sparing my women and children. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it. I have killed many. I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbor the thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan? Not one!" Logan was mistaken; it was not Cresap who led the band of assassins. He was not then in that region. The speech was translated into English, and was pronounced inimitable for eloquence and pathos.

London's Address TO THE KING (1775). The continued news of the kindling of civil war in America excited the sympathies of the people and authorities of the city of London in favor of the long-suffering and long-forbearing colonists, and the citizens voted an address to the king, desiring him to consider the English people, "who had nothing to expect from America but gazettes of blood and unnatural lists of their slaughtered fellow-subjects," and prayed for a dissolution of the Parliament, and a dismissal of the present ministers. The king refused to receive the address, but it was entered on the records of the city and published by authority.

London Company. Twenty years after Raleigh's first attempt to establish a colony in America, Richard Hakluyt, prebendary of Westminster (see *Hakluyt, Richard*), incited several gentlemen, some of them personal friends of Raleigh, to petition King James I. to grant them a patent for planting colonies in North America. Raleigh's grant was made void by his attainder. (See *Raleigh*.) There was not an Englishman to be found in America then, and there was only one permanent settlement north of Mexico, that of St. Augustine. The petition was gladly received by the king, for reasons elsewhere stated (see *Virginia, Colony of*), and on the 10th of April, 1606, James issued letters-patent to Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hakluyt, Edward Maria Wingfield, and others, granting to them a territory extending from latitude 34° to 45° north, together with all the islands in the ocean within one hundred miles of the coast. The object of the patent was "to make habitations and plantations," and to form colonies by sending English people into that portion of America "commonly called Virginia with the hope of Christianizing and civilizing the pagans there." The territory was divided into two districts, called, respectively, North and South Virginia. A supreme government of the domain was vested in a council, resident in England, to be named by the king; to be governed by laws which he should prescribe; and subordinate jurisdiction was committed to a council resident in Virginia. All the rights of citizenship were to be guaranteed to the colonists; besides this they would possess no political rights. Homage and rent were the prime conditions of the charter—rent in the form of one fifth of the net profits arising

from mines of precious metals. The charter had not the feature of a free government; for, to the emigrants, not a single elective franchise, or a right to self-government, was conceded. They were to be governed by a commercial corporation, of which they were not allowed to be members, and even in matters of divine worship they had no choice. The doctrine and ritual of the Church of England were to be the established theology and mode of worship in the American colonies, and no dissent was allowed. The colonists were permitted to coin money for their own use, to import necessities from England free of duty for seven years, and to take measures for repelling enemies. The proprietors of each section were invested with the right of property in the lands extending along the coast fifty miles each way from the point first settled respectively, and back one hundred miles from the coast. To an association of "noblemen, gentlemen, and merchants," chiefly residing in London, was granted a charter for the settlement of South Virginia. This was known as the "London Company." A similar charter was granted to "knights, gentlemen, and merchants," of Plymouth, Bristol, and other places in the west of England, and this was known as the "Plymouth Company." The king prepared a code of laws for the colonists, in which kindness to the Indians, regular preaching of the Gospel, and teaching religion to the pagans were enjoined; also providing for the well-ordering of a civil community. Under this charter, and laws and instructions from the king, presented in November, 1606, the London Company sent three ships with emigrants, from the Thames, on the 20th of December, under the command of Captain Newport, and they landed on the banks of the James River in May, 1607. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) The company desired more the immediate profits from precious metals discovered than to found a commonwealth. Indeed, the class of men they sent over were totally unfit for such a noble service. The disappointed company demanded impossibilities. In 1608 they sent word to the colonists that, if they did not send them commodities sufficient to pay the charges of the voyage in which their demand was sent (\$10,000); a "lump of gold, the product of Virginia; assurance of having found a passage to the Pacific Ocean, and also one of the lost colony sent to Roanoke," they should be "left in Virginia as banished men." To this absurd demand and threat Captain Smith made a spirited answer, in which he implored them to send better emigrants if they expected the fruits of industry. The company now sought strength by influential alliances, and they succeeded in associating with them wealthy and powerful men in the kingdom. In the spring of 1609 the company was composed of twenty-one peers, several bishops, ninety-eight knights, and a multitude of professional men, "gentlemen," and merchants. They thus obtained great influence in Parliament, and in May (1609) they procured a new charter, under the title of "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the City of London for the First Col-

ony in Virginia," by which the border of the domain was extended, by a grant of new territory, northward to Chesapeake Bay; the offices of president and council in Virginia were abolished, and all laws for the government of the colony were to be passed by the Supreme Council in England, and administered by persons appointed by that body. The colonists were really vassals, without any recognized power to remove the yoke from their necks. The rule of the appointed governor was absolute, and they were compelled to share a certain portion of their net earnings with the proprietors. In 1612 a third charter was obtained by the London Company, by which the control of the king in their affairs was annulled, the Supreme Council was abolished, and the whole company, sitting as a democratic assembly, elected the officers and ordained laws for the colonists, who remained without political rights. In spite of their disabilities, the Virginias flourished under the new order of things. The seeds of representative government were then sown, and in 1621 the company gave the colonists a written constitution that conferred the privilege of the elective franchise in a limited degree. The company had now borne a heavy burden a long time, and was approaching final dissolution. The king became jealous of the personal strength of the corporation and the republican spirit manifested in the colonies, and in May, 1623, he took high-handed measures against the company. He appointed a commission to examine the transactions of the corporation from the beginning and to report to the Privy Council. All their charters, books, and papers were seized; two of the principal officers were arrested, and all letters from the colony were intercepted and taken to the Privy Council. Captain Smith's testimony was damaging to the company. The report was kept a secret until the company received a notice from the king and Privy Council (October, 1623) that it was judged that the misfortunes to Virginia had been occasioned by their mismanagement, and that the sovereign had determined to revoke the old charter and issue a new one which would concentrate the power of government in a few hands. The astonished company indignantly refused to sanction the stigma affixed to their conduct by this order, or to consent to a change in the popular form of their government. They declared themselves prepared to defend their rights against any measures the king might decide on. Incensed by their audacity, James directed a writ of *quo warranto* to be issued against the company, to try the validity of the charter in the Court of King's Bench. The company, hopeless of obtaining justice in that court, appealed to the House of Commons for redress. They sympathized with the company, but their session was too near its close to allow them to enter into inquiries. The exasperated king launched a proclamation (July 4, 1624), suppressing the courts of the company and committing the temporary management of colonial affairs to members of the Privy Council. The contest resulted in the vacation of the charter, by order of the

Court of King's Bench, the dissolution of the London Company, and Virginia becoming a royal province. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) It had been an unprofitable speculation for the members of the company. They had spent \$500,000 of their own fortune in establishing the first permanent English colony in America. They had sent nine thousand persons there; when the company dissolved not more than two thousand remained. The annual value of exports to England, from Virginia, did not exceed \$100,000. Ten different persons had served as governors of Virginia during the eighteen years of the existence of the London Company.

London Company, SECOND CHARTER OF THE, was obtained from King James (May 23, 1609) with more ample privileges. With augmented numbers, wealth, and reputation, the company pressed forward. It was made "one body, or commonalty, perpetual," and was incorporated by the title of "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the City of London for the First Colony in Virginia." The former charter seemed to give them only a deed of trust; this gave them absolute property. The domain included the region from Old Point Comfort, at the mouth of the James River, southward along the coast two hundred miles, and northward from the same point two hundred miles, and westward to the Pacific Ocean. Thomas West (Lord Delaware) was appointed Governor of Virginia for life; Sir Thomas Gates, his lieutenant; Sir George Somers, Admiral; and Christopher Newport, Vice-admiral.

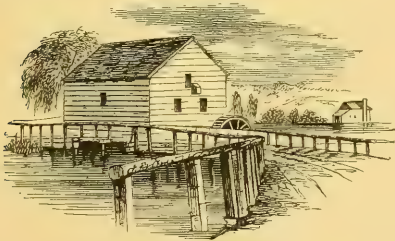
London Company, THE, applied to the Long Parliament (1642) for the restoration of their charter. The opposition of the Virginians defeated the project, for they were loyal to the king, who was then in arms against the Parliament.

London Company, THIRD CHARTER OF THE. On March 12, 1612, King James gave the company a new charter, which confirmed all their former privileges and granted them more extensive property and more ample jurisdiction. By it all the islands lying within three hundred leagues of the coast were annexed to the province of Virginia. The Bermudas, lying within these limits, were sold by the company to one hundred and twenty of its own members, who, in honor of Sir George Somers (which see), named them Somers's Isles, or the Somer Islands. To these islands they now sent the first colony of sixty persons, with Richard Moore as their governor.

Long, ELI, was born in Woodford County, Ky., June 27, 1836; was educated at a military school in Frankfort, Ky.; and in 1856 was made lieutenant of United States cavalry. He served in campaigns against the Indians, and in May, 1861, was made captain. He did good service throughout the Civil War, rising rapidly until he commanded a division; and in March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army. Retiring in August, 1867, on account of disability from wounds, he was made a major-general United States Army.

Long Island, BATTLE OF. On the 1st of August, 1776, the army of Washington at New York did not exceed 20,000 men, of whom one fifth were sick and as many more absent on detached duty. Soon afterwards 7000 militia reinforced him, and later on a few more came. But they were poorly equipped, very little disciplined, distracted by sectional jealousies, and, in the New England troops especially, there was so much democratic freedom that there was little subordination. On the whole, it presented a very unpromising force with which to oppose the British veterans, greater in numbers, then preparing to invade Long Island and attempt the capture of New York and Washington's army. General Howe had been reinforced by Hessians (see *German Mercenaries*), the troops under Clinton from Charleston, and others, making a total force of about 24,000, encamped on Staten Island. Admiral Howe sent some armed ships up the Hudson to reconnoitre and take soundings. They passed the batteries at Fort Washington and elsewhere, and, having narrowly escaped some fire-ships and accomplished their errand, they returned to the fleet. Divining the purpose of the British, Washington sent a considerable force, under General Greene, to Long Island, who cast up strong intrenchments back of Brooklyn; but he was soon compelled to retire, on account of sickness, and leave the command to General Sullivan. There was a range of thickly wooded hills, extending from the Narrows to Jamaica, through which several roads passed; while another extended near the shores of the bay, from the Narrows to Brooklyn. These passes through the hills were imperfectly guarded by Sullivan, when, on the morning of Aug. 22, about 15,000 British and German troops landed on the western end of Long Island and prepared to move forward. Washington sent reinforcements to Sullivan, and General Putnam was placed in chief command on the island, with instructions to thoroughly guard the passes in the hills. The whole American force on the island did not exceed 8000 men, and 2500 of these were sent to guard the passes. On the 26th the British moved forward, under the chief command of Sir Henry Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, followed by the Germans, under General de Heister. The combined forces formed a thoroughly disciplined army. It was obvious that they intended to gain the rear of the Americans by the Bedford and Jamaica passes. At three o'clock on the morning of the 27th word reached Putnam that his pickets at the lower pass (below the present Greenwood Cemetery) had been driven in. He immediately sent General Lord Stirling with some Delaware and Maryland troops to repulse the invaders. He was followed by General Parsons with some Connecticut troops. Beyond Gowanus Creek, Stirling found himself confronted by overwhelming numbers under General Grant, with some of Howe's ships on his right flank. At the same time the Germans, under De Heister and Knyphausen, were moving to force their way at the pass farther eastward (now in Prospect Park); while Howe, with the main body

of the British, under Clinton and Cornwallis, was pressing towards the Bedford and Jamaica passes to gain the rear of the Americans. Putnam had neglected to guard the latter pass. When, at eight o'clock, the invaders had reached those passes, not more than 4000 men were out of the lines at Brooklyn; and, instead of ordering Stirling to fall back from almost certain destruction, he allowed Sullivan to go out with a few troops and take command at the pass below (now in Prospect Park), not nearly so important. The consequence was that, while Sullivan was fighting the Germans, Clinton had gained his rear and fell upon him. It was a surprise. Sullivan was driven back upon the Germans. After a severe hand-to-hand fight, and seeing no chance for success or an orderly retreat, Sullivan ordered his men to shift for themselves. Some fought through the attacking lines; some fled to the woods; and many were made prisoners; while Sullivan, hidden in a field of corn, was captured. Stirling and his party were now the only unbroken body of Americans in the field, and they fought with spirit four hours. Then, hopeless of receiving reinforcements, and seeing a strong body of the British approaching his flank and rear, he ordered a retreat. The bridge across Gowanus Creek (on the border of which he was fighting, near where the old mill stood in 1850) was in



BROWER'S MILL IN 1850.

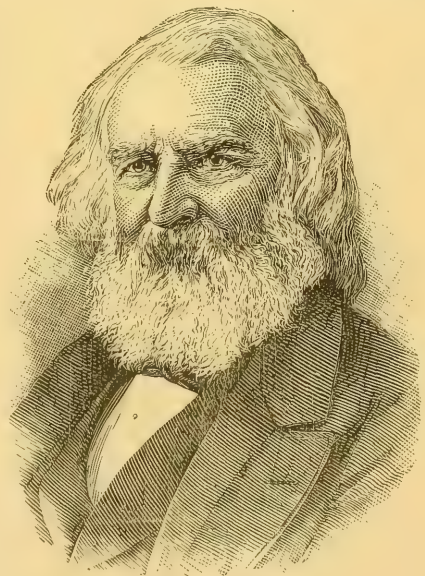
flames, and his troops were compelled to wade the water and the oozy morass. Even that passage was about to be cut off by the enemy, led by Cornwallis. Quickly ordering the Delaware and Maryland troops to ford the creek and morass with some German prisoners, he, with the remainder, fought Cornwallis desperately until all the others had crossed excepting seven, who were drowned. No longer able to resist the pressure, Stirling and his men were made prisoners. The loss of the Americans did not exceed 1000, of whom one half were prisoners. Howe did not follow up his advantage, but allowed the American army on Long Island to retreat in safety to New York. (See *Retreat from Long Island*.)

Long Parliament, THE. Charles I. of England, who attempted to rule that realm without a parliament, was compelled, in 1640, to call one, which became a long-existing body, and one of the most remarkable in the history of England. It first met Nov. 3, 1640, and was dissolved by Cromwell April 20, 1653. A large number of its members were Puritans, and almost all of them

were opposed to the tyrannous measures of the king. They entered at once on the redress of grievances, and in the course of eighteen months assumed the entire political control and authority of the kingdom. Among their earlier acts was a resolution that the English-American colonists should enjoy all their liberties according to their patents. Exercising equal liberality towards English subjects at home caused almost a total cessation of emigration to America. About twenty-five thousand British emigrants had then been received in America, and east of the Hudson River were then twelve independent communities, comprising not less than fifty towns or distinct settlements.

Long, PIERCE, was born at Portsmouth, N. H., in 1739; died there, April 3, 1789. He was a member of the Provincial Congress of New Hampshire in 1775, and became colonel of a regiment, which he commanded in the retreat from Ticonderoga in July, 1777. He defeated a pursuing British force at Fort Anne, and was serving as a volunteer at the time of the surrender of Burgoyne. Colonel Long was in Congress from 1784 to 1786; a state councillor from 1786 to 1789; and Collector of the Port of Portsmouth at the time of his death.

Longfellow, HENRY WADSWORTH, LL.D., was born at Portland, Me., Feb. 27, 1807, and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1825. He was a descendant of William Longfellow, of Newbury, Mass., and on his mother's side from John Alden, a passenger in the *Mayflower*. He studied law a short time, when he received the appointment of Professor of Modern Languages in his *alma mater*. To better fit himself for the duties,



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

he spent three years and a half in Europe, and assumed the functions of his office in 1829. In 1835 he was chosen Professor of Belles-Lettres in Harvard University, and again he made a

pilgrimage to Europe to make himself familiar with Continental literature. In the spring of 1836 his wife, who accompanied him, died in Rotterdam. He was again married in 1843. For nearly twenty years he was a professor in Harvard College, retiring from that post in 1854, and pursued the delightful task of literary composition in his fine old mansion at Cambridge, which Washington had used for his headquarters in 1775-76. He first wrote timidly for literary periodicals, and the first seven articles in a collection published in 1857 were written before he was nineteen years of age. Among these is his exquisite *Hymn of the Moravian Nuns*. He also wrote prose essays for the *North American Review* and other periodicals. In his later years, Mr. Longfellow was a very fruitful poet, in quality and quantity, and from the day of his majority his fame was assured by the approval of the best literary critics. The most popular of his poems, and deservedly so, are his *Excelsior*, *Psalm of Life*, *Evangeline*, and the *Song of Hiawatha*. An analytical list of Mr. Longfellow's works down to 1870 may be found in Allibone's *Critical Dictionary of English Literature*, etc. Some of Mr. Longfellow's later poems are translations from the modern languages of Europe, and these are models. "As a translator," says a critic, "he has succeeded admirably in preserving the spirit of the originals, and as a poet he appeals to the universal affections of humanity by the thoughts and images derived from original perceptions of nature and life." As an indication of the popularity of Mr. Longfellow, the sales of his poetical compositions had amounted in 1857 (when he was fifty years of age) to 293,000 copies, and his prose productions to 32,550 copies. Since that time the number has probably been increased to half a million. The sales in England, where he is as popular as in America, have been very large. His translation of Dante, in three volumes (1867-70), is regarded by good judges as the best in the English language. He died March 24, 1882.

Longfellow, STEPHEN, LL.D., was born at Gorham, Me., June 23, 1775; died Aug. 2, 1849. He graduated at Harvard, and was admitted to the bar in 1801. In 1814 he was a delegate to the Hartford Convention (which see), and was a member of Congress from 1823 to 1825. In 1834 he was President of the Maine Historical Society. He was the father of H. W. Longfellow.

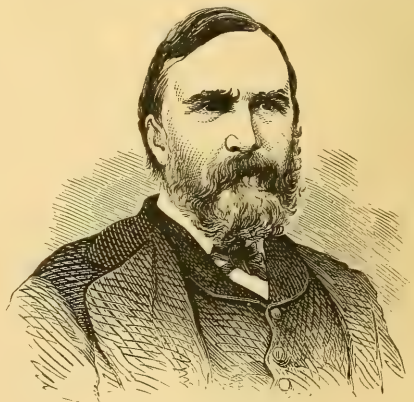
Longstreet, JAMES, was born in Alabama in 1820, and graduated at West Point in 1842. He served in the war against Mexico (1846-48), in which he was severely wounded, and was distinguished for bravery. He held the rank of major when the Civil War broke out, and, joining the insurgents, was made a brigadier in the Confederate army in October, 1861. All through the Civil War he was regarded as one of the ablest of the Confederate military leaders, and as Lee's "right hand." After the failure of the cause he had supported he became loyal to the government. He was United States Minister at Constantinople in 1880-81.

Longwoods, BATTLE OF. Captain Holmes, of

the Twenty-fourth United States Infantry, proceeded (Feb. 27, 1814) with a party of about one hundred and sixty rangers and mounted men against some of the British posts in Upper Canada. At Longwoods, on the Thames, he had a very sharp battle, on March 4, with the British, who, after an hour of hard fighting, ordered a retreat. Their loss was sixty-five killed and wounded, besides Indians. The loss of the Americans was seven men.

Longworth, NICHOLAS, was born at Newark, N. J., Jan. 16, 1782; died in Cincinnati, Feb. 10, 1863. In early life he was clerk in a store of an elder brother in South Carolina, but emigrated to Cincinnati at the age of twenty-one years, when that place was not much more than a hamlet. He studied law, which he practised there for twenty-five years, and invested money in lands, long since covered by the rapidly growing city. He finally turned his attention to the cultivation of grapes, first raising foreign vines and then the native Catawba and Isabella. He produced very fine wine from the latter. At one time he had two hundred acres of vineyard and a wine-house. At his death, Mr. Longworth's property was estimated at \$15,000,000.

Lookout Mountain, BATTLE ON. General W. T. Sherman had arrived near Chattanooga late in November, 1863. It was important to get his army over the river without being discovered. To attract the chief attention of the Confederates to another quarter, Hooker was ordered to attack them on the northern face of Lookout Mountain. His entire force consisted of nearly ten thousand men. The main Confederate force was encamped in a hollow half-way up the mountain, and the summit was held by several brigades. Their pickets held a continuous line along Lookout Creek, with reserves in the valley. Hooker moved to the attack on the morning of Nov. 24. Geary, supported by Cruft, marched to Wauhatchie and



JAMES LONGSTREET.

crossed Lookout Creek there, while the rest of the troops crossed in front of the Confederates on temporary bridges. A heavy mist enveloped mountain and plain. Geary crossed at eight

o'clock, seized a picket-guard of forty men, and extended his line to the foot of the mountain. Gross's brigade seized the bridge below the railway-crossing, and T. J. Wood's brigade crossed half a mile above. Two batteries had been planted on a hill near, and by eleven o'clock Hooker was endeavoring to drive the Confederates from the mountain. His adversary in immediate command before him was General Walthall. Hooker's guns all opened at once on the breastworks and rifle-pits along the steep wooded acclivity. The brigades just mentioned formed a junction, and, sweeping everything before them, captured the rifle-pits, allowing but few men to escape up the mountain. At the same time the troops scaled the rugged heights, cutting their way through felled trees, and driving the Confederates from the hollow

established his line on the easterly face of the mountain; so that, by an enfilading fire, he completely commanded the Confederate defences, stretching across the Chattanooga valley to Missionaries' Ridge. A National battery on Moccasin Point, fifteen hundred feet below the crest of Lookout Mountain, had dismounted a gun in a battery on that crest.

Lopez, NARCISSO, was born in Venezuela in 1799; executed at Havana, Sept. 20, 1851. He was a merchant in early life. He first sided with the revolutionists in 1814, but afterwards enlisted in the Spanish army, and was a colonel in 1822. He went to Cuba, and became conspicuous as a liberal in politics. Going to Spain, he became a senator for Seville, which office he resigned because delegates from Cuba were not admitted. On his return to Cuba he was in the employ of the government for a while; but in 1849 he came to the United States and organized a force for revolutionizing Cuba and effecting its independence. He failed in an attempted invasion, and, landing again in Cuba with an invading force, he was soon captured and garroted.

Lord Charles Hay and Lord Loudoun.

When the Earl of Loudoun, on July 9, 1757, had assembled his whole armament, consisting of ten thousand soldiers, sixteen ships of the line, several frigates, and many transports, for an attack on Louisbourg, it was believed an immediate assault would be made. The troops were landed, and set at work levelling the earth and cultivating a vegetable garden; and in these labors and in the exercise of sham-fights almost a month was spent. The army became dispirited, and its officers exasperated. One day, when Major-general Lord Charles Hay was sitting under a tree near the sea-shore, discussing army matters with his fellow-officers, his indignation at the delay became uncontrollable, and, springing to his feet, he exclaimed, as he pointed towards a noble ship lying near and to the idle camp not far off, "See how the power of England is held in chains by imbecility! Her substance is wasted by indecision! With such ships and such men as we have here, led by an energetic and competent commander,



SLOPE OF LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN.

to a plateau well up towards the crest and forcing them around towards the Chattanooga valley. At the same time Freeland's brigade was rolling them up on the flank. The struggle on the mountain-sides, in a dense fog (or, rather, a *cumulus* cloud) that hid the combatants from view, was fierce. It was, literally, a "battle in the clouds." At considerably past noon the plateau was cleared, and the Confederates were flying in confusion down the precipitous ravines and rugged slopes towards the Chattanooga valley. All the morning, while the battle was raging, so thick was the cloud on the mountain that only at intervals could the straining eyes of spectators at Chattanooga and on Orchard Knob, listening to the thunders of the artillery, catch a glimpse of the lines and banners. Hooker es-

tailed Cape Breton and its fortress, and all this eastern region, might have been a part of the British empire a month ago." For these brave words Lord Hay was arrested by Loudoun, sent to England, tried by court-martial, and acquitted of all blame. The president of the Board, while putting a question to Lord Hay, fell from his seat in an apoplectic fit and died.

Lord Hillsborough and Colonial Agents.

On Dec. 6, 1768, the Secretary for the Colonies met the several colonial agents in a body, to communicate to them the result of a cabinet council. He said: "The administration will enforce the authority of the Legislature of Great Britain over the colonies in the most effectual manner, but with moderation and lenity. All the petitions we have received are very offensive,

for they contain a denial of the authority of Parliament." (See *American Petitions Rejected*.) He disapproved of some of the late acts of a commercial nature, and said the Duty Act would have been repealed, had the Americans opposed it on the ground of its inexpediency. "But," he said, "the principle you proceed upon extends to all laws; and we cannot, therefore, think of repealing it, at least this session of Parliament, or until the colonies shall have dropped the point of right. Nor can the conduct of the people of Boston pass without censure." Against this actively patriotic town ministerial wrath was chiefly directed. Hillsborough, in the House of Lords, expressed a hope that no one would move or think of a repeal of the late acts while the present attitude of the Americans lasted. "The notion of the Americans," he said, "is a polytheism in politics—absurd, fatal to the constitution, and never to be admitted." He truly said, it was not the amount of revenue to be obtained by taxation from the colonies (about \$50,000 a year) that they opposed, but the principle upon which the tax was levied. He closed his speech by offering a series of resolutions for coercing the colonies into submission. Choiseul (which see), watching the course of British legislation, said: "Under the semblance of rigor, it covers pusillanimity and fear. If those who are threatened with a trial for high-treason are not alarmed, the lesson and discouragement will affect nobody but the British ministers." (See *Henry VIII., Statute of*.)

Lord North's Proposition. In February, 1775, the information received from Franklin disheartened Lord North, and he dreaded a war with the colonists which his encouragement of the king's obstinacy was provoking, and, armed with the king's consent in writing, he proposed, in the House of Commons, a plan of conciliation. It was on the general plan, if the colonies would tax themselves to the satisfaction of the ministry, Parliament would impose on them no duties except for the regulation of commerce. "Whether any colony will come in on these terms I know not," said North, "but it is just and humane to give them the option. If one consents, a link of the great chain is broken. If not, it will convince men of the justice and humanity at home, and that in America they mean to throw off all dependence." This yielding of Parliament to the colonies could not be tolerated by the ultra ministerial party, and a wild storm of opposition ensued; but Lord North, with the assistance of the king, finally subdued it, and the Commons consented. When Vergennes, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, heard of these proceedings, he said, "Now, more than ever, is the time for us to keep our eyes wide open"—for the French court had resolved to promote the quarrel until the colonists should become independent, and so weaken the British empire by dismemberment.

Lord North's Remorse. It is said that, in his old age, Lord North often became low-spirited on account of his having yielded his con-

science to the will of the king, and remaining in the administration after he became satisfied that the war was unjust, and that peace ought to be made with the Americans. This thought disturbed him more than did his blindness.

Loring, JOSHUA, was born in Massachusetts; died at Highgate, Eng., in 1781. He was made captain in the Royal Navy in 1757, and in the French and Indian War (which see) he was naval commander in the operations on lakes Champlain and Ontario, accompanying Amherst to Montreal in 1760. His son was high-sheriff of Massachusetts.

Loring, WILLIAM W., was born in North Carolina in 1815; commanded a detachment of volunteers in Florida (1835-42), and afterwards mounted riflemen in the war against Mexico, where he lost an arm, and was breveted colonel. He was afterwards colonel of a regiment fighting the Indians in New Mexico. He left the army, joined the Confederates, was made a brigadier-general, and afterwards major-general. He served later in Egypt, and died in 1886.

Loss of Life during the Civil War. It is estimated that full 300,000 Union soldiers perished during the war. Of these, 60,000 were killed in the field, and about 35,000 mortally wounded. Disease in camps and hospitals slew 184,000. Full 300,000 Confederate soldiers also lost their lives in the conflict. The number of men, in both armies, who were crippled or permanently disabled by disease, was estimated at 400,000. The actual loss to the country of able-bodied men, in consequence of the slaveholders' rebellion, was fully a million.

Lost Cause, THE. Those who engaged in the war for the destruction of the Union (1861-65), and failed to accomplish their purpose—failed in efforts to build from the ruins of the Republic a commonwealth or an empire whose corner-stone should be slavery—spoke of it as "The Lost Cause."

Lost Colony, THE. John White, whom Sir Walter Raleigh had sent to Virginia with some colonists, to be their governor, had with him his daughter, Mrs. Dare. (See *Dare, Virginia*.) White went back to England for supplies, and was detained a long time. When he returned to Roanoke Island, the colony he had left there had disappeared. With nineteen men, in two boats, he went in search of them. The colonists had agreed with White, when he left for England, to write or carve on the trees or posts of the doors the name of the place to which they had emigrated, if they should leave, for they were then preparing to go to a place fifty miles into the mainland. It was also agreed, in case they should be in distress, that they should carve a cross over the letters. As White and his friends ascended the bank at the site of the settlement, they found carved upon the trunk of a tree, in fair Roman letters, CROATAN, but, to their great comfort, they saw no sign of distress. The houses had been taken down, and the place strongly palisaded. They determined to sail for Croatan the next morning. A tempest arose.

the ship parted her cables, their provisions and fresh water were scanty, and they concluded to sail to the West Indies, remain there through the winter, and go to Croatan in the spring. But they were compelled to return to England. The colony was never heard of afterwards. It is asserted that some of the Hatteras Indians, of a subsequent generation, had light complexions, and their faces resembled the English type, and it is supposed the colony became amalgamated with the Hatteras tribe on the eastern coast of North Carolina.

Lost Prince, THE. (See *Williams, Eleazar.*)

Loudoun (Lord) and the Mayor of New York. According to his instructions, the Earl of Loudoun (which see) demanded of the authorities of New York city free quarters for himself, his officers, and one thousand men. "Your demand is contrary to the laws of England and the liberties of America," said the mayor of the city. "Free quarters are everywhere usual. I assert it on my honor, which is the highest evidence you can require," answered the haughty earl. The mayor was firm, and Loudoun determined to make New York an example for the rest of the continent. When the citizens, by the lips of the mayor, pleaded their rights as Englishmen, his lordship, with a vulgar oath, said to the magistrate, "If you don't billet my officers upon free quarters this day, I'll order here all the troops under my command, and billet them myself upon the city." A subscription for the purpose was raised, the officers were billeted on the city, and there Loudoun won his first victory. A similar contest, with a similar result, occurred in Philadelphia, and there Loudoun won his second and last victory in America.

Loudoun (John Campbell), **FOURTH EARL OF**, was born in Scotland in 1705 ; died April 27, 1782. In 1756 he was appointed governor of Virginia and commander-in-chief of the British forces in America. Leaving his lieutenant, Dinwiddie, to govern the province, he paid attention to military affairs, in which his indolence, indecision, and general inefficiency were most conspicuous, and worked disasters. Franklin said of him, "He is like little St. George on the signboards, always on horseback, but never goes forward." He was recalled in 1757, and returned to England. In 1758 he was made lieutenant-general, and in 1770 general.

Loudoun's Plantation. (See *Massachusetts, First Royal Charter for.*)

Louis XVI., of France, was born in Versailles, Aug. 23, 1754; was beheaded in Paris, Jan. 21, 1793. He was a grandson of Louis XV. and of a daughter of Frederick Augustus, King of Poland and Elector of Saxony. His father dying in 1765, he became heir presumptive to the throne of France, which he ascended on the 10th of May, 1774, with the beautiful Marie Antoinette, Archduchess of Austria, whom he married in May, 1770, as his queen. Louis was amiable, fond of simple enjoyments, and was beloved by his people. Through bad advisers and the wickedness of demagogues, he was placed

in seeming opposition to the people when his heart was really with them, and the madmen of France, who ruled the realm during the Reign of Terror, brought both Louis and his beautiful



LOUIS XVI.

queen to the scaffold. They went through the farce of a trial after arraigning the king on a charge of treason, found him guilty, of course, and beheaded him by the guillotine, with accompaniments of vulgar cruelty. His death was seriously mourned. He was weak, but not wicked. His friends dared not make any public demonstrations of grief, or even of attachment, at the time. A small commemorative medal of brass was struck, and secretly circu-



MEMORIAL MEDAL.

lated. These were cherished by the loyalists with great affection. Upon this medal—over a funeral urn from which a crown and scepter had fallen—were the significant words, “*SOL REGNI ABIIIT*”—“The sun of the kingdom has departed.” King Louis was closely identified with the Americans in their struggle for independence, consenting, through the influence of his chief minister, Vergennes, to give material aid, and make a treaty of friendship and alliance with them. Personally, he despised republicans, and could never hear with patience Dr. Franklin spoken of in words of praise, while his queen was a great admirer of the philosopher and statesman.

Louisburg. The fortress of Louisburg, on the Island of Cape Breton, was built by the French soon after the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Its cost was great, its strength enormous, and so long as the French held it it would be a source of annoyance to New England and of support to Canada. When, in 1746, France declared war

against Great Britain (see *King George's War*), Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, perceived the great importance of driving the French from it. He proposed to the Massachusetts Legislature the bold project of attempting its capture, and after some hesitation a colonial expedition for the purpose was authorized (Jan. 25, 1745) by a vote of a majority of one. A circular letter, soliciting aid, was sent to all the colonies as far south as Pennsylvania. The latter voted £4000 currency, to purchase provisions. New Jersey furnished £2000 towards the expedition, but declined to furnish any men. The New York Assembly contributed £3000 currency, but Governor Clinton sent, besides, a quantity of provisions purchased by private subscription and ten 18-pounders from the public magazine. Connecticut voted 500 men, led by Roger Wolcott (afterwards governor), who was appointed second in command of the expedition. Rhode Island and New Hampshire each raised a regiment of 300 men. As was to be expected, the chief burden of the expedition was borne by Massachusetts. Much interest was manifested everywhere. In seven weeks an army of 3250 men was enlisted, transports were procured, and an ample quantity of bills of credit issued to pay the expense. Massachusetts provided ten armed vessels. The chief command of the expedition was given to William Pepperell, of Maine. Whitefield, who was then making his third preaching tour throughout the colonies, successfully advocated the expedition, and suggested the motto of the New Hampshire regimental flag—"NIL DESPERANDUM CHRISTO DUCE"—"Nothing is to be despaired of with Christ for a leader." It assumed the character of an anti-papist crusade. One of the chaplains, a disciple of Whitefield, carried a hatchet, provided to hew down all images in the French churches. "Louisburg must be subdued," was the thought of the New-Englanders. Commodore Warren, in the West Indies, refused to co-operate with his fleet until he received express orders to do so. The expedition sailed from Boston April 4, 1745, and at Canseau they were unexpectedly joined by Warren on the 9th of May. The combined forces (4000 troops) landed (April 30) at Gabarus Bay, not far from Louisburg, and their sudden appearance there was the first intimation the French had of the near approach of danger. Consternation prevailed in the fortress and town. The cannons on shore, commanded by Richard Gridley, were dragged, with provisions, on sledges, over a morass; trenches were dug, batteries were erected, and a regular siege was commenced on the 1st of May (N. S.). Commodore Warren captured a French man-of-war of 64 guns, with over 500 men and a large quantity of stores for the garrison. Other English vessels of war arrived, and the fleet and army prepared to make a final and combined assault. The French, despairing of receiving any aid from France, surrendered the fortress and town of Louisburg and the Island of Cape Breton to the English on the 17th of June, after a siege of forty-eight days. The Island of St. John was also surrendered. The

capitulation included 650 soldiers of the garrison and 1300 inhabitants of the town of Louisburg, all of whom were to be shipped to France. (See *King George's War*.) The British government reimbursed the expenses of the expedition incurred by Massachusetts.

Louisburg, CAPTURE OF (1758). The zeal of the New-Englanders in raising a force to capture Louisburg was intense. Massachusetts voted 7000 men, besides 600 maintained for frontier defence. The advances made by the province during that year were not less than \$1,000,000. The tax on real estate amounted to two thirds of its value. Connecticut voted 5000 men, and New Hampshire and Rhode Island furnished 1000 more between them. The people were alive with enthusiasm, and the New England provinces raised 15,000 men. Boscawen arrived at Halifax early in May with about forty armed vessels, bearing a land force of over 12,000 men, under General Amherst as chief, and General Wolfe as his lieutenant. The armament left Halifax May 28, and the troops landed on the shores of Gabarus Bay (June 8) without much opposition, within a short distance of the fort. Alarmed by this unexpected and powerful display, the French almost immediately deserted their outposts, and retired within the fortress and the town. They made a vigorous resistance to the besiegers for almost fifty days. When all the shipping in the harbor was lost to the French, they surrendered the town, the fort, the islands of Cape Breton and St. John (now Prince Edward), and their dependencies (July 26, 1758). The garrison became prisoners of war. The spoils of victory were more than 5000 prisoners and a large amount of munitions of war. The garrison lost about 1500 men, and the town was made a ruin. So ended the attempts of the French to settle in and near the Gulf of St. Lawrence. That region passed into the permanent possession of the English. With the fall of Louisburg the power of France in America began to wane, and its decline was rapid.

Louisburg, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1757). The capture of Louisburg was Lord Loudoun's first care in the campaign of 1757. (See *French and Indian War*.) He found himself at the head of 6000 provincials on the 1st of June. He sailed from New York on the 20th, and arrived at Halifax on the 30th, where he was joined by Admiral Holborne, with a powerful naval armament and 5000 troops from England. The combined forces were about to sail for Louisburg when information reached Loudoun that 6000 troops were in the fortress there, and that a French fleet, larger than that of the English, was lying in that harbor. The latter had gained this position while the indolent Loudoun was moving with his accustomed slowness. The enterprise was abandoned, and Loudoun returned to New York (Aug. 31) with intelligence that had met him on the way of defeat and disgrace to the English arms in the north.

Louisiana was first visited by La Salle (which see), who discovered the mouth of the Mississippi (1691), and took possession of the country

in the name of Louis, King of France. Settlements were soon afterwards formed. (See *Iberville, Pierre*.) In 1712 Louis XIV. named the region Louisiana, in honor of himself, and granted it to M. Crozat. (See *Crozat and Louisiana*.) The territory was granted to "The Western Company" (which see) in 1717. (See also *Mississippi Company and Law's Bubble*.) The French remained in possession until 1762, when they ceded it to Spain. In 1800 it was retroceded to France, and in 1803 it was bought from the latter by the United States for \$15,000,000 (see *Louisiana, Purchase of*), and the American flag was first raised in New Orleans on the 20th of December, 1803. In 1804 the territory was divided into two governments—namely, "Territory of Orleans" and "District of Louisiana." The former entered the Union as the State of Louisiana April 8, 1812, and the name of the latter was changed (June 4, 1812) to Missouri. At the close of 1814 Louisiana was invaded by British troops, but they were speedily driven away. (See *New Orleans, Battles near*.) So soon as the election of Mr. Lincoln was known the Governor of Louisiana took measures looking to the secession of the state from the Union. A convention assembled Jan. 8, 1861, and on the 26th passed an ordinance of secession. (See *Louisiana Ordinance of Secession*.) The public property of the national government was seized by the state authorities. In the spring of 1862 an expedition under General Butler and Admiral Farragut captured all the defences on the Mississippi below New Orleans and took possession of the city. (See *New Orleans, Capture of*.) The state became the theatre of stormy events during the Civil War. (See *Banks's Red River Campaign, Port Hudson*.) On Dec. 4, 1862, two congressional districts, under the control of National troops, were permitted to elect delegates to Congress, and Benjamin F. Flanders and Michael Hahn were chosen and took their seats. Local courts were organized under military rule, and in November, 1862, a provisional court for the state was organized by the President. In April, 1863, he appointed judges of the Supreme Court. Late in 1863 an election of state officers was held in a portion of Louisiana, which in 1860 contained 233,000 inhabitants. Michael Hahn was elected governor, and inaugurated March 4, 1864, and on the 15th was made military governor likewise. In April a convention adopted a constitution abolishing slavery and providing for the education of both races, which was ratified in September, when five Congressmen (Unionists) were chosen. The Legislature ratified the thirteenth amendment to the national Constitution, but the Senators and Representatives of Louisiana were not admitted to seats in Congress, and the state was placed under military rule in 1867, Louisiana and Texas constituting one military district. Early in 1868 a convention in New Orleans formed a state constitution, which was ratified on the 17th and 18th of April, and Henry C. Warmouth (Republican) was elected governor. By act of Congress (June 25, 1868) Louisiana delegates were admitted to seats in that body. Soon afterwards

the State Legislature ratified the Fourteenth Amendment to the national Constitution and chose United States Senators. The Fifteenth Amendment was ratified by the same body March 1, 1869. Since the reorganization the state has been almost continually agitated by political excitement arising from the friction produced by the equality of the white and black races before the law.

Louisiana and Bonaparte. When Bonaparte became actual ruler of France as First Consul he felt an ardent desire to re-establish the colonial empire of his country, and with that view he obtained from Spain (1800) the retrocession of Louisiana, which had passed from the French in 1762. Bonaparte had formed a plan for taking immediate possession of New Orleans by an armed expedition. Livingston, the American minister in France, advised his government of this expedition, and declared that it would not only oppress American commerce on the Mississippi, but that attempts would be made to seize Natchez, and to carry out the plan of Genet and his successors in corrupting the Western people and dismembering the Union. Before the letter of Livingston had been received, the Spanish intendant at New Orleans, as if anticipating the wishes of Bonaparte, had issued a proclamation interdicting the privilege secured to the Americans by the treaty of 1795 of depositing merchandise at New Orleans. This interruption of their commerce on the great river produced a great commotion in the West. It was in this excited state of the public mind that the Seventh Congress assembled (Dec. 7, 1802) for its second session, and the state of affairs in the Southwest occupied their earnest attention. President Jefferson, alive to the interests, independence, and power of his country, wrote an able letter to Livingston, suggesting that France might be willing to cede a portion of Louisiana, especially the island of New Orleans, to the United States, and thus remove all cause for irritation between the two governments. This suggestion led to the purchase of the domain by the United States (1803) for \$15,000,000. (See *Louisiana, Purchase of*.)

Louisiana and the French. In 1730 the Company of the Indies reconveyed Louisiana to the King of France, and it was taken possession of by the commissary-general in the name of that monarch. The same year the French, in pursuance of their design to confine the English to the seaboard region, advanced up Lake Champlain, within the Province of New York, and began a settlement on the east side of the lake.

Louisiana Ceded by Spain to France. On Oct. 1, 1800, a treaty was concluded at St. Ildefonso between France and Spain, by which, under certain conditions, the sovereignty and propriety of Louisiana were ceded to France by Spain, when the Republic of France re-entered into possession of that American province.

Louisiana Delivered to Spain. On Oct. 21, 1764, the King of France gave orders to his director-general and commandant for Louisiana to deliver up to the King of Spain all the French

possessions in North America not already ceded to Great Britain. These orders were given in consequence of an act passed at Fontainebleau on Nov. 3, 1762, by which the French king ceded to the King of Spain, and to his successors, "the whole country known as Louisiana, together with New Orleans, and the island on which the said city is situated," and of another act passed at the Escorial on Nov. 13, in the same year, by which his Catholic majesty accepted that cession.

Louisiana, INVASION OF (1814). When Jackson returned to Mobile (Nov. 11), after driving the British from Pensacola (which see), he received messages from New Orleans urging him to hasten to the defence of that city. The government officials did not give credit to Lafitte's revelations (see *Lafitte and the Baratarians*), but the people did; and they held a large meeting in New Orleans (Sept. 16), where they were eloquently addressed by Edward Livingston, who urged the inhabitants to make speedy preparations for repelling invasion. They appointed a Committee of Safety, composed of distinguished citizens of New Orleans, of which Livingston was chairman. Governor Claiborne, who also believed Lafitte's story, sent copies of the British papers to Jackson, then at Mobile. Then the latter issued a vigorous counter-proclamation, and proceeded to break up the nest of motley enemies at Pensacola. Finally, there were such omens of a speedy invasion of Louisiana that appeals to Jackson were repeated, and he left Mobile for New Orleans on Nov. 21. He found the city utterly defenceless, and the councils of the people distracted by petty factions. The patriotic governor had called the Legislature together as early as Oct. 5. The members were divided into several factions, and there was neither union, harmony, nor confidence. The people, alarmed, complained of the Legislature; that body complained of the governor; and Claiborne complained of both the Legislature and the people. Money and credit were equally wanting, and ammunition was very scarce. There was no effective naval force in the adjacent waters; and only two small militia regiments and a weak battalion of uniformed volunteers, commanded by Major Planché, a gallant Creole, composed the military force for repelling invasion or defending the city. In every aspect the situation was most gloomy when Jackson arrived. His advent was hailed with joy. "Jackson's come! Jackson's come!" went from lip to lip. He did not rest for a moment. He at once organized the feeble military force in the city; took measures for obstructing the large bayous, whose waters formed convenient communication between the city and the Gulf of Mexico; and proceeded to inspect and strengthen the fortifications in the vicinity, and to erect new ones. Fort St. Philip, below the city, was his main reliance for preventing a passage of the British ships. The expected invaders soon appeared. In fifty vessels of all sizes 7000 land troops were borne over the Gulf of Mexico from the West India island of Jamaica in the direc-

tion of New Orleans, and sighted the northern coast of the Gulf, a little east of Lake Borgne, on Dec. 9. Music, dancing, theatrical performances, and hilarity of every kind had been indulged in during the voyage, every man feeling that the conquest of Louisiana would be an easy task. The wives of many officers were with them, anticipating great pleasure in the Western World. Believing the Americans to be profoundly ignorant of the expedition, they anchored at the entrance to Lake Borgne, and prepared small vessels for the transportation of troops over the shallow waters, to take New Orleans by surprise. They did not dream of the fatal revelations of Lafitte. Two gunboats, sent out towards Mobile Bay to catch intelligence of the coming armament, discovered the great fleet Dec. 10, and hastened to report the fact to Lieutenant Thomas Ap Catesby Jones, in command of a small flotilla at the entrance of Lake Borgne, to prevent the British from landing troops. Jones's flotilla was encountered by the British (much to their astonishment) on the 13th. The British fleet was under the command of Admiral Cochrane, and many of the troops were those which had been engaged in the invasion of Maryland (which see). It would not do to attempt to land troops while the waters of the lake were patrolled by American gunboats, and so Cochrane sent sixty barges, nearly all carrying a caronade in the bow, and with six oars on each side, and all well filled with armed volunteers from the fleet, to capture or destroy Jones's flotilla. The latter was composed of an armed sloop (the flag-ship), a tender, and five gunboats, with an aggregate of 23 guns and 182 men. The British barges contained 1200 men. On the morning of Dec. 14 an encounter took place, which the little flotilla sustained against overwhelming numbers for about an hour, when it was compelled to surrender. The British had now complete control of Lake Borgne. The transports, filled with troops, entered, and the latter were conveyed in barges to Pea Island, where General Keane organized his forces for future operations. Learning from some Spanish residents of New Orleans that there was a bayou navigable for large barges to within a short distance of the Mississippi River just below New Orleans, Cochrane sent a party to explore it. They followed this bayou (the Bienvenu) and a canal across Villeré's plantation, and when they reported favorably about one third of the troops were taken through these water-courses. At the head of the bayou the active Lieutenant-colonel Thornton, with a detachment, surrounded the house of General Villeré, the commandant of a division of Louisiana militia, and made him prisoner; but he soon escaped, and, hastening to New Orleans, gave warning of the invasion to General Jackson. General Keane, a gallant Irish officer, the commander-in-chief of the British land-forces, was with this advance party, with several of his officers, and felt confident that the invasion was unknown at New Orleans. The British formed a camp at Villeré's (Dec. 23), within sight of the Mississippi, and prepared to move forward. The invaders were now within

nine miles of New Orleans. A proclamation, printed in the Spanish and French languages, and signed by General Keane and Admiral Cochrane, was sent forward by a negro to be distributed among the inhabitants. It read as follows: "*Louisianians!* remain quietly in your houses; your slaves shall be preserved to you, and your property shall be respected. We make war only against Americans." While all this work of invasion was going on Jackson had been busy at New Orleans preparing to roll it back. He had heard of the capture of the gunboats on the 15th, and he called upon Generals Coffee, Carroll, and Thomas to hasten to New Orleans with the Tennesseans and Kentuckians. They came as speedily as possible. Coffee came first, and Carroll arrived on the 22d of December. A troop of horse under Major Hinds, raised in Louisiana, came at the same time. General Villeré, soon after his capture, escaped, as we have observed, crossed the Mississippi, rode up its right bank on a fleet horse to a point opposite New Orleans, crossed over, and gave Jackson such full information of the position of the invaders that he marched with quite a large body of troops on the afternoon of the 23d to meet the intruders. The armed schooner *Carolina*, Captain Henley, moved down the Mississippi in the evening to within musket-shot distance of the centre of the British camp at Villeré's. At half-past seven o'clock she opened a tremendous fire upon them, killing and wounding at least 100 men. The British extinguished their camp-fires, and hurled rockets and bullets upon the *Carolina* with little effect. The schooner soon drove the British from their camp in great confusion. Meanwhile Jackson had pressed forward with his troops in the darkness in two columns, and, falling upon the bewildered invaders, soon achieved a victory which he dared not follow up in the gloom, and fell back. The astonished Britons were soon cheered by the arrival of reinforcements, and the advent of General Edward Pakenham, one of Wellington's veterans, who took the chief command. After careful preparation, and getting his soldiers well in hand, he led them towards New Orleans. He was met by Jackson with a force behind intrenchments about half-way between the city and Villeré's, and a severe battle ensued, in which the Americans were victorious. (See *New Orleans, Battles near.*) Immediately afterwards the British withdrew to their ships and departed.

Louisiana Ordinance of Secession. In the Legislature of Louisiana, assembled at Baton Rouge in special session, Dec. 10, 1860, the Union sentiment was powerful, yet not sufficiently so to arrest mischief to the commonwealth. An effort was made to submit the question of "Convention or No Convention" to the people, but it failed, and an election of delegates to a convention was ordered to be held on the 8th of January, the anniversary of Jackson's victory at New Orleans (1815). On that occasion the popular vote was small, but it was of such a complexion that the Secessionists were hopeful. The convention met at Baton Rouge, Jan. 23. The Leg-

islature had convened there on the 21st. The number of delegates in the convention was 130. Ex-governor Alexander Mouton was chosen president, and J. Thomas Wheat, secretary. Commissioners from South Carolina and Alabama were there, and were invited to seats in the convention; and they made vehement speeches in favor of secession. A committee of fifteen was appointed to draft an ordinance of secession. It reported on the 24th by their chairman, John Perkins, Jr., and the ordinance then submitted was adopted on the 26th by a vote of 113 against 17. Its phraseology bore the same general features as the ordinances passed by other states. Though a state purchased from France by the national government, the convention declared that Louisiana "resumed the rights and powers heretofore delegated to the government of the United States of America," its creator. At the conclusion of the balloting the president said: "In virtue of the vote just announced, I now declare the connection between the State of Louisiana and the Federal Union dissolved, and she is a free, sovereign, and independent power." No state was more dependent on the Union for its permanent growth in population and wealth than Louisiana. Her seal has the device of a pelican brooding over and feeding her young, which is emblematic of the fostering care of the national government. The convention, alarmed at the planting of cannons at Vicksburg by the Mississippians (see *Mississippi Ordinance of Secession*), resolved unanimously that they recognized the right of a "free navigation of the Mississippi River and its tributaries by all friendly states bordering thereon;" also "the right of egress and ingress of the mouths of the Mississippi by all friendly states and powers." A motion to submit the ordinance to the people for consideration was lost.

Louisiana, PURCHASE OF. After the retrocession by Spain of Louisiana to France, and the closing of the agreement for the Americans to have New Orleans as a place of deposit for merchandise, nothing remained for the United States government to do but to negotiate for the purchase of territory there. Such negotiations were speedily made by Mr. Livingston, American minister at Paris, assisted by Mr. Monroe. Their instructions asked for the cession of the island of New Orleans and the Floridas, and that the Mississippi should be divided by a line that should put the city of New Orleans within the territory of the United States, thus securing the free navigation of that river. To the surprise of the American minister, it was announced by Marbois, Bonaparte's representative, that he would treat for the sale of the *whole* of Louisiana. Bonaparte had already experienced serious difficulties in the way of securing French colonial dominion, especially in the West Indies. (See *Santo Domingo and Guadeloupe.*) He also needed troops at home and money to carry on the war with England, rather than far-off territory held by a doubtful tenure. "Irresolution and deliberation," said the First Consul to Marbois, "are no longer in season. I renounce Louisiana. It is not only New Orleans that I will cede; it is

the whole colony, without any reservation. I know the price of what I abandon, and I have sufficiently proved the importance that I attach to this province, since my first diplomatic act with Spain had for its object the recovery of it. I renounce it with the greatest regret. To attempt to retain it would be folly. I direct you to negotiate this affair with the envoys of the United States." In less than a fortnight after the beginning of negotiations in France, a treaty was signed (April 30, 1803) by Robert R. Livingston and James Monroe on the part of the United States, and Barbé Marbois on the part of France, by which the United States came into possession of a vast, and to some extent undefined, domain, containing a mixed free population of 85,000 white people and 40,000 negro slaves, for the sum of \$15,000,000. Livingston and Marbois had been personal acquaintances (see *Marbois*) for about a quarter of a century. "We have lived long," said Livingston to Marbois, as he arose after signing the treaty, "but this is the noblest work of our whole lives. The treaty which we have just signed has not been obtained by art or force; equally advantageous to the two contracting parties, it will change vast solitudes into flourishing districts. From this day the United States take their place among the powers of the first rank; the English lose all exclusive influence in the affairs of America." With equally prophetic vision Bonaparte said to Marbois, a few days after the negotiation was signed, "I would that France should enjoy this unexpected capital [60,000,000 francs] that it may be employed in works beneficial to her marine." The invasion of England, and the prostration of her maritime superiority, was then Bonaparte's pet project. "This accession of territory," he continued, exultingly, "strengthens forever the power of the United States, and I have just given to England a maritime rival that will sooner or later humble her pride."

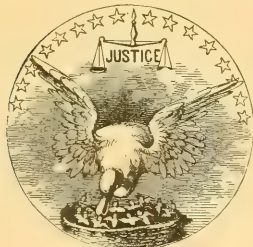
Louisiana, STATE OF. Congress, in February, 1811, passed a bill authorizing the inhabitants of the Territory of Orleans to meet in convention and frame a state constitution. It was done, and on April 8, 1812, the territory was admitted into the Union as a state, under the title of Louisiana. By another act (April 14, 1812), the remainder of the region east of the Mississippi (now under the jurisdiction of Louisiana) taken possession of by the United States the year before (see *Florida, Revolutionary Movements* in) was added to the new state. By another act (June 4, 1812), the territory heretofore known as Louisiana had its title altered to Territory of Missouri. Louisiana bore its full share of the burden of the War of 1812, and upon its soil was fought the last great battle of that war. (See *New Orleans, Battles near.*) New con-

stitutions were framed in 1845 and 1852. Soon after the election of Mr. Lincoln became known in 1860, the governor convened the Legislature for December 10. On assembling, they passed an act calling for a convention to consider the propriety of seceding from the Union. (See *Louisiana Ordinance of Secession.*) When the ordinance of secession had passed, the state authorities proceeded to seize the National property within its borders. The National troops took partial possession of the state in 1862. The first election for Union civil officers was held in the state in December, 1862. An election for Union state officers was held in 1864, and Michael Hahn was elected ruler and invested with the powers of a military governor. On the ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, Louisiana was regarded as a reorganized state, and it resumed its place in the Union. Population in 1890, 1,116,828.

Lowell, CHARLES RUSSELL, born in Boston, June 2, 1835; died of wounds at Cedar Creek (which see), near Middletown, Va., Oct 20, 1864. He graduated at Harvard in 1854, and when the Civil War broke out he was one of the first to offer his services. He was made captain of cavalry in May, 1861, and served on the staff of General McClellan until the fall of 1862, when he organized the Second Massachusetts Cavalry, and was made colonel in the spring of 1863. As a leader of cavalry he performed much good service in Virginia, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers on Sheridan's recommendation the day before his death. His younger brother, James Jackson, died of wounds near Richmond, Va., July 4, 1862.

Lowell, JAMES RUSSELL, poet, was born in Cambridge, Mass., Feb. 22, 1819, and graduated at Harvard in 1838. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1840, but soon abandoned the profession and devoted himself to literary pursuits. His first collection of poems—*A Year's Life*—was published in 1841, and in 1843 he engaged with Robert Carter in the publication of *The Pioneer*, a literary and critical magazine. He has since produced many volumes and a large number of contributions to periodical literature. He visited Europe in 1851, and in the winter of 1854-55, he delivered a course of twelve lectures on the British poets. On the resignation of the professorship of Modern Languages and Belles-lettres in Harvard by Mr. Longfellow, Mr. Lowell was chosen his successor. To fill the place successfully, he again went to Europe and studied for a year, returning in August, 1856. He edited the *Atlantic Monthly* from 1857 to 1862, and in 1863 he became one of the editors of the *North American Review*. He retained this editorial post until 1872. In 1874 the University of Cambridge, England, bestowed upon him the honorary degree of LL.D. In 1877 Mr. Lowell was sent as United States minister to Spain, and was soon afterwards transferred to England, where he remained until 1885. He died August 12, 1891.

Lowell, JOHN, JR., was founder of the Lowell Institute at Boston, where he was born, May 11,



STATE SEAL OF LOUISIANA.

before known as Louisiana had its title altered to Territory of Missouri. Louisiana bore its full share of the burden of the War of 1812, and upon its soil was fought the last great battle of that war. (See *New Orleans, Battles near.*) New con-

1799; died in Bombay, March 4, 1836. He was educated in Edinburgh and at Harvard University until 1815, when he was compelled to travel for the improvement of impaired health. A fine scholar, the inheritor of a large fortune, he indulged his passion for travel and books, after being engaged a few years in commercial life. Mr. Lowell bequeathed \$250,000 for the maintenance forever in Boston of an annual course of free lectures on a variety of subjects. The Lowell Institute began its work in the winter of 1839-40.

Lowell, JOHN, LL.D., was born at Newburyport, Mass., Oct. 6, 1769; died in Berlin, March 12, 1840. He graduated at Harvard University in 1786. He became a prolific writer, and published about twenty-five pamphlets. He was a strong political partisan, but would never take office, and he wrote severely against the supporters of the War of 1812-15. With his extraordinary colloquial powers and elegant and logical pen, he wielded great influence in Massachusetts. Mr. Lowell was a founder of the Massachusetts General Hospital, the Boston Athenæum, the Savings Bank, and the Hospital Life Insurance Company. For many years he was President of the Massachusetts Agricultural Society.

Lowndes, RAWLINS, was born in the British West Indies in 1722; died in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 24, 1800. He was a successful lawyer, and in 1766 the crown appointed him associate-judge. An earnest patriot, he was one of the Committee of Safety at Charleston in 1775, and in 1776 he was one of a committee to draft a constitution for the province. Mr. Lowndes opposed the national Constitution, and he said in a speech, "I wish no other epitaph than this: 'Here lies one who opposed the Federal Constitution, holding it to be fatal to the liberties of his country.'"

Loyalists, ENLISTMENT OF. When the peace negotiations failed between the Howes and the Continental Congress, active preparations were made on both sides for prosecuting the war. Oliver De Lancey, brother of James De Lancey, who had been a royal governor and chief-justice of New York, and Cortlandt Skinner, late attorney-general of New Jersey, and speaker of its Assembly, were commissioned brigadiers in the British army, with authority to raise twenty battalions of volunteers each, which William Tryon, who still claimed to be governor of New York, was to command as major-general. They organized active corps of loyalists that produced much distress among the patriots.

Luce, STEPHEN BLEECKER, Captain United States Navy, was born in Albany, N. Y., March 25, 1827, and entered the navy as a midshipman from New York in 1841. He was first attached to the Mediterranean Squadron, and then to the Brazilian. With Commodore James Biddle he circumnavigated the globe in the 74-gun line-of-battle-ship *Columbus*. He was afterwards on the Pacific Station in the *Vandalia*, and then was attached to the Home Squadron in the *Vixen*. In September, 1855, he was commissioned lieutenant, and when the Civil War broke out in 1861

he was ordered to the *Wabash*, in which he participated in the attack on the forts at Hatteras Inlet (which see). In the *Wabash* (then the flagship of Commodore Dupont) Lieutenant Luce engaged in the conflict at Port Royal. Subsequently he was employed in the blockade service in the *Pontiac*. In 1863, in command of the Naval Academy practice-ship *Macedonian*, he visited the ports of Plymouth and Portsmouth, England, and became deeply interested in the training system for boys for the Royal Navy as practised there. On his return he made a special report and recommendations upon the subject, which was followed by the adoption of a similar system for the United States Navy by the Navy Department. This method of improving the morale of our navy has engaged the earnest efforts of Captain Luce ever since. In 1875 he was appointed to the command of the United States training-ship *Minnesota*, which position he held several years. He was at the Naval Academy in September, 1865, and in October was commissioned commander of midshipmen. He was made captain in the navy in 1866, and vice-admiral in 1885.

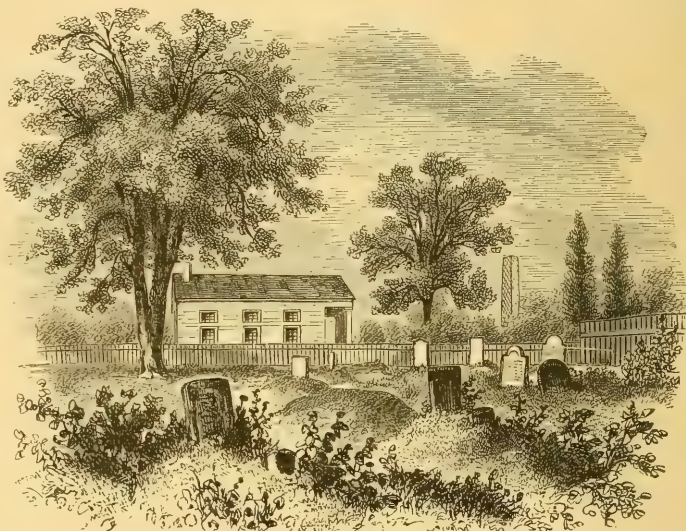
Lumber State. A popular name for the State of Maine, which abounds in immense forests of timber suitable for buildings. The inhabitants are largely engaged in cutting, rafting, and sawing the trees for lumber. It is sometimes called the "Pine-tree State" because of its forests of pine-trees.

Luna, DON TRISTAN DE, IN FLORIDA. In 1559 a powerful expedition was fitted out at Vera Cruz, Mexico, for the conquest of Florida, under the command of De Luna, a scion of a noble family in Aragon, whose father was for several years governor of Yucatan. He sailed August 14 with a land force of fifteen hundred soldiers, many friars, and a number of women and children (the families of soldiers), to conquer and colonize Florida. He had a prosperous voyage to the Bay of Pensacola, where he anchored his ships, but a week later a storm arose which drove the vessels ashore and wrecked them. He at once sent out an exploring party in search of the fertile lands and cities plethoric with precious metals, of which he had dreamed. For forty days they marched through a barren country before they found any food. This they found at a deserted town. Word was sent back to De Luna of the abundance of food there. He had lost most of his stores with the ships. With a thousand men, women, and children, De Luna marched to the town. The food was soon consumed, and great suffering followed. De Luna marched back to Pensacola, whence, in two vessels that had been saved or built there, he sent to the viceroy of Mexico for succor. Relief came, but the discontent of the remnant of his colony caused his return to Vera Cruz in 1561.

Lundy's Lane, BATTLE AT. A sanguinary contest near the great cataract of the Niagara is known in history by the names of "Bridge-water," "Niagara Falls," and "Lundy's Lane." The latter is better known. On his retreat from the battle-ground at Chippewa (July 5, 1814), the British general, Riall, fled down the borders

of the Niagara River to Queenston, put some of his troops in Fort George, and made his headquarters near the lake, twenty miles westward. Drummond was mortified by this discomfiture of his veteran troops by what he deemed to be raw Americans, and he resolved to wipe out the stain. He drew most of the troops from Burlington Bay, York, Kingston, and Prescott, with a determination to drive the invaders out of Canada. With a force about one third greater than that of Brown, Drummond pushed forward to meet the latter. In the meantime, Brown, after burying the dead and caring for the wounded, had moved forward to Queenston and menaced Fort George. He expected to see Chauncey with his squadron on the Niagara River to co-operate with him, but that commander was sick at Sackett's Harbor, and his vessels were blockaded there. Brown waited many days for the squadron. Losing all hope of aid from Chauncey, he fell back to the Chippewa battleground. On the 24th intelligence reached him that Drummond, with a thousand troops, many of them Wellington's veterans, had landed at Lewiston, opposite Queenston, with a view, no doubt, of seizing the American stores at Schlosser, above the falls. Brown ordered Scott to march rapidly with a part of the army and threaten the forts at the mouth of the river. Towards evening (July 24, 1814) Scott went forward with his brigade, Towson's artillery, and a few mounted men, and near the verge of the great cataract he saw some British officers leave a house, mount their horses, and ride rapidly away. Believing an advance guard of the British were near, Scott dashed into the woods to disperse them, when he was confronted by Riall with a larger force than he had at Chippewa. The Americans were in great peril. To stand still would be fatal; to retreat would be hazardous, for it might create a panic in the main army. So Scott resolved to fight the overwhelming force. At sunset a desperate battle was begun, which ended at near midnight. Riall's force was eighteen hundred strong, posted in slightly crescent form on an eminence over which passed Lundy's Lane, a highway stretching westward from the Niagara River. Upon that eminence the British had planted a battery. Scott perceived a blank between the British left and the river, and ordered Major Jesup with his command to crawl cautiously, in the evening twilight, through the underbrush that covered the space and turn that flank. Jesup obeyed, and successfully gained the British rear and kept back reinforcements sent by Drum-

mond. At the same time Scott was hotly engaged with Riall. Brown, apprised of the situation, had pressed forward with his whole army and engaged in the fight. Perceiving the key of the British position to be the battery on the hill, he turned to Colonel James Miller, of the Twenty-seventh Regulars, and asked, "Can you storm that work and take it?" "I'll try," was the prompt reply. With three hundred men he moved steadily up the hill in the darkness, along a fence lined with thick bushes that hid his troops from the view of the gunners and their protectors who lay near. When within short musket-range of the battery, they could see the



SITE OF THE BRITISH BATTERY—1860

gunners with their glowing lintstocks, ready to act at the word *fire*. Selecting good marksmen, Miller directed each to rest his rifle on the fence, select a gunner, and fire at a given signal. Very soon every gunner fell, when Miller and his men rushed forward and captured the battery. This gallant exploit secured a victory; not, however, until a terrible hand-to-hand fight in the darkness with the protectors of the guns had ensued. The British fell back. They attempted to retake the battery (consisting of five brass cannons) but failed, even after being reinforced by fifteen hundred men sent forward by Drummond from Queenston. Meanwhile, General Scott had been fighting desperately but successfully, and had been severely wounded by a musket-ball in his shoulder. General Brown was also severely wounded, and the command devolved upon General Ripley. The British were repulsed, and the Americans fell back to Chippewa, with orders from General Brown to return after a brief rest, before the dawn, and occupy the battle-field. The always tardy and disobedient Ripley failed to obey the order, and the British returned and took possession of the battery (excepting one piece) and the field. The battle had been fought by about forty-five hundred British troops and twenty-six hundred Americans. The latter lost

in killed, wounded, and missing, nearly one third of their whole number; the British lost eight hundred and seventy-eight, or twenty-six more than the Americans. Both armies claimed a victory. Ripley, whose disobedience caused the Americans to lose the advantages of a victory won at midnight, led the army to Fort Erie, where he was soon afterwards superseded by General E. P. Gaines. The exploit of Miller in capturing the battery was considered one of the most brilliant of the war. The moment that General Brown met Miller afterwards, he said,

of the national government in 1789, President Washington caused the Secretary of State to write a letter to Luzerne, making an official acknowledgment of his services. In 1788 Luzerne was sent ambassador to London, where he died. Marbois, who was secretary of legation, wrote an account of Arnold's treason, entitled *Complot d'Arnold*.

Lyford and Oldham, CONSPIRACY OF. The Pilgrims, regarding Robinson, in Holland, as their pastor, and expecting him over, had no other spiritual guide than Elder Brewster. Be-



MILLER'S MEDAL



"You have immortalized yourself." Congress voted him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal.

Luzerne, ANNE CÆSAR DE LA, LL.D., was born in Paris in 1741; died in England, Sept. 14, 1791. Having risen to the rank of colonel in the French army, he studied the art of diplomacy, and, in 1776, was sent as envoy to Barranca. He succeeded Gerard as minister to the United States, in September, 1779, and remained here



DE LA LUZERNE.

four years, gaining the esteem of the Americans by his friendship, wisdom, and prudence. In 1783 he returned to France, bearing the cordial thanks of Congress; and after the organization

cause of this state of things at Plymouth, the London partners were taunted with fostering religious schism. To relieve themselves of this stigma, they sent a minister named Lyford to be pastor. He was kindly received, and, with John Oldham, who went to Plymouth at about the same time, was invited to the consultations of the governor with his council. It was soon discovered that Lyford and Oldham were plotting treason against the Church and State. Several letters written by Lyford to the London partners, breathing sedition, were discovered by Bradford as they were about to be sent abroad. The governor kept quiet for a while, but when Lyford set up a separate congregation, with a few of the colonists whom he had seduced, and held meetings on the Sabbath, Bradford summoned a General Court (1624), before whom the offending clergyman and his companions were arraigned on a charge of seditious correspondence. They denied the accusation, when they were confronted by Lyford's letters, in which he defamed the settlers, advised the London partners to prevent Robinson and the rest of his congregation coming to America, as they would interfere with his church schemes, and avowed his intention of removing the stigma of schism by a regularly organized church. A third conspirator had written that Lyford and Oldham "intended a reformation in Church and Commonwealth." Before these disclosures Oldham had behaved with much insolence, abusing the governor and Captain Standish, calling them "rebels and traitors," and, when

proved guilty, he attempted to excite a mutiny on the spot. Lyford burst into tears and confessed that he "feared he was a reprobate." Both were ordered to leave the colony, but Lyford, humbly begging to stay, asking forgiveness and promising good behavior, was reinstated. Oldham went to Nantasket, with some of his adherents, and engaged in traffic with the Indians. Lyford was soon detected again in seditious work and expelled from the colony. He joined Oldham. They afterwards lived at Hull and Cape Anne, and Oldham represented Wattertown in the popular branch of the Massachusetts government in 1634. He made an exploring journey to the site of Windsor, on the Connecticut River the next year, which was followed by the emigration to that region in 1635. (See *Connecticut, Colony of*.) While in a vessel at Block Island, Oldham was murdered by some Indians, who fled to the Pequods, on the mainland, and were protected by them. This led to the war with the Pequods. (See *Pequod War*.)

Lyman, PHINEAS, born at Durham, Conn., about 1716; died in West Florida, 1775. Educated at Yale College, he was a tutor there from 1738 to 1741. He engaged in mercantile pursuits, but finally became a lawyer in Suffield. There he was a magistrate for some years, and took a conspicuous part in the disputes between Massachusetts and Connecticut concerning the town of Suffield. (See *Secession in New England*.) At the breaking-out of the French and Indian War, he was commander-in-chief of the Connecticut forces; he built Fort Lyman (afterwards Fort Edward), on the upper Hudson, and fought and won the battle at the head of Lake George in 1755. (See *Crown Point*.) In 1758 he served under General Abercrombie, and was with Lord Howe when he was killed. He was also at the capture of Crown Point and Montreal, and, in 1762, led provincial troops against Havana. In 1763 General Lyman went to England to get prize-money for himself and fellow-officers and to solicit a grant of land on the Mississippi for a company called "Military Adventurers." He returned to America in 1774, at which time a tract near Natchez was granted to the petitioners; and thither he went with his eldest son, and died soon, after reaching West Florida, as the region was then called. The emigrants suffered great hardships, and on the conquest of the country by the Spaniards (1781-82) they took refuge in Savannah.

Lynch Law is the name given to the summary operations of a mob or a few private individuals, independently of the legal authorities. It is said to derive its name from John Lynch, a farmer, who exercised it upon the fugitive slaves and criminals dwelling in the Dismal Swamp, N. C., when they committed outrages upon persons and property which the colonial law could not promptly redress. This mode of administering justice is still practised occasionally in the United States.

Lynch, THOMAS, JR., signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in St. George's Parish, S. C., Aug. 5, 1749; died at sea, in 1779.

He was of Austrian descent. His father, a wealthy patriot, was a member of the Continental Congress from 1774 till his death, in 1796. The son was educated in England, and returned home in 1772, when he settled upon a plantation on the Santee River and married. He was elected to fill the seat of his sick father in Congress near the close of 1775, when he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence. His own ill-health compelled him to leave Congress in the fall of 1776. Near the close of 1779 he embarked for St. Eustatius, with the intention of proceeding to Enrope, but the vessel and all on board were never heard of afterwards.

Lynch, WILLIAM F., was born in Virginia in 1801; died in Baltimore, Oct. 17, 1865. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman in 1819. In 1847 he was sent on an expedition, proposed by himself, to explore the course of the River Jordan and the coasts of the Dead Sea. He entered upon these duties in the spring of 1848, and completed them with great success. He ascertained the Dead Sea to be 1312 feet lower than the Mediterranean Sea. He joined the insurgents in 1861, and was made a commander in the Confederate navy, in which he served throughout the Civil War.

Lyon, MATTHEW, was born in Wicklow County, Ireland, in 1746; died in Arkansas, Aug. 1, 1822. He emigrated to America at the age of thirteen, and was assigned to a Connecticut farmer for a sum of money to pay for his passage. (See *Redemptioners*.) Lyon settled in Vermont and became lieutenant in a company of "Green Mountain Boys" (which see), in 1775, but was cashiered for deserting his post. He served in the Northern Army awhile afterwards, and held the rank of colonel while serving as commissary-general of militia. In 1778 he was deputy secretary to the Governor of Vermont; and after the war he built saw-mills and grist-mills, a forge, and a mill for manufacturing paper, where he had founded the town of Fairhaven, in Rutland County. Lyon served in the State Legislature, and was a judge of Rutland County in 1786. He established the *Freeman's Library* (newspaper), which he conducted with ability. From 1797 to 1801 he was a member of Congress, and gave the vote which made Jefferson President of the United States. He and Roger Griswold, of Connecticut, had a personal encounter on the floor of Congress, the first in our country. (See *Decorum, First Breach of, in Congress*.) For a libel on President Adams, in 1798, he was confined four months in jail and fined \$1000. In 1801 he went to Kentucky, and represented that state in Congress from 1803 to 1811. Ruined pecuniarily by the building of gunboats for the War of 1812-15, he went to Arkansas, and was appointed territorial delegate to Congress, but did not live to take his seat.

Lyon, NATHANIEL, was born in Windham County, Conn., July 14, 1819; killed in battle, Aug. 10, 1861. He graduated at West Point in 1841. He served in the war in Florida and

against Mexico, where he gained honors for gallant conduct. He became captain in 1851, and when the Civil War broke out he was placed in



NATHANIEL LYON.

command of the arsenal at St. Louis, where he outwitted and outgeneralled the Secessionists. (See *Arsenal at St. Louis*.) Commissioned brig-

adier-general of volunteers, in May, 1861, the command of the Department devolved on him (June 1). He acted with great vigor against insurgents under the Governor (Jackson) of Missouri, defeating the Confederates in battle here and there. He attacked a large force at Wilson's Creek, near Springfield, and was killed in the battle. (See *Wilson's Creek*.) Lyon was unmarried, and he bequeathed nearly all his property (about \$30,000) to the government to assist in preserving the Union.

Lytle, WILLIAM HAINES, was born in Cincinnati, Nov. 2, 1826; killed near the Chickamauga River, Sept. 20, 1863. He graduated at Cincinnati College in 1843; served in the war against Mexico, and was Democratic candidate for lieutenant-governor of Ohio in 1857, but was defeated. In command of an Ohio regiment, he served in western Virginia in 1861, and was wounded. He was in command of a brigade under General Mitchell; was wounded in the battle of Perryville (which see), and made brigadier-general. He served under Rosecrans, and was killed in the battle of Chickamauga.

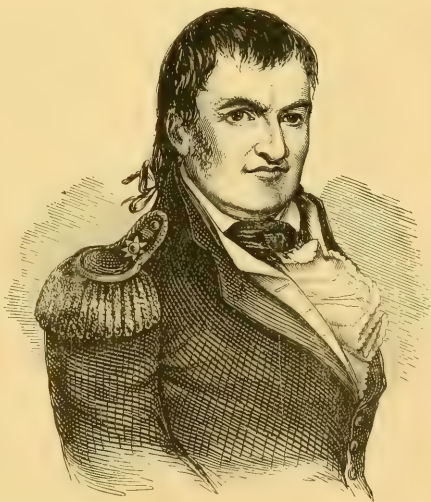
M.

McAlester, MILES D., was born in New York in 1834; died at Buffalo, N. Y., April 23, 1869. He graduated at West Point in 1856, and entered the Engineer Corps in May, 1861. He was one of the most useful of the engineer officers of the United States Army during the Civil War, being successively chief-engineer in a corps of the Army of the Potomac, of the Department of the Ohio, at the siege of Vicksburg, and of the Military Division of the West. In 1863-64 he was assistant-professor of engineering at West Point. He was in many battles of the war, and assisted in reducing several strongholds in the vicinity of Mobile.

McAllister, FORT, CAPTURE OF. As Sherman's army, marching from Atlanta to the sea, approached Savannah, they found Fort McAllister, at the mouth of the Ogeechee River, a bar to free communication with the ocean, and on Dec. 13, 1864, General Hazen was ordered to carry it by assault. With a division of the Fifteenth Corps Hazen crossed the Ogeechee at King's Bridge, and at one o'clock P.M. that day his force was in front of the fort—a strong enclosed redoubt, garrisoned by 200 men under Major Anderson. Sherman and Howard repaired to a signal-station where, with glasses, they could see the movements against the fort. Hazen's bugles sounded and the division moved to the assault. A little before, a National steamer appeared in the waters below the fort, to communicate with the National army, but her commander was not sure whether Fort McAllister was still in the hands of the Confederates. All doubt was soon removed. Hazen's charging troops, after a brief but desperate struggle, fighting hand to hand over the parapet, won a complete victory. The fort, garrison, and armament were soon in possession of the Nationals, who, in the struggle,

had lost ninety men, killed and wounded. The Confederates lost nearly fifty men. Sherman had seen the entire conflict, and when the American flag waved over the fort, he and Howard hastened thither in a small boat, unmindful of the danger of explosion of torpedoes with which the river bottom was strewn.

McArthur, DUNCAN, was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., Jan. 14, 1772; died near Chillicothe, O., April 28, 1839. His father removed to the Ohio frontier of Pennsylvania when Duncan was only



DUNCAN McARTHUR.

eight years of age. At eighteen he volunteered in defence of the frontier against the Indians, and served in Harmer's campaign (which see). McArthur became a surveyor, and, purchasing

large tracts, became possessed of much landed wealth. He was a member of the Ohio Legislature in 1805, and in 1808 became major-general of the state militia. When war was kindling he was chosen colonel of the Ohio Volunteers, and was second in command at the surrender of Detroit (which see). In the spring of 1813 he was promoted to brigadier-general, and in 1814 succeeded General Harrison in command of the Army of the West. He made a famous raid, late in 1814, into Upper Canada, with a view to its conquest, but not being seconded by General Izard, on the Niagara frontier, it was a failure. In the fall of 1815 he was elected to the Ohio Legislature, and in 1816 he was appointed a commissioner to conclude treaties with the Indian tribes. He was again an Ohio legislator and speaker of the House, and in 1819 was sent to Congress. He was governor of Ohio from 1830 to 1832, and while in that office he met with a serious accident, from which he never recovered.

McArthur's Raid. Late in the summer of 1814, the critical situation of General Brown's army on the Niagara frontier induced General Duncan McArthur to make a terrifying raid in the western part of Canada, to divert the attention of the British. McArthur arrived at Detroit (Oct. 9, 1814) with about 700 mounted men which he had raised in Kentucky and Ohio. Late in that month he left Detroit with 750 men on fleet horses, and with five pieces of cannon passed up the lake and river St. Clair towards Lake Huron, to deceive the Canadians. On the morning of the 25th he suddenly crossed the river, pushed on in hot haste to the Moravian towns (which see), and on Nov. 4 entered the village of Oxford. He appeared unheralded, and the inhabitants were greatly terrified. There he disarmed and paroled the militia, and threatened instant destruction to the property of any one who should give notice to any British post of his coming. Two men did so, and their houses were laid in ashes. On the following day he pushed on to Burford, where the militia were casting up intrenchments. They fled at his approach, and the whole region was excited with alarm. The story went before him that he had 2000 men in his train. He aimed at Burlington Heights, but at the Mohawk settlement on the Grand River, near Brantford, he was confronted by a large body of Indians, militia, and dragoons. Another British force, with artillery, was not far distant, so McArthur turned southward, down the Long Point road, and drove some militia at a post on the Grand River. There he killed and wounded seven men and took 131 prisoners. His own loss was one killed and six wounded. He pushed on, destroying flouring-mills at work for the British army in Canada, and, finding a net of peril gathering around him, he turned his face westward and hastened to Detroit, pursued, from the Thames, by 1100 British regulars. He arrived at Sandwich Nov. 17th, and there discharged his band. That raid was one of the boldest operations of the war. He skimmed over hundreds of miles of British territory with the loss of only one man.

McCall, EDWARD R., was born in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 5, 1790; died at Bordentown, N. J., July 31, 1853. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman in 1808, and in the summer of 1813 was lieutenant of the brig *Enterprise*. In the action with the *Boxer*, Sept. 4, 1813, his commander (Lieutenant Burrows) was mortally wounded, when the command devolved upon McCall, who succeeded in capturing the British vessel. (See *Enterprise and Boxer*.) For this service Congress voted him a gold medal. He was made master-commander in 1825, and captain in 1835.

McCall, GEORGE ARCHIBALD, was born in Philadelphia, March 16, 1802; died at Westchester, Penn., Feb. 25, 1868. He graduated at West Point in 1822; was distinguished in the war in Florida, and served in the war against Mexico, in which he was assistant-adjutant-general with the rank of major, at the beginning. Late in 1847 he was promoted to major of infantry; was made inspector-general in 1850; and in April, 1853, resigned. When the Civil War broke out, he organized the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps consisting of 15,000 men, and was made brigadier-general in May, 1861. This force was converted into three divisions of the Army of the Potomac, under his command, and they did gallant service in McClellan's campaign against Richmond in 1862. Made captive on the day before the battle of Malvern Hills, he suffered such rigorous confinement in Richmond that he returned home in broken health, and resigned in March, 1863. (See *Pennsylvania Reserves*.)

McClellan, GENERAL-IN-CHIEF. On the 1st of November, 1861, Lieutenant-general Scott, then in the seventy-sixth year of his age, was relieved from the chief command of the armies of the Republic, and was succeeded by General McClellan, then thirty-five years of age. This change was hailed by the loyal people as a promise of a speedy termination of the war, for McClellan had promised that it should be "short, sharp, and decisive." It was believed that Richmond, which had become the Confederate capital, would be in possession of the National troops in a few weeks. In this the loyal people were disappointed. The civil and military leaders, remembering the disaster at Bull's Run, were circumspect and cautious. It was several months before McClellan could be induced to move towards Richmond; and the National and Confederate armies lay all that time within thirty miles of each other, camp-life being enlivened by an occasional skirmish or midnight alarm. In September two nephews of the French prince De Joinville, who had accompanied their uncle to the United States, offered their services to the government without pay. Each was commissioned a captain and assigned to duty on the staff of General McClellan. They remained in the service until the close of the Peninsular campaign in July, 1862.

McClellan, GEORGE BRINTON, was born in Philadelphia, Dec. 3, 1826. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1842, and at West Point in 1846. He was lieutenant of sappers,

miners, and pontoniers in the war against Mexico, and was commended for gallantry at various points from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. After the war he was instructor of bayonet exercise at West Point, and his *Manual*, translated



GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN.

from the French, became the text-book of the service. In 1852 he was engaged with Captain R. B. Marcy (now his father-in-law) and General C. F. Smith in explorations and surveys of Red River, the harbors of Texas, and the western part of a proposed route for a Pacific railway; also mountain-ranges and the most direct route to Puget's Sound. He was next sent on a secret mission to Santo Domingo; and in 1855 he was sent with Majors Delafield and Mordecai to Europe to study the organization of European armies and observe the war in the Crimea. Captain McClellan left the army in 1857 and engaged in civil engineering and as superintendent of railroads. He was residing in Ohio when the Civil War broke out, and was commissioned major-general of the Ohio volunteers by the governor. He took command of all the troops in the Department of the Ohio; and after a brief and successful campaign in western Virginia, he was appointed to the command of the National troops on the Potomac (afterwards the Army of the Potomac) and commissioned a major-general of the regular army. On the retirement of General Scott in November, 1861, he was made general-in-chief. His campaign against Richmond in 1862 with the Army of the Potomac was not successful. He afterwards drove General Lee out of Maryland, but his delay in pursuing the Confederates caused him to be superseded in command by General Burnside. General McClellan was the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for President of the United States against Mr. Lincoln in 1864. He resigned his commission in the army on the day of the election (Nov. 8, 1864), and took up his residence in New York. After a visit to Europe, he became (1868) a citizen of New Jersey, and engaged in the business of an engineer. The will of Edward A. Stevens, of Hoboken, made him Superintendent of the Stevens Floating Battery (see p. 1349); and he was appointed

Superintendent of Docks and Piers in the city of New York, which office he resigned in 1872. In 1877 he was elected Governor of New Jersey. Died Oct. 29, 1885.

McClelland, JOHN ALEXANDER, was born in Breckenridge County, Ky., May 30, 1812. His family removed to Illinois while he was a small child. He became a lawyer in 1832; volunteered to serve in the Black Hawk War; engaged in trade and journalism; was in the Illinois Legislature at different times between 1836 and 1842. He was in Congress from 1843 to 1851, and again in 1860, when, the war breaking out, he resigned and, with others, raised a brigade of volunteers. He distinguished himself at Belmont (which see), and was made brigadier-general. After the battle at Fort Donelson (which see) he was made a major-general; commanded a division at the battle of Shiloh; succeeded General Sherman in command of the National army in Mississippi in January, 1863; and distinguished himself in the battles that followed. When he resigned, in November, 1864, he was in command of the Thirteenth Army Corps.

McClure, SIR ROBERT JOHN LE MESURIER, was born at Wexford, Ireland, Jan. 28, 1807. In the years 1850 to 1854 he explored the polar seas north of America in the ship *Investigator*, and was the first to discover the long-sought northwest ocean passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific waters. For this discovery he was knighted and presented with \$20,000.

McCook Brothers, THE. Alexander McDowell, Daniel, and Robert Latimer, children of one mother, were distinguished soldiers in the Civil War. **I. ALEXANDER** was born in Columbiana County, O., April 22, 1831, and graduated at West



A. McDOWELL MCCOOK.

Point in 1852. He served against the Indians in New Mexico in 1857; from 1858 to 1861 was assistant-instructor of tactics at West Point; and was colonel of an Ohio regiment at the battle of Bull's Run. In September, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and major-general in July, 1862, having distinguished himself at Shiloh and Corinth. He fought in the

lattle of Perryville (which see) in command of the First Corps of the Army of the Ohio, and commanded the right wing in the battle at Stone's River (which see). He was afterwards in command of the Twentieth Army Corps, and fought in the battle of Chickamauga (which see) in 1863.—II. DANIEL was born at Carrollton, O., July 22, 1834; killed at Kenesaw Mountain, July 17, 1864. He graduated at Florence College, Ala., in 1857; was colonel of an Ohio volunteer regiment; and served at Perryville, Chickamauga, and in the Atlanta campaign.—III. ROBERT LATIMER was born in Columbiana County, O., Dec. 28, 1827; was murdered by guerillas while lying sick in an ambulance near Salem, Ala., Aug. 6, 1862. He was a lawyer, and when the war broke out he became colonel of an Ohio regiment of volunteers. He served in western Virginia, and became a brigadier-general of volunteers under Rosecrans. He was in the battle of Mill Spring, Ky. (which see), and commanded a division in Thomas's corps. He was made a brigadier in March, 1862.—The father of this band of warriors, Major Daniel McCook (born in 1796), was mortally wounded in a fight with Morgan's men near Buffington's Island. (See *Morgan's Raid*.) This family contributed sixteen of its members to the Union army. A. M. McCook is brig.-gen. in the army.

McCook, EDWARD M., was born at Steubenville, O., in June, 1834. He was an active politician in Kansas, and was a member of its Legislature in 1860. He was an efficient cavalry officer during the Civil War, rising to the rank of brigadier-general in April, 1864. He was in the principal battles in Kentucky, Tennessee, and northern Georgia, and in the Atlanta campaign commanded a division and was distinguished for skill and bravery in quick movements. In 1865 he was breveted major-general of volunteers; was American minister to the Hawaiian Islands from 1866 to 1869; and in 1870 was appointed Governor of Colorado Territory, which was made a state of the Union July 4, 1876.

McCook's Raid. General E. M. McCook, with his own and fresh cavalry brought by Rousseau (see *Atlanta, Siege of*), was ordered to move out to Fayetteville and, sweeping round, join Stoneman—leading another cavalry raid—at Lovejoy's Station on the night of July 28, 1864. He and Stoneman moved simultaneously. McCook went down the west side of the Chattahoochee; crossed it on a pontoon bridge at Rivertown; tore up the track between Atlanta and West Point, near Palmetto Station; and pushed on to Fayetteville, where he captured five hundred of Hood's wagons and two hundred and fifty men, and killed or carried away about one thousand mules. Pressing on, he struck and destroyed the Macon railway at Lovejoy's at the appointed time; but Stoneman did not join him. Being hard pressed by Wheeler's cavalry, McCook turned to the southward and struck the West Point road again at Newman's Station. There he was met by a force of Mississippi infantry moving on Atlanta, and, at the same time, his

rear was closely pressed by Confederate cavalry. He fought at great odds, but escaped with a loss of his prisoners and five hundred of his own men.

McCormick, CYRUS HALL, inventor of the reaping-machine, was born in Rockbridge County, Va., Feb. 15, 1809. So early as his fifteenth year he had constructed a "cradle," used in harvesting grain in the field. His father, early in 1816, had invented an improved reaper, and in 1831 Cyrus invented his, for which he first obtained a patent in 1834. In 1845, 1847, and 1858 he patented valuable improvements. He moved to Cincinnati in 1845, and to Chicago in 1847. The gold medal of the American Institute was awarded to him for his invention in 1845, and he received the Commercial Medal at the World's Fair in London in 1851. In 1855 he was awarded the grand gold medal of the Paris Exposition; also the highest prizes of subsequent international and other exhibitions. In the Paris Exposition of 1867 he received the grand gold medal of honor, and the order of the Legion of Honor from the emperor of the French. In 1859 Mr. McCormick founded and endowed the "Theological Seminary of the Northwest," at Chicago, and has since endowed a professorship in Washington and Lee University, Va. Died May 3, 1884.

McCrea, JANE. A tragedy that caused deep and wide-spread indignation in the colonies occurred at Fort Edward while Burgoyne was making his way to the Hudson River. Jane McCrea, a handsome young girl, was visiting friends at Fort Edward when the invaders approached. She was betrothed to a young Tory living near there, who was then in Burgoyne's army. When that army was near Fort Edward some prowling Indians seized Miss McCrea in the house of her friend, and, seating her on a horse, attempted to carry her a prisoner to Burgoyne's camp at Sandy Hill. A detachment of Americans was sent to rescue her. One of a volley of bullets fired at her captors pierced the maiden and she fell to the ground dead. The Indians, seeing her dead, scalped her and carried her glossy locks into camp as a trophy. Her lover (David Jones), shocked by the event, left the army, went to Canada at the close of the war, and there lived, a moody bachelor, until he was an old man. He had purchased the scalp of his beloved from the Indians, and cher-



GRAVE OF JANE MCCREA AT FORT EDWARD.

ished it as a precious treasure. Miss McCrea's body was buried at Fort Edward. A few years ago her remains were transferred to a cemetery

between Fort Edward and Sandy Hill. The incident was woven into a wild tale of horror, which, believed, caused hundreds, perhaps thousands, of young men, burning with indignation against the British for employing savages to fight their brethren, to join the army of Gates.

McCulloch, BENJAMIN, was born in Rutherford County, Tenn., in 1814; killed in battle at Pea Ridge (which see), March 7, 1862. Emigrating to Texas before the war for its independence, he fought as a private at San Jacinto. He was a captain of Rangers in the war against Mexico, serving well under both Taylor and Scott. He was a commissioner to adjust the difficulties with the Mormons in May, 1857. Joining the Confederate army, he was made a brigadier-general, and led a corps at the battle of Pea Ridge, where he was killed.

Macdonald, FLORA. Among the settlers at Cross Creek (now Fayetteville), N. C., was Allan Macdonald, who, with his wife Flora, had emigrated to America because of the pressure of poverty in their native Scotland. She was the same person who, when a young maiden, rescued Prince Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender," from his pursuers in 1745. She was born at South Uist, Scotland, in 1720, and died March 4, 1790. She was a daughter of Macdonald of Milton. In 1750 she was married; came to America in 1773, and settled among other Scotch families at Cross Creek (now Fayetteville), N. C. When the old war for independence broke out, she and her husband, like most of the Scotch people, espoused the cause of the crown. Her husband was a captain of the "Loyal Highlanders" in North Carolina, and was among the defeated at Moore's Creek Bridge. (See *Moore's Creek Bridge, Battle of*.) After experiencing various trials because of their political position, Flora and her family returned to Scotland before the close of the war, in which two of their sons were loyalist officers. One of them (John) became a distinguished man, and a Fellow of the Royal Society. On her voyage to Scotland from America the ship was attacked by an enemy, and Flora, though nearly sixty years of age, bravely engaged in the fight and had her arm broken. The stirring events of her early life, in connection with the "Pretender," were woven into a charming romance by Sir Walter Scott.

Macdonough, THOMAS, was born at New-castle, Del., Dec. 23, 1783; died at sea, Nov. 16, 1825. He was of Scotch-Irish descent, and his father, who came from the North of Ireland, was an officer of distinction in the Continental army. Macdonough was appointed a midshipman in the navy in 1800, a lieutenant in 1807, and commander in July, 1813. He had served with distinction in the Mediterranean squadron with Bainbridge and Decatur. In 1814 he commanded a squadron on Lake Champlain, and on Sept. 11 he gained a signal victory over the British off Plattsburg. For this service he was promoted to captain and received thanks and a gold medal from Congress. Civil honors were bestowed upon him by various cities and

towns; and the Legislature of Vermont gave him an estate on Cumberland Head, which overlooked the scene of his great exploit. From the



THOMAS MACDONOUGH.

close of the war Macdonough's health declined, and he lived but ten years afterwards. His wife was Miss Shaler, of Middletown, Conn.

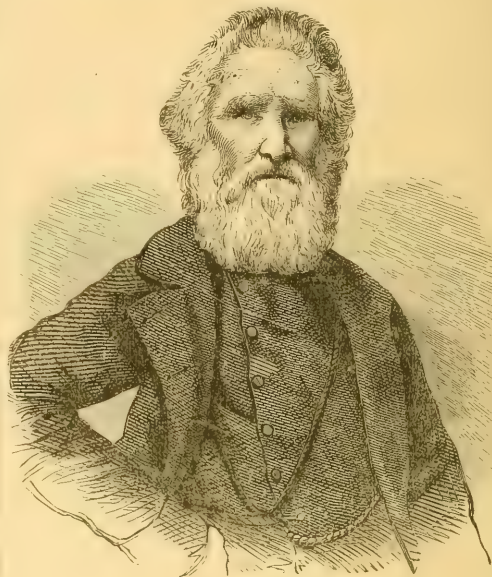
McDougall, A MARTYR. When a scheme for cheating the people of New York into a compliance with the provisions of the Mutiny Act (which see) was before the Assembly, the leaders of the Sons of Liberty (which see) raised a cry of alarm. Early on Sunday morning, Dec. 16, 1769, a handbill was found widely distributed over the city, addressed, in large letters, "To the Betrayed Inhabitants of the City and Colony of New York," and signed "A Son of Liberty." It denounced the money scheme as a deception, covering wickedness, and that it was intended to divide and distract the colonies. It exhorted the New York Assembly to imitate the patriotic course of those of other colonies; and it closed with a summons of the inhabitants to "The Fields" the next day, to express their views and to instruct their assemblymen to oppose the measure; and in case they should refuse to do so, to send notice thereof to all the other assemblies, and to publish their names to the world. In response to the call, full fourteen hundred people gathered around the Liberty Pole in "The Fields," where they were harangued by John Lamb, and the people, by unanimous vote, condemned the action of the Assembly in passing obnoxious bills. The sentiments of the meeting were embodied in a communication to the Assembly, which was borne by a committee of seven leading Sons of Liberty—Isaac Sears, Caspar Wistar, Alexander McDougall, Jacob Van Zandt, Samuel Broome, Erasmus Williams, and James Varick. Toryism was then rife in the New York Assembly. Twenty of that pliant body, on motion of James De Lancey, voted that the handbill was "an infamous and scandalous libel."

Only one member—Philip Schuyler—voted No. The Assembly then set about ferreting out the author of it, and a reward of \$500 was offered. The frightened printer of the handbill, when arraigned before the House, gave the name of McDougall as the author. He was taken before the House, where he refused to make any acknowledgment or give bail. He was indicted and cast into prison, where he remained a month, and then pleaded not guilty and gave bail. When brought before the House again, several months afterwards, he was defended by George Clinton. His answer to the question whether he was the author of the handbill was declared to be a contempt, and he was again imprisoned. In February, 1771, he was released and was never troubled with the matter again. McDougall was the first to suffer imprisonment for "liberty since the commencement of the glorious struggle," and he was regarded as a martyr. At public meetings his health was drunk, and men and women of distinction in the city thronged the prison and furnished him even with luxuries, for he was regarded as the true type of imprisoned commerce. Popular songs were composed and sung under his prison windows, and emblematic swords were worn. (See *McDougall, Alexander*.)

McDougall, ALEXANDER, was born in Scotland in 1731; died in New York city, June 8, 1783. He came to America about 1755, and settled near New York. He learned the trade of a printer, and took an early and active part with the Sons of Liberty of New York. (See *The Fields*, and *McDougall, a Martyr*.) He was active in the appointment of delegates to the First Congress in 1774, and was colonel of the First New York Regiment. On Aug. 9, 1776, he was made a brigadier-general, and in the retreat from Long Island (which see) he superintended the embarkation of the troops. In the battle of White Plains (which see) he was conspicuous. In the spring of 1777 he was in command at Peekskill, and in October of that year he was made a major-general in the Continental army. McDougall was in the battle of Germantown (which see), and in March, 1778, he took command in the Hudson Highlands, when, with Kosciuszko, he finished the fortifications there. In 1781 he was a member of Congress, and was made Minister of Marine (Secretary of the Navy), but did not fill the office long. He was again in Congress in 1784-85, and in the winter of 1783 he was at the head of the committee of army officers who bore the complaint of grievances to Congress from Newburgh. (See *Newburgh Addresses*.) He was elected State Senator in 1783, which office he held at his death.

McDougall, SIR DUNCAN, K.C.T., son of Patrick McDougall, Esq., of Argyllshire, Scotland, was born in 1789. He entered the army in 1804, and served in several regiments, and on the staff in Portugal, Spain, France, America, Cape of Good Hope, and West Indies. He had the distinction of having received into his arms two eminent British generals when they fell in battle—namely, General Ross, killed near Baltimore,

and General Pakenham, slain near New Orleans. He commanded the Seventy-ninth Highlanders for several years. His son and heir, Colonel



SIR DUNCAN MCDOWELL

Patrick Leonard McDougall, was commandant of the Royal Stall College in 1870. The family is descended, in a direct line, from Somerled, the Prince of the western coast of Argyllshire, and famous "Lord of the Isles." The above portrait of the gallant soldier is from a *carte de visite* likeness, sent to me at my request by Sir Duncan in the summer of 1861. He died Dec. 10, 1862.

McDowell, BATTLE AT. General Banks with 5000 men was at Harrisonburg, in the upper Shenandoah valley, at the close of April, and "Stonewall" Jackson, joined by troops under Generals Ewell and Edward S. Johnson, had a force of about 15,000 men not far off. Jackson was closely watching Banks, when he was startled by news that General Milroy was approaching from Frémont's Department, to join Banks or fall upon Staunton. Leaving Ewell to watch the latter, he turned rapidly towards Staunton, and sent Johnson with five brigades to strike Milroy. The latter, outnumbered, fell back to McDowell, thirty-six miles west of Staunton, whither General Schenck hastened with a part of his brigade, to assist him. Jackson also hurried to the assistance of Johnson, and on May 8th a severe engagement occurred, lasting about five hours, when darkness put an end to it. Schenck (who ranked Milroy), finding the position untenable, withdrew during the night to Franklin, and the next day Jackson wrote to Ewell: "Yesterday God gave us the victory at McDowell." (See fac-simile on next page.) The Nationals lost 256 men, of whom only nine were killed. Jackson reported a loss of 461, of whom 70 were killed. Among the latter was General Johnson. This battle occurred in 1862.

6 miles West
of McDowell
May 1st, 1862
My Dear General.
Yesterday
God gave us the victory at
McDowell which is 36 miles
West of Stanton. I hope to be
with you in a few days.
Very truly yours
Z. J. Jackson
Maj. Genl. U. S. Army

FAC-SIMILE OF JACKSON'S NOTE TO EWELL. (See p. 826.)

McDowell, IRVIN, was born at Franklinton, O., Oct. 15, 1818. Educated partly at a military school in France, he graduated at West Point in 1838 and was assistant-instructor of tactics there in 1841. He was adjutant of the post until 1845. In 1846 he accompanied General Wool to Mexico as aide-de-camp, winning the brevet of captain at Buena Vista. In 1856 he became assistant-adjutant-general, and brigadier-general United States Army in May, 1861. General McDowell had command of the first

Department of the Rappahannock. He co-operated with the forces of Banks in the Shenandoah valley, and was of great assistance to General Pope in the operations of the Army of Virginia (which see). He was relieved, at his own request, Sept. 5, 1862, and subsequently commanded the Department of the Pacific. He received the brevet of major-general United States Army in March, 1865. In September, 1866, he was mustered out of the volunteer service, and afterwards commanded the Department of the East and South. Died May 4, 1885.



IRVIN MCDOWELL.

army gathered at Washington, and commanded at the battle of Bull's Run. After McClellan took command of the Army of the Potomac, McDowell led a division under him. In March, 1862, he took command of a corps, and was appointed major-general of volunteers. In April his corps was detached from the Army of the Potomac, and he was placed in command of the

McFingal. The title of a political and historical satire, in four cantos, written by John Trumbull during the American Revolution. McFingal is a representative of the Tory or loyalist party in that struggle; a burly New England squire, constantly engaged with Honorius, a champion of the Whigs, or rebels, as the British called the patriots. In it all the leading Tories of the day are severely lampooned. It is written in Hudibrastic style, and is the ablest American production of the kind. The first canto was published in 1775; the whole work in 1782. The latest edition, fully annotated by Benson J. Lossing, was published in 1881.

Macgillivray, ALEXANDER, a noted Creek chief, was the son of a Scottish trader of that name, who married a Creek maiden, daughter of the principal chief. When he was ten years of age his father sent him to Charleston, under the care of his kinsman, Farquhar Gillivray, by whom he was placed under the tuition of an eminent English schoolmaster. He was also taught the Latin language in the Free School of Charleston. At the age of seventeen he was sent to Savannah and placed in the counting-house of General Elbert, where he devoted much

of his time to reading history instead of attending to his employer's business. His father sent for him to come home; and, finally, the Creeks chose him for their principal sachem or king. The King of Spain gave him the commission of a brigadier-general in his service. He married a Creek girl, and they had several children. The mother was a very intelligent and excellent woman. Macgillivray desired that his children should learn and speak the English language, and always talked with them in English, while their mother, jealous of her native tongue, never would talk to them in English, but always in Indian.

McIntosh, GENERAL LACHLAN, was born near Inverness, Scotland, March 17, 1725; died at Savannah, Feb. 20, 1806. His father, at the head of one hundred of the clan McIntosh, came to Georgia with Oglethorpe in 1736 and settled



LACHLAN MCINTOSH.

at New Inverness, in what is now McIntosh County, Georgia. Some of his sons and grandsons bore commissions in the army of the Revolution. Lachlan received assistance in the study of mathematics from Oglethorpe. At maturity he entered the counting-room of Henry Laurens, in Charleston, as clerk. Making himself familiar with military tactics, he was ready to enter the field when the war for independence began, and he served faithfully in that struggle, rising to the rank of brigadier-general. Button Gwinnett, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, persecuted McIntosh beyond endurance, and he called the persecutor a scoundrel. A duel ensued, and in it Gwinnett was killed. McIntosh was at the siege of Savannah in 1779, and was made a prisoner at Charleston in 1780. In 1784 he was in Congress, and the next year was a commissioner to treat with the Southern Indians.

McKean, THOMAS, LL.D., signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Chester County, Penn., March 19, 1734; died in Philadelphia, June 24, 1817. He was admitted to the bar in 1757, and chosen clerk of the Assembly.

He was a member of that body for the county of New Castle (see *Delaware*) from 1762 to 1779, and member of the Stamp Act Congress (which see) in 1765. He and Lynch and Otis framed the address to the British Parliament. He held seven local offices, and in 1774 was a member of the Continental Congress, to which he was annually elected until 1783. McKean was the only man who was a member of that body continually during the whole period of the war. He was active in procuring a unanimous vote for the Declaration of Independence, and was one of the committee that drew up the Articles of Confederation (which see). From 1777 till 1779 he held the office of president of the State of Delaware; also executed the duties of chief-justice of Pennsylvania. He was "hunted like a fox," he said, by the British, removing his family five times in the course of a few months. They finally rested in a little log-house on the Susquehanna, but were finally compelled to move on account of hostile Indians. McKean was governor of Pennsylvania from 1799 to 1808. In politics he followed the lead of Jefferson, though he had promoted the adoption of the Constitution.

McKean, WILLIAM W., United States Navy, was born in Pennsylvania in 1801; died near Binghamton, N. Y., April 22, 1865. He was a son of Judge McKean and nephew of Governor McKean, of Pennsylvania. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1814; became a lieutenant in 1825, a commander in 1841, captain in 1855, and commodore in July, 1862, when he was retired. In command of a schooner, under Commodore Porter, he assisted that officer (1823-24) in suppressing piracy in the West Indies. In 1860 he was engaged in the special service of conveying the Japanese embassy home. He was governor of the Naval Asylum, Philadelphia (1858-61), and was for a short time after his return from Japan in command of the Western Gulf Blockading Squadron.

Mackenzie, SIR ALEXANDER, explorer, was born in Inverness, Scotland, 1760; died at Dalhousie, March 12, 1820. At one time he was engaged in the fur-trade in Canada. He set out to explore the vast wilderness northward in June, 1789, having spent a year previously in England studying astronomy and navigation. At the western part of the Great Slave Lake he entered a river in an unexplored wilderness, and gave his name to it. Its course was followed until the 12th of July, when his voyage was terminated by ice, and he returned to his place of departure, Fort Chippewayan. He had reached 69° 1' north latitude. In October, 1792, he crossed the continent to the Pacific Ocean, which he reached in July, 1793, in latitude 51° 21' north latitude. He returned, went to England, and published (1801) his *Voyages from Montreal, on the River St. Lawrence, through the Continent of North America, to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans, in the Years 1789 and 1793*, with excellent maps. He was knighted in 1802.

Mackenzie, WILLIAM LYON, was born in Forfarshire, Scotland, March 12, 1795; died at To-

ronto, Canada, Aug. 28, 1861. He kept a circulating library near Dundee when he was seventeen years of age, and was afterwards clerk to Lord Lonsdale, in England. He came to Canada in 1820, where he was engaged successfully in the book and drug trade in Toronto. He entered upon political life in 1823; edited the *Colonial Advocate* (1824-33) and was a natural agitator. He criticised the government party, and efforts to suppress his paper failed. Rioters destroyed his office in 1826, and the people, whose cause he advocated, elected him to the Canadian Parliament.

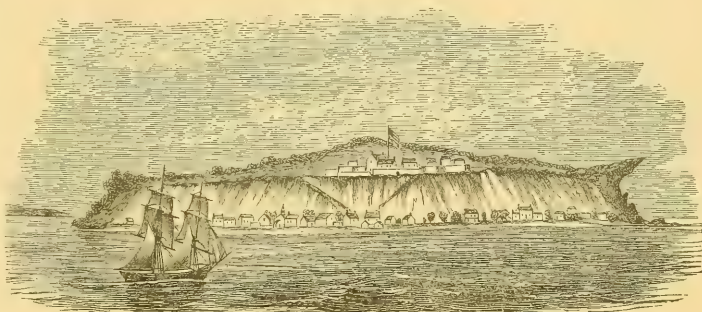
Five times he was expelled from that body for alleged libels in his newspaper, and was as often re-elected, until finally the Assembly got rid of him by refusing to issue a writ for a new election. He went to England in 1832, with a petition of grievances to the Home Government. In 1836 Toronto was incorporated a city, and Mackenzie was chosen its first mayor. He engaged, as a leader, in the

Canadian Rebellion (which see), when he was outlawed by his government, his property was confiscated, and he fled to the United States. Arrested at Rochester by the United States authorities on a charge of a violation of the neutrality laws, he was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment in the county jail of Monroe. At the end of that time he went to New York, where he was the actuary of the Mechanics' Institute, and with his family resided in the basement of their school building. He was editorially connected with the *New York Tribune* for some time, and published *Mackenzie's Gazette*. In 1850 his government pardoned him, restored his confiscated property, and he returned to Canada, where he was elected to Parliament, and remained a member of the Assembly until 1858. He established a newspaper in Toronto, and conducted it until his death. Mackenzie was a thoroughly sincere and honest man, and had the courage of his convictions. His admirers purchased for him a residence near Toronto and a small annuity.

Mackerel and Free Schools. The first free school established by the Pilgrim fathers was supported by the proceeds of the mackerel-fishery authorized by the Legislature of the colony, by a grant which was confirmed in 1674, in the following words: "This court having received, by the deputies of the several towns, the significance of the minds of the major part of the freemen of the colony, that all the profits of the fishery at Cape Cod, granted by the court for the erecting and maintaining of a school, do hereby confirm the grant of the aforesaid profits of the fishery at the cape to the maintenance of the school."

Mackinaw (or Michilimackinac). In the

bosom of the clear, cold, and deep waters of the strait between lakes Huron and Michigan—a strait forty miles in length—stands a limestone rock about seven miles in circumference, rising in its centre to an altitude of nearly three hundred feet, and covered with a rough and generous soil, out of which springs heavy timber. The Indians, impressed by its form, called it Mich-il-i-mack-i-nac—"The Great Turtle." On the opposite shore of the peninsula of Michigan, French Jesuits erected a stronghold and called it Fort Michilimackinac, which name has



MACKINAW, FROM ROUND ISLAND

been abbreviated to Mackinaw. This fort fell into the hands of the British, in their conquest of Canada (1760), but the Indians there remained hostile to their new masters. "You have conquered the French," they said, "but you have not conquered us." The most important village of the Chippewas—one of the most powerful tribes of Pontiac's Confederacy (which see)—was upon the bank of Michilimackinac. Early in the summer of 1763 (June 4) the front of the island was filled with Indians, who, professing warm friendship for the English, invited the garrison at Fort Mackinaw to witness a great game of ball—an exciting amusement. They did so. At length a ball, making a lofty curve in the air, fell near the pickets. It was a preconcerted signal. The warriors rushed towards the fort as if in quest of the ball, when their hands suddenly pulled gleaming hatchets from beneath their blankets and began a massacre of the garrison; but, hearing that a strong British force was approaching, the barbarians abandoned the fort and fled. This fort came into the possession of the United States in 1796, when the Northwestern posts were given up by the British in compliance with the treaty of peace in 1783 (which see). The fortification called Fort Holmes, on the high southwest bluff of the island, was garrisoned in 1812 by a small force of Americans, and was captured (July 17, 1812) by a British force. (See *Fall of Mackinaw*.)

Mackinaw, ITS RECAPTURE ATTEMPTED. The island and fort of Mackinaw (see *Fall of Mackinaw*) was the key to the vast fur-trade in the Northwest, and the Americans planned a land and naval expedition in the spring of 1814 for its recapture. A small squadron was placed at the disposal of Commander St. Clair, and a land

force was placed under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Croghan, of Fort Stephenson (which see) fame. They left Detroit at the beginning of July. A part of the force went against the post of the Northwest Fur Company, at the Falls of St. Mary, the agents of which were among the most active of the British emissaries in inciting the Indians to make war on the Americans. The keepers of the post fled when the armament appeared, and the Americans destroyed everything of value that could not be carried away. Then the whole expedition started for Mackinaw. The force of the Americans was too small to effect a capture, and the enterprise was abandoned. Some vessels cruised in those waters for a time. The expedition returned to Detroit in August, and no further military movements were undertaken in the Northwest, excepting a raid by McArthur. (See *McArthur's Raid*.)

McKnight, CHARLES, M.D., was born at Cranberry, N. J., Oct. 10, 1750; died in New York in 1791. He graduated at Princeton in 1771, studied medicine with Dr. Shippen, and entered the Continental army as a surgeon. He soon became surgeon of the Middle Department. After the war he settled in New York, where he became a very eminent practitioner, and was for some time professor of anatomy and surgery in Columbia College.

McLane, ALLAN, was born Aug. 8, 1746; died at Wilmington, Del., May 22, 1829. Removing to Delaware in 1774, he left an estate in Philadelphia worth \$15,000, the whole of which he sacrificed in the service of his country. Mr. McLane entered warmly into the contest for freedom, becoming first a lieutenant in Caesar Rodney's regiment. He joined the army under Washington in 1776, and distinguished himself at the battles of Long Island, White Plains, Trenton, and Princeton. He was made captain in 1777. He commanded the outposts of the Continental army around Philadelphia while that city was occupied by the British (1777-78), and was made major of the infantry of "Lee's Legion." (See *Lee, Henry*.) While engaged in active service under that commander, he discovered and reported the weakness of the garrison at Stony Point, and promoted its capture on July 16, 1779. He also revealed the weakness of the garrison at Paulus's Hook, and participated in the brilliant affair there, Aug. 19, 1779. His personal courage and strength were remarkable. In an encounter, near Frankford, Penn., with three British dragoons, he killed one, wounded another, and caused the third to flee for his life. After the war he held prominent civil positions—namely, member of the Assembly of Delaware, and its speaker; six years a privy-councillor; a judge of the Court of Common Pleas; marshal of the district from 1790 to 1798, and collector of the port of Wilmington from 1808 until his death.

McLane, LOUIS, was born at Smyrna, Kent Co., Del., May 28, 1786; died in Baltimore, Md., Oct. 7, 1857. He was a son of Major Allan McLane, a distinguished officer of the Revolu-

tion. He entered the navy at thirteen years of age, and served as a midshipman under Decatur in the *Philadelphia* (which see), but afterwards studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1808. When Baltimore was threatened, in 1814, he was a member of a volunteer corps that marched to its defence. For ten successive years (1817-27) he represented Delaware in Congress, and was United States Senator from 1827 to 1829. In May, 1829, President Jackson appointed him American minister to Great Britain, which post he held two years, when he was called to Jackson's cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury. In his instructions to McLane, the President said, "Ask nothing but what is right, and submit to nothing that is wrong." In 1833, in consequence of his declining to remove the government deposits from the United States Bank (which see), he was transferred to the position of Secretary of State, which office he held until 1834, when he resigned, and retired from public life. For ten successive years (1837-47) he was president of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Pending the settlement of the Oregon boundary question he was ambassador in London, to which he was appointed by President Polk in June, 1845. His last public acts were as a member of the Convention at Annapolis to reform the constitution of Maryland.

McLaws, LAFAYETTE, was born in Georgia, and graduated at West Point in 1842. He remained in the army until 1861, when he joined the insurgents, and became one of the most active of the Confederate military leaders. He had served in the war against Mexico. Made a major-general in the Confederate army, he commanded a division under Lee, and was distinguished at Fredericksburg, Gettysburg, and at Averasborough (which see), N. C. He surrendered with Johnston's army in April, 1865.

McLean, ALLAN, was born in Scotland, in 1725; died in 1784. He was a lieutenant in a Scotch brigade in the service of the Dutch in 1747. He left that service in 1757, came to America, and was at the capture of Fort Duquesne in 1758. He served under Amherst in 1759, and was major-commander of the One-hundred-and-fourteenth Highlanders, which regiment he raised. He was made lieutenant-colonel in 1771, and in 1775 he came to America again, to fight the patriotic colonists. With a corps of Royal Highland emigrants, which he raised in Canada, he occupied Quebec late in 1775, and rendered great service during the siege by Montgomery. He commanded the fort at Penobscot (which see) in 1779, and in 1780 was made a colonel.

McLean, JOHN, LL.D., was born in Morris County, N. J., March 11, 1785; died in Cincinnati, O., April 4, 1861. His father removed first to Virginia, then to Kentucky, and in 1799 settled in Warren County, O. John labored on a farm until he was sixteen years old, receiving a scanty education; studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1807, and was a member of Con-

gress from 1813 to 1816. He was a supporter of Madison's administration, and from 1816 to 1822 he was a judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio. In 1822 he was made commissioner of the general land-office, and in 1823 postmaster-general. In 1830 he became a justice of the United States Supreme Court, and was always known as an advocate for the freedom of the slaves. In the Dred Scott case (which see) Judge McLean dissented from the opinion of Chief-justice Taney.

McMinnsville, BATTLE NEAR. Generals Bragg and Buell had marched in nearly parallel lines eastward towards Chattanooga — the latter north of the Tennessee River, and the former south of it. Bragg won the race, and with full forty thousand men turned his face towards the Ohio. Bragg divided his force into three corps, commanded respectively by Generals Hardee, Polk, and E. Kirby Smith. The latter was sent to Knoxville, Tenn., while the two former held Chattanooga and its vicinity. Buell disposed his line from Huntsville, Ala., to McMinnsville, Warren Co., Tenn. So lay the opposing armies when Kirby Smith left Knoxville to invade Kentucky. Bragg crossed the Tennessee, just above Chattanooga, on Aug. 21, with thirty-six regiments of infantry, five of cavalry, and forty guns. Louisville was his destination. He advanced among the rugged mountains towards Buell's left at McMinnsville as a feint, but fairly flanked the Nationals. This was a cavalry movement, which resulted in a battle there. The horsemen were led by General Forrest, who, for several days, had been hovering around Lebanon, Murfreesborough, and Nashville. Attempting to cut off Buell's communications, he was confronted (Aug. 30) by National cavalry under E. P. Fyffe, of General T. J. Wood's division, who had made a rapid march. After a short struggle the Confederates were routed. Supposing Bragg was aiming at Nashville, Buell took means to defend that city. This occurred in 1862.

McNab, SIR ALLAN NAPIER, was born at Niagara, Feb. 19, 1798; died at Toronto, Can., Aug. 8, 1862. His father was the principal aid on the staff of General Simcoe during the war for independence. Allan became a midshipman in 1813, in the British fleet on Lake Ontario, but soon left the navy and joined the army. He commanded the British advanced guard at the Battle of Plattsburg (which see). He practised law at Hamilton, C. W., after the war, and was in the Canadian Parliament in 1820, being chosen speaker of the Assembly. In 1837-38 he commanded the militia on the Niagara frontier, and was a conspicuous actor in crushing the "rebellion." He sent a party to destroy the *Caroline* (which see), and for his services at that period he was knighted. (See *Canadian Rebellion*.) After the union of the two provinces (Upper and Lower Canada), in 1841, he became speaker of the Legislature. He was prime minister under the governorship of Lord Elgin and Sir Edmund Head, and in 1860 was a member of the Legislative Council.

McNeil, JOHN, was born at Hillsborough, N. H.,

in 1784; died at Washington, D. C., Feb. 23, 1850. He entered the army as captain in March, 1812, and was breveted lieutenant-colonel for his good conduct at the Battle of Chippewa (which see). The next year he was wounded at the Battle of Niagara, or Lundy's Lane (which see), and was breveted colonel. In 1830 he resigned his commission, and was appointed, by President Jackson, Surveyor of the Port of Boston, which office he held until his death. His wife was a half-sister of President Pierce.

McNeil, JOHN, was born on British-American soil, of American parents, in 1820, and was a hatter in St. Louis about twenty years. He entered the military service with General Lyon in May, 1861, and was in command of St. Louis, under Frémont, having performed good military service. He was made colonel of volunteers, and early in 1862 took command of a cavalry regiment and of a military district in Missouri, in which he distinguished himself, and was made a brigadier-general. He assisted in driving the forces under Price out of Missouri in the fall of 1864. (See *Missouri, Last Invasion of*.)

Macomb, ALEXANDER, was a son of a fur-merchant, and was born at Detroit, Mich., April 3, 1782; died at Washington, D. C., June 25, 1841. He entered the army as cornet of cavalry in 1799, and at the commencement of the war



ALEXANDER MACOMB.

with Great Britain, in 1812, held the rank of lieutenant-colonel of engineers and adjutant-general of the army. He had five brothers in that contest. He was transferred to the artillery, and distinguished himself on the Niagara frontier. In January, 1814, he was promoted to brigadier-general, and when General Izard left the military post on Lake Champlain, in the summer of that year, Macomb was left in chief command in that region. In that capacity he

won a victory over the British at Plattsburg (Sept. 11, 1814). For his conduct on that occasion he was commissioned a major-general in the United States Army, and received thanks and a gold medal from Congress. (See *Plattsburg, Bat-*

Mr. Macon was a warm personal friend of Jefferson and Madison, and his fellow-citizens have embalmed his name in the title of one of the counties of North Carolina. John Randolph, the cynic, said of him, in his will, "He is the best, purest, and wisest man that I ever knew." Mr. Jefferson called him "The last of the Romans." He selected for his place of burial an untillable ridge, ordered the spot to be marked only by a pile of loose stones, and directed his coffin to be made of plain boards, and to be paid for before his interment.

McPherson Blues, a volunteer uniformed company, composed of young men of the best families in Philadelphia. The uniform was a close-fitting blue-cloth jacket and pantaloons with white facings, with cocked hat covered with bearskin and adorned with a cockade and a buck's tail. Their legs were encased in close-fitting gaiters, which buttoned over the shoes. They ranked as infantry. When, on Dec. 26, 1799, there was a funeral procession from the Hall of Congress to the German Lutheran Church in Philadelphia, to hear an oration in memory of Washington from General Henry Lee, the McPherson Blues were invited by a committee of Congress to attend as a guard of honor. After the ceremonies at the church, the Blues re-formed, and in the street, in the presence of thousands of citizens, a squad of them fired a salute, in the manner such honor is paid at the grave of a deceased officer. Six of that company were living as late as 1862. They have since passed to the world of spirits.

tle of.) On the death of General Brown, in 1835, General Macomb was appointed general-in-chief of the armies of the United States, which position he held at the time of his death. His remains were interred, with military honors, in the Congressional burying-ground, Washington, and over them stands a beautiful white marble monument, properly inscribed. General Macomb wrote a treatise on *Martial Law and Courts-martial*.—His son, WILLIAM H., entered the United States navy, as midshipman, in 1834. He was engaged against forts in China in 1856, and in the expedition to Paraguay in 1859, in which he commanded the *Metacomet*. In the Civil War he was active on the waters of the Mississippi and on the coast of North Carolina, attaining the rank of commodore in 1862. In 1869 he commanded the steamship *Plymouth*, in the European squadron, and was light-house inspector in 1871.

Macon, NATHANIEL, was born in Warren County, N. C., in 1757; died there, June 29, 1837. At college at Princeton when the Revolution broke out, he returned home, and volunteered as a private soldier in the company of his brother. He was at the fall of Charleston, the disaster to Gates near Camden (see *Sanders's Creek*), and with Green in his remarkable retreat across the Carolinas. From 1780 to 1785 he was a member of the North Carolina Assembly, and he opposed the ratification of the national Constitution. From 1791 to 1815 he was a member of Congress, and from 1816 to 1828 United States Senator.



MACOMB'S MONUMENT.



A MCPHERSON BLUE.

McPherson, JAMES BIRDSEYE, was born at Clyde, Sandusky Co., O., Nov. 14, 1828; killed near Atlanta, Ga., July 22, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1853, the first in his class, and entered the engineer corps. He was made captain in August, 1861, and brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1862. He was aid to Gen-

eral Halleck late in 1861, and chief-engineer of the Army of the Tennessee, doing good service at Fort Donelson, Shiloh, Corinth, and Iuka Springs. In December, 1862, he commanded



JAMES BIRDSEYE MCPHERSON.

the Seventeenth Corps with great ability, having been made major-general in October. He did admirable service, under Grant, in the Vicksburg campaign (1863), and was made brigadier in the United States Army in August. He was also active and efficient in the Atlanta campaign, in 1864, distinguishing himself everywhere, as commander of the Army of the Tennessee. He was shot while reconnoitring, by a Confederate named McPherson.

McPherson, WILLIAM, was born in Philadelphia in 1756; died near there in November, 1813. At the age of thirteen he was appointed a cadet in the British army, and became adjutant of a regiment. He joined the Continental army on the Hudson at the close of 1779, and was made a brevet-major by Washington. Serving as aid to Lafayette for a while, he was appointed to the command of a partisan corps of cavalry, which served in Virginia in 1781. President Washington appointed him Surveyor of the Port of Philadelphia in 1789; Inspector of Revenue in 1792; and Naval Officer late in 1793, which position he held until his death. He was made brigadier-general in the Provisional army in 1798. His brother, John, was aid to General Montgomery, and perished with him at the siege of Quebec (which see).

McRee, WILLIAM, was born at Wilmington, N. C., Dec. 13, 1787; died at St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 10, 1832. He graduated at West Point in 1805, and entered the corps of engineers. He was major in July, 1812; was chief-engineer on the northern frontier, and was breveted colonel for services in defence of Fort Erie in August, 1814. Made lieutenant-colonel in 1818, he resigned in 1819, and was United States Surveyor of Public Lands in the Mississippi region from 1825 to 1832. He had been sent to France by Major Thayer in 1816 to collect scientific and military information for the benefit of the military acad-

emy at West Point, of which Thayer was then superintendent.

Madison, JAMES, fourth President of the United States, was born at Port Conway, King George's Co., Va., March 16, 1751; died at Montpelier, Va., June 28, 1836. He was a graduate of the College of New Jersey (1771), studied law, and in 1776 was elected to a seat in the Virginia Assembly. He became a member of the Executive Council in 1778, and was sent to Congress in 1779. In that body he continually opposed the issue of paper-money by the states. He was active until the peace in 1783, when he retired to private life, but was drawn out again as a delegate to the convention that framed the national Constitution. In that body he took a prominent part in the debates, and wrote some of the papers in *The Federalist*, which advocated the adoption of that instrument. He was also in the Virginia Convention in 1788 that ratified the Constitution. A member of Congress from 1789 to 1797, Madison did much in the establishment of the nation on a firm foundation. Uniting with the Republican party, he was a moderate opponent of the administration of Washington. He declined the post of Secretary of State, vacated by Jefferson in 1793, which Washington offered him. He presented a series of resolutions to the Virginia Legislature in 1798, drawn by him, on the basis of a series drawn by Jefferson for the Kentucky Legislature, which contained the essence of the doctrine of state supremacy. They were adopted. (See *Resolutions of 1798*.) In 1801 Madison was appointed



JAMES MADISON.

by Jefferson Secretary of State, which office he held until he took the chair of President of the United States. He very soon became involved in disputes about impressment with the government of Great Britain, and, in 1812, was compelled to declare war against that nation. He was enabled to proclaim a treaty of peace in February, 1815. Retiring from office in 1817, he

passed the remainder of his days on his estate at Montpelier. His accomplished wife, Dorothy (commonly called "Dolly"), shared his joys and sorrows from the time of their marriage in Philadelphia in 1794 until his death, and survived him until July 2, 1849, when she also died, at the age of eighty-two years. She was a long time among the leaders in Washington society.

Madison, JAMES, RE-ELECTION OF. In the fall of 1812 James Madison was re-elected President of the United States, with Elbridge Gerry as Vice-President, George Clinton having died in April previously. There were some changes made in the cabinet, John Armstrong having taken the place of William Eustis as Secretary of War, in January, 1813, and William Jones that of Paul Hamilton as Secretary of the Navy, at the same time. Monroe, who had acted as Secretary of War a short time, remained Secretary of State. Albert Gallatin remained Secretary of the Treasury; so, also, did Gideon Granger continue Postmaster-general. William Pinkney remained in the cabinet as Attorney-general.

Madison, Mrs., and Washington's Portrait. President Madison, seeing that the capital was in danger when victory remained with the British at Bladensburg (which see), sent messengers to his wife, advising her to fly to a place of safety. She had already been apprised of the

hands. Just as she had accomplished so much, two gentlemen from New York (Jacob Barker and R. G. L. De Peyster) entered the room. The precious picture was lying on the floor. The sound of approaching troops was heard. They might be the invaders, coming to secure so notable a captive as the beautiful wife of the President. "Save that picture," said Mrs. Madison to the two gentlemen. "Save it if possible; if not possible, destroy it; under no circumstances allow it to fall into the hands of the British." Then, snatching up the precious parchment which bore the engrossed copy of the Declaration of Independence and the autographs of the signers, which she had also resolved to save, she hastened to the carriage, with her sister and her husband, and was borne away to a place of safety beyond the Potomac. Barker and De Peyster rolled up the picture, and, with it, accompanied a portion of the retreating army, and so saved it. That picture was left at a farm-house where they lodged that night, and a few weeks afterwards Mr. Barker restored it to Mrs. Madison. It now hangs in the Blue Room at the presidential mansion in Washington. The revered parchment is still preserved by the government. Mrs. Dolly (Payne) Madison was a superior woman, and possessed remarkable beauty of person. She possessed those charms which "at sixty bloom as fair as at sixteen." Her parents were Quakers, and lived in Philadelphia, where, at an early age, she married Mr. Todd, a young lawyer, but soon became a widow. James Madison, a member of Congress there, wooed and won the young widow in 1794, and all through his life she was a helpmate indeed. She was the acknowledged leader in Washington society for many years. She lived to the age of eighty-two.

Madison's Cabinet Officers. Madison nominated to the Senate Robert Smith, of Maryland, as Secretary of State; Albert Gallatin (continued in office), as Secretary of the Treasury; William Eustis, of Massachusetts, Secretary of War; Paul Hamilton, of South Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Gideon Granger, of New York (continued in office), Postmaster-general; and Cesar A. Rodney, of Delaware (continued in office), Attorney-general.

Madoc. Welsh records and traditions declare that Madoc, a son of Owen Gwynneth, Prince of North Wales, disgusted with the domestic contentions about the rightful successor of his father, went on a voyage of discovery, with well-manned ships and many followers, about the year 1170; that he sailed westward from Ireland and discovered a fruitful country; that, returning, he fitted out a squadron of ten vessels and filled them with a colony of men, women, and children of his country, and with these sailed for the fair land he had found. The expedition was never heard of afterwards. Travellers in the Mississippi valley and westward of it assert that the Mandans and other Indians who are nearly white have many Welsh words in their language. Allusions to this fact have been made by early and late writers, and it is suggested that the word Mandan is a corruption



MRS. MADISON.

disaster on the field. On receiving the message from her husband (Aug. 24, 1814), between two and three o'clock P.M., she ordered her carriage and sent away in a wagon silver plate and other valuables, to be deposited in the Bank of Maryland. In one of the rooms hung a full-length portrait of Washington, painted by Stuart. While anxiously waiting for the arrival of her husband, she took measures for preserving the picture, when, finding the process of unscrewing the frame from the wall too tedious, she had it broken in pieces, and the canvas was removed from the stretcher with her own

of Madawgwys, the name applied to the followers of Madawc or Madoe. The traditions of the Southern Indians, even as far south as Peru, that the elements of civilization were introduced among them by a white person, who came from the North, favor the theory that the light-colored Indians of our continent have a mixture of Welsh blood, as they have of Welsh language. Until the translation of the Icelandic chronicles, the Welsh historians claimed for their countrymen the honor of being the discoverers and first European settlers of America. (See *Northmen*.)

Magellan, FERDINANDO, a Portuguese navigator, was born about 1470. After serving long in the Portuguese navy, he went to Spain and persuaded the authorities there that the Molucca or Spice Islands, which they coveted, might be reached by sailing westward, and so come within the Pope's gift of lands westward of the Azores. (See *Pope's Gift* in 1493.) Magellan was sent in that direction with five ships and two hundred and thirty-six men. After touching at Brazil, he went down the coast and discovered and passed through the strait which bears his name, calling it the Strait of the Eleven Thousand Virgins. He passed into the South Sea, discovered by Nuñez (see *Nuñez, Alvar Cabeça de Vaca*), and, on account of its general calmness, he named it the Pacific Ocean. Crossing it, he discovered the Philippine Islands, eastward of the China Sea, where he was killed by the natives. The expedition was reduced to one ship. In that the survivors sailed across the Indian Ocean and around the Cape of Good Hope, and reached Spain Sept. 6, 1522. That ship (the *Victoria*) was the first that ever circumnavigated the globe.

Magruder, JOHN BANKHEAD, was born in Virginia in 1810; died at Houston, Texas, Feb. 19, 1871. He graduated at West Point in 1830; served in the war against Mexico; joined the insurgents in 1861, and commanded in the defence of Richmond in the summer of 1862 as brigadier and major-general. In the fall of that year he commanded the Confederate forces in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, and was in command of the expedition against the Nationals at Galveston (which see).

Maguaga, BATTLE AT. After the evacuation of Canada (which see) General Hull sent six hundred men, under Lieutenant-colonel Miller, to repair the misfortunes of Van Horne and afford a competent escort for Captain Brush and the army supplies under his charge at the River Raisin. When the troops were placed in marching order, Lieutenant-colonel

Miller said to the Ohio militia: "Soldiers, we are now going to meet the enemy and beat them. The reverses of the 5th (see *Van Horne's Defeat*) must be repaired. The blood of our brethren, spilt by the savages, must be avenged. I shall lead you. You shall not disgrace yourselves nor me. Every man who shall leave the ranks or fall back, without orders, shall be instantly put to death. I charge the officers to execute this order." Turning to the veterans of the Fourth Regiment of Regulars, he said: "My brave soldiers, you will add another victory to that of Tippecanoe—another laurel to that gained on the Wabash last fall. If there is now any man in the ranks of the detachment who fears to meet the enemy, let him fall out and stay behind!" They all cried out, "I'll not stay! I'll not stay!" and, led by Miller, they pressed southward, in an order ready for battle at any moment, until, about four o'clock on a Sabbath afternoon (Aug. 9, 1812), they reached the vicinity of Maguaga, fourteen miles below Detroit. Spies had led the way, under Major Maxwell, followed by a vanguard of forty men, under Captain Snelling, of the Fourth Regiment. The infantry moved in two columns, about two hundred yards apart. The cavalry kept the road in the centre, in double file; the artillery followed, and flank guards of riflemen marched at prop-



MAGUAGA BATTLE-GROUND.

er distances. In the Oak Woods, at Maguaga, near the banks of the Detroit, they received from an ambush of British and Indians, under Major Muir and Tecumtha, a terrible volley. This was a detachment sent over from Fort Malden by General Proctor to repeat the tragedy at Browns-

town (which see), cut off the communication between the Raisin and Detroit, and capture Brush and his stores. Snelling, in the advance, returned the fire and maintained his position until Miller came up with the main body. These were instantly formed in battle order, and, with a shout, the gallant young commander and his men fell upon the foe. At the same time, a 6-pounder poured in a storm of grape-shot that made sad havoc. The battle soon became general, when, closely pressed in front and rear, the British and Canadians fled, leaving Tecumtha and his warriors to bear the brunt of battle. The white men gained their boats as quickly as possible and sped across the river to Fort Malden. The barbarians soon broke and fled also, pursued by the impetuous Snelling more than two miles, on a powerful horse, with a few of the cavalry. The rout and victory was complete. The Americans lost eighteen killed and fifty-seven wounded. Miller, though injured by a fall from his horse, wished to push on to the Raisin, but Hull sent a peremptory order for the whole detachment to return to Detroit. The British were gathering in force at Sandwich, and threatening the fort and village of Detroit.

MAHEW, JONATHAN, an American clergyman, was born at Martha's Vineyard, Mass., Oct. 8, 1720; died in Boston, July 9, 1766. He graduated at Harvard in 1744, and was ordained minister of the West Church, Boston, in 1747, which position he held until his death. He was a zealous republican in politics, and his preaching and writing were remarkable for their controversial character. He was warmly opposed to the operations of the "British Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts," for he regarded it as an instrument for the spread of Episcopacy, to which he was opposed. He became involved in a controversy with Dr. Secker, Archbishop of Canterbury, because the latter proposed the introduction of bishops into the colonies. He co-operated with Otis and others in their resistance to measures of the British Parliament concerning the Americans, and he was among the boldest of the Whigs. His death deprived the cause of a staunch champion.

MAHEW ON UNION. On Sunday morning, June 8, 1766, Rev. Jonathan Mahew wrote to James Otis: "You have heard of the communion of churches. While I was thinking of this in my bed, the great use and importance of a communion of colonies appeared to me in a strong light. Would it not be decorous for our Assembly [of Massachusetts] to send circulars to all the rest, expressing a desire to cement a union among ourselves?" The suggestion was remembered and acted upon by the patriots of Massachusetts.

MAIDEN BRIDE, THE FIRST, IN NEW ENGLAND. The dreadful famine and fever which destroyed one half of the Pilgrims at New Plymouth during the winter and spring of 1621, made a victim of Rose Standish, wife of Captain Miles Standish. Her husband was then thirty-seven years of age. Not long after this sad event, the

brave little captain was smitten by the charms of Priscilla Mullins, daughter of William Mullins, who was a passenger on the *Mayflower*. Priscilla had then just bloomed into young womanhood, and Standish sent young John Alden, a cooper from Southampton, who lived in his family, to ask the hand of the maiden in marriage. The ambassador went to her father and discreetly and modestly performed the duties of his mission. The father readily gave his consent, and added, "But Priscilla must be consulted." She was summoned to the room, where sat young, graceful, almost courtly, ruddy-faced John Alden, whom she knew well. The ambassador of love repeated his message, and when Priscilla asked, "Why does he not come himself?" and was answered, "He is too busy," the indignant maiden declared that she would never marry a man who was "too busy" to court her. She said (in the words of Longfellow):

"Had he waited awhile, had only showed that he loved me,
Even this captain of yours—who knows?—at last night
have won me,
Old and rough as he is; but now it never can happen."

John Alden pressed the suit of Standish, when

"Archly the maiden smiled, and, with eyes overrunning with
laughter,
Said, in a tremulous voice, 'Why don't you speak for your-
self, John?'"

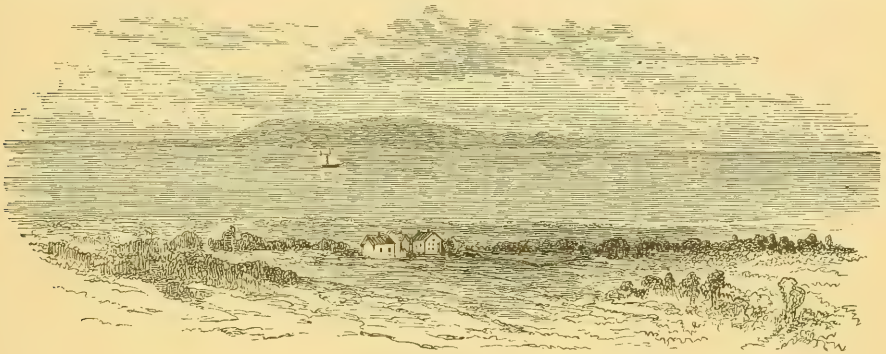
Young Alden blushed, bowed, and retired, for he was faithful to his trust. His visit was soon repeated, and it was not long before the nuptials of John Alden and Priscilla Mullins were celebrated by the whole community, excepting Captain Standish, who could not readily forgive the weakness (for he knew it was not perfidy) of his young friend in surrendering at the first assault from the eyes and lips of the maiden. The great-great-granddaughter of John and Priscilla, Mrs. Phebe C. Bailey, died at Dover, N. H., in 1874, aged ninety-one years.

MAIDEN INDIAN QUEEN, THE. After fighting his way through hostile tribes, De Soto penetrated the country north to Silver Bluffs, on the Savannah River. On the opposite side of that stream (in Barnwell District, S. C.) lived a young and beautiful Indian maiden, who, as queen, ruled over a large domain. She heard of the arrival of the strangers, and, in a richly wrought canoe, filled with feathers, shawls, skins, and other presents, this dusky caecia glided across the river, and, with kind words, welcomed the Spanish leader and offered him her services. They exchanged presents. The young queen had a magnificent string of pearls around her neck. This she drew over her head and put it around the neck of De Soto, as a token of her regard. Then she invited him and his followers to cross over to her valley. They passed the stream in canoes and log-rafts, and, in the shade of mulberry-trees, they encamped and were feasted on wild-turkey and venison. There they remained many days, enjoying the hospitality of the caecia, when the Spaniard requited this hospitality by carrying her away a prisoner, as a hostage for the good behavior of her people towards his followers. She finally

escaped and returned home, a bitter enemy of the perfidious invaders. (See *De Soto, Fernando*.)

MAINE, COLONIAL. This most easterly state in the Union was admitted in 1820. Its shores were first visited by Europeans under Bartholomew Gosnold (1602) and Martin Pring (1603), though it is possible they were seen by Cabot (1498) and Verazzani (1524). The French, under De Monts, wintered near the site of Calais, on the St. Croix (1604-5), and took possession of the River Sagadahock, or Kennebec. Captain Weymouth was there in 1605, and kidnapped some of the natives; and in 1607 the Plymouth Company sent emigrants to settle there, but they did not remain long. A French mission established at Mount Desert was broken up by Argall in 1613 (see *Argall, Samuel*), and the next year Captain Smith, landing first at Monhegan Island, explored the coast of Maine. (See *New*

tenant to administer the laws in 1640. He established himself at Agamenticus (now York), when, in 1642, the city called *Gorgeana* was incorporated. There the first representative government in Maine was established (1640). On the death of Sir Ferdinando (1647) the Province of Maine descended to his heirs, and was placed under four jurisdictions. Massachusetts, fearing this sort of dismemberment of the colony might cause the fragments to fall into the hands of the French, made claim to the territory under its charter. Many of the people of Maine preferred to be under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and in 1652 a large number of the freeholders in five towns took the oath of allegiance to the Bay State. The latter province then assumed supreme rule in Maine, and continued it until the restoration of the Stuarts (1660), when Charles II., on the petition of the heirs of Gor-



MONHEGAN ISLAND.

England, and *Smith, Captain John*.) The whole region of Maine, and far southward, westward, and eastward, was included in the charter of the Plymouth Company, and in 1621 the company, having granted the country east of the St. Croix to Sir William Alexander, established that river as the eastern boundary of Maine. (See *Alexander, Sir William*.) Monhegan Island was first settled (1622) and next Saco (1623); and in 1629 the Plymouth Company, perceiving its own dissolution to be inevitable, parcelled out the territory in small grants. In the course of three years the whole coast had been thus disposed of as far east as the Penobscot River. East of that river was claimed by the French, and was a subject of dispute a long time. When the Plymouth Company dissolved (1635) and divided the American territory, Sir Ferdinando Gorges took the whole region between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec, and received a formal charter for it from Charles I. in 1639, when the region was called the *Province of Maine*, in compliment to the queen, who owned the Province of Maine in France. In 1636 Gorges sent over his nephew, William Gorges, as governor of his domain, and he established his government at Saco, where, indeed, there had been an organized government since 1623, when Robert Gorges was governor under the Plymouth Company. In 1639 Sir Ferdinando was appointed governor-general of New England, and his son Thomas was sent as lieu-

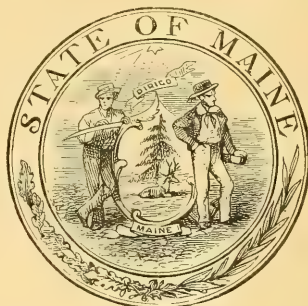
tes, sent over a commission to re-establish the authority of the grantees. Massachusetts, after long resistance, purchased the interests (1677) of the claimants for £12,000 sterling. In 1674 the Dutch conquered the territory eastward from the Penobscot, including that of Acadia and Nova Scotia; and in 1676 Cornelius Steenwyck was appointed governor of the conquered territory by the Dutch West India Company (which see). Settlers from Boston soon afterwards expelled the Dutch. Meanwhile the horrors of King Philip's War had extended to that region, and in the space of three months one hundred persons were murdered. (See *King Philip's War*.) Then came disputes arising out of the claims of the Duke of York (to whom Charles II. had given New Netherland) to the country between the Kennebec and St. Croix rivers, which in 1683 had been constituted Cornwall County, of the Province of New York, over which Andros was made governor. (See *Andros, Sir Edmund*.) Massachusetts, however, continued to hold possession of the whole Province of Maine, excepting at Sagadahock and Pemaquid. But when the duke became king (see *James II.*) the charter of Massachusetts was forfeited, and Andros ruled Maine with cruelty. (See *Massachusetts*.) The Revolution of 1688 restored the former political status of Massachusetts, and thenceforth the history of the Province of Maine is identified with that of Massachusetts. It re-

named a part of that province until March 15, 1820, when it was admitted into the Union as the twenty-third state.

Maine, PURCHASE OF. Massachusetts claimed jurisdiction over New Hampshire and Maine, in opposition to the claims of Mason and Gorges. (See *Maine, Colonial*.) Massachusetts was called to defend her rights in the premises, but the Indian war (King Philip's) absorbed her attention. In the midst of that war (June, 1676) Edward Randolph, a kinsman of Mason, appeared in Boston with a notice from the Privy Council that unless within six months agents were sent to defend the right of Massachusetts to these provinces, judgment by default would be given for the claimants. The General Court sent (September) two commissioners (Bulkley and Stoughton), with circumscribed power, on that errand. The Privy Council decided that the patent of Massachusetts did not extend northward more than three miles beyond the Merri-mac, and consequently its claim to jurisdiction was void. Massachusetts at once, through the agency of Usher, a wealthy bookseller in Boston, purchased the territory of Maine from Gorges, with all his proprietary rights, for \$60,000. (See *Maine, Colonial*.) The king intended to purchase the territory for the Duke of Monmouth, his illegitimate son, but Massachusetts was before him and resumed jurisdiction.

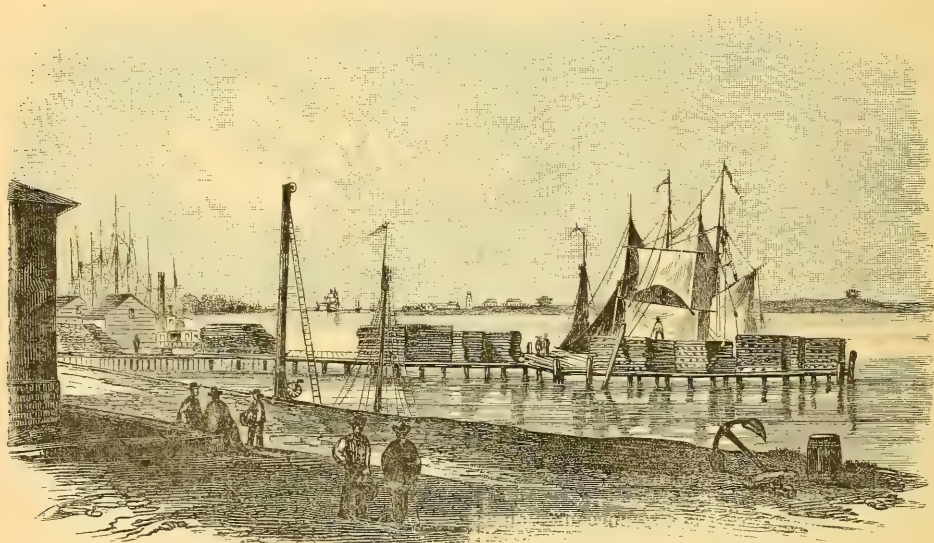
Maine, STATE OF. During the Revolution Maine was very little disturbed, but during the War of 1812 that district suffered much. The British held possession of a part of the country, but their rule was comparatively mild after

were involved in a controversy concerning the eastern boundary of Maine, which the treaty of 1783 did not accurately define. The dispute was finally settled by treaty in 1842, each party



STATE SEAL OF MAINE.

making concessions. Maine was twice invaded by Confederates during the Civil War. On the night of June 29, 1863, the officers and crew of a Confederate privateer entered the harbor of Portland, captured the revenue cutter *Caleb Cushing*, and fled to sea with her, sharply pursued by two steamers manned by armed volunteers. Finding they could not escape with the cutter, they blew her up, and taking to their boats, were soon made prisoners. At mid-day on July 18, 1864, some Confederates, led by a Mississippi Confederate captain, came from St. John, N. B., and entered Calais to rob the bank there. Having been forewarned by the American consul at St. John, the authorities were pre-



VIEW OF MALDEN IN 1861, WHERE THE BRITISH SHIPS WERE BUILT. (See p. 839.)

they gained a foothold. Maine continued to be a district of Massachusetts until 1820, when, on March 15, it was admitted into the Union as a state. For more than half a century the governments of the United States and Great Britain

pared, arrested three of the party, and frightened the remainder away. During the Civil War Maine contributed its full share of men and supplies in support of the government. In 1872 a Swedish colony was planted on the Aroos-

took, at a place called New Sweden, where, in 1873, about six hundred Swedes, aided by the state, had settled upon twenty thousand acres of land. They have their own municipal organization and schools, in which one of the chief studies is the English language. Population of Maine, 1890, 661,086.

Malden, on the Detroit River, eighteen miles below the city of Detroit and eight miles from Lake Erie, was a place of great importance, in a military point of view, during the War of 1812-15. It is on the Canadian shore, and is now called Amherstburg. There the British fleet on Lake Erie—captured by Perry in 1813—was built, and it was a rallying-place for British troops and their Indian allies. The long dock seen in the engraving on page 838 was the place where the British fleet was launched. From Malden they sailed on the morning of the battle of Lake Erie. In the winter of 1813 the British and Indians issued from Malden on the expedition that resulted in the massacre at the River Raisin. In March, while British ships were frozen in at Malden, Harrison sent an expedition to capture them at that port. They set off in sleighs, instructed to leave the latter at Middle Bass Island, and, whence, with feet muffled by moccasins, they were to make their way silently over the frozen river. But when they arrived the ice had broken up, and the expedition returned.

Mallory, STEPHEN R., was born at Trinidad, W. I., in 1810; died at Pensacola, Nov. 9, 1873. He was the son of a sea-captain of Bridgeport, Conn., who died at Key West in 1821. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar at Key



STEPHEN R. MALLORY.

West in 1833. He was appointed inspector of customs there, and a judge, and in 1845 was made collector of customs in the same place. From 1851 to 1861 he was United States Senator from Florida; and on the organization of the Confederate government in February, 1861, he was appointed Secretary of the Navy. At the close of the war he was made a state prisoner, and remained such for some time.

Malvern Hills, BATTLE AT. Malvern Hills form a high and dry plateau sloping towards Richmond from bold banks on the James River,

and bounded by deep ravines that make it an excellent defensive position. Upon that plateau the Army of the Potomac was posted, July 1, 1862, under the direction of General Barnard. General Fitz-John Porter had reached that point the day before, and placed his troops so as to command all approaches to it from Richmond or the White Oak Swamp. They were within reach of National gunboats on the James River that might prove very efficient in any battle there. The last of the Confederate trains and artillery arrived there at four o'clock in the afternoon, and in that almost impregnable position preparations were made for battle. Yet General McClellan did not consider his army safe there, for it was too far separated from his supplies; so, on the morning of July 1, he went on the *Galena* to seek for an eligible place for a base of supplies, and for an encampment for the army. During his absence on this errand the Confederates brought on a battle, which proved to be a most sanguinary one. Lee had concentrated his troops at Glendale (which see) on the morning of the 1st, but did not get ready for a full attack until late in the afternoon. He formed his line with the divisions of Generals Jackson, Ewell, Whiting, and D. H. Hill on the left (a large portion of Ewell's in reserve); Generals Magruder and Huger on the right, while the troops of A. P. Hill and Longstreet were held in reserve on the left. The latter took no part in the engagement that followed. The National line of battle was formed with Porter's corps on the left (with Sykes's division on the left and Morell's on the right), where the artillery of the reserve, under Colonel Hunt, was so disposed on high ground that a concentrated fire of sixty heavy guns could be brought to bear on any point on his front or left; and on the highest point on the hill Colonel Tyler had ten siege-guns in position. Couch's division was on Porter's right; next on the right were Hooker and Kearney; next Sedgwick and Richardson; next Smith and Slocum; and then the remainder of Keyes's corps, extending in a curve nearly to the river. The Pennsylvania Reserves (which see) were in the rear of Porter and Couch as a reserve. Lee resolved to carry Malvern Hills by storm, and concentrated his artillery so as to silence that of the Nationals; when, with a shout, two divisions were to charge and carry a battery before them. This shout was to be a signal for a general advance with bayonets to "drive the invaders into the James." This programme was not carried out. When, late in the afternoon, a heavy artillery fire was opened on Couch and Kearney, A. P. Hill, believing that he heard the shout, advanced to the attack, but found himself unsupported. A single battery was "playing on the Yankees," instead of 200 great guns as had been promised. That battery was soon demolished, and the Confederates driven back in confusion to the woods, when the Nationals advanced several hundred yards to a better position. Meanwhile Magruder and Huger had made a strong attack on Porter at the left. Two brigades (Kershaw's and Semmes's) of McLaws's division charged through a dense

wood up to Porter's guns; and a similar dash was made by Wright, Mahone, and Anderson farther to the right, and by Barksdale nearer the centre; but all were repulsed, and for a while there was a lull in the storm of battle. Then Lee ordered another assault on the batteries. His columns rushed from the woods over the open fields to capture the batteries and "carry the hill." They were met by a deadly fire of musketry and great guns; and as one brigade recoiled another was pushed forward, with a seeming recklessness of life, under the circumstances. At about seven o'clock in the evening, while fresh troops under Jackson were pressing the Nationals sorely, Sickles's brigade, of Hooker's division, and Meagher's Irish brigade, of Richardson's division, were ordered up to their support. At the same time the gunboats on the James River, full 150 feet below, were hurling heavy shot and shell among the Confederates with terrible effect, their range being directed by officers of the signal corps on the hill. The conflict was furious and destructive, and did not cease until almost nine o'clock at night, when the Confederates were driven to the shelter of the woods, ravines, and swamps, their ranks shattered and broken. The victory for the Nationals was decisive. The victorious generals were anxious to follow up the advantage and push right on to Richmond, eighteen miles distant; but General McClellan, who came upon the battle-ground on the right when the final contest was raging furiously on the left, issued an order, immediately after the repulse of the Confederates, for the victorious army to "fall back still farther," to Harrison's Landing, on the James, a few miles below, and then returned to the *Galena*, on which he had spent a greater part of the day. The order produced consternation and dissatisfaction, but was obeyed. The battle at Malvern Hills was the last of the series of severe conflicts before Richmond in the course of seven days. In these conflicts the aggregate losses of the Nationals were reported by McClellan to be 15,249. Of that number 1582 were killed, 7709 wounded, and 5958 missing.

Manassas, BATTLE OF, or SECOND BATTLE OF BULL'S RUN, was fought near the battle-ground of the first engagement at Bull's Run, Aug. 30, 1862. Pope, after the Battle at Groveton (which see), found his army greatly reduced in numbers—only about 40,000. It had failed to keep Lee and Jackson apart, and it was now decidedly the weaker party. Prudence counselled a retreat to Bull's Run, or even to the defences of Washington; but Pope resolved to try the issue of another battle. He expected rations and forage from McClellan, at Alexandria, but was disappointed. When it became clear that he would receive no aid from McClellan, he had no other alternative than to fight or surrender, so he put his line into V shape on the morning of the 30th of August. Lee made a movement which gave Pope the impression that the Confederates were retreating, and the latter telegraphed to Washington to that effect. He ordered a pursuit. When, at ten o'clock, an attempt was made to execute this order, a fearful state of things was

developed. The eminence near Groveton was found to be swarming with Confederates, who, instead of retreating, had been massing under cover of the forest, in preparation for an offensive movement. They opened a furious fire on the front of the Nationals, and at the same time made a heavy flank movement. Porter's corps, which had been made to recoil by the first unexpected blow, rallied, and performed specially good service. Ricketts meanwhile had hastened to the left. By the disposition of Reynolds's corps to meet the flank movement, Porter's key-point had been uncovered, but the place of Reynolds had been quickly supplied by a thousand men under Warren. The battle became very severe, and for a while victory seemed to incline towards the Nationals, for Jackson's advanced line was steadily pushed back until five o'clock in the afternoon. Then Longstreet turned the tide. With four batteries, he poured a most destructive fire from Jackson's right, and line after line of Nationals was swept away. Very soon the whole of Pope's left was put to flight, when Jackson advanced, and Longstreet pushed his heavy columns against Pope's centre. At the same time Lee's artillery was doing fearful execution upon Pope's disordered infantry. Darkness alone put an end to the fearful struggle. Although pushed back some distance, the National left was still unbroken, and held the Warrenton turnpike, by which alone the Nationals might safely retreat. Pope had no other safe alternative than to fall back towards the defences of Washington. At eight o'clock in the evening he issued orders to that effect, and during the night the whole army withdrew across Bull's Run to the heights of Centreville, the troops under Meade and Seymour covering the movement. The night was very dark, and Lee, fortunately, did not pursue.

Manassas Junction. When, at the close of April, 1861, the Confederates were satisfied that the National government and the loyal people of the country were resolved to maintain the authority and integrity of the Republic, they put forward extraordinary efforts to strike a deadly blow by seizing the capital before it should be too late. There was great enthusiasm among the young men of the South. They read on the telegraph bulletin-boards the call of the President for 75,000 men, and received the announcement with derisive laughter and cheers for "Old Abe the Rail-splitter." Few believed there would be war. One of their chroniclers avers that companies were quickly formed from among the wealthiest of the youths, and that 200,000 volunteers could have been organized within a month, if they had been called for. The enthusiasm of the young men was shared by the other sex. Banners of costly materials were made by clubs of young women and delivered to the companies with appropriate speeches—the young men on such occasions swearing that they would perish rather than desert the flag thus consecrated. Regarding the whole matter as a lively pastime, many of these companies dressed in the most costly attire, and bore the most expensive rifles, but grave men tried to

undecieve them. Jefferson Davis wrote to a Mississippi friend, telling him that hardships and privations awaited these young men, and advising them to use the commonest materials for clothing. He recommended all volunteers to dress in gray-flannel coats and light-blue cotton pantaloons, for summer was approaching. The Confederates chose as their grand rallying-place, preparatory to a march on Washington, Manassas Junction, a point on the Orange and Alexandria Railway, where another joins it from Manassas Gap, in the Blue Ridge. It is about twenty-five miles west from Alexandria, and thirty miles in a direct line from Washington city. It was an admirable strategic point, as it commanded the grand southern railway route connecting Washington and Richmond, and another leading to the fertile Shenandoah valley, beyond the Blue Ridge. General Scott had been advised to take possession of that point, but he declined; and while the veteran soldier was preparing for a defensive campaign the opportunity was lost. At Manassas Junction, large numbers of Confederate troops were soon gathered, under the command of General Beauregard.

Mandamus Councillors. An act for remodelling the government of Massachusetts was put in force on the 1st of August, 1774, and under it Governor Gage appointed a council by writ of mandamus. Most of those appointed accepted the office and were sworn in. They became at once objects of bitter public odium. The new government was denounced vehemently, and in some parts of the province with violence. The "Mandamus Councillors" were treated as enemies of their country by the patriots. In Boston, juries refused to serve, lest by consenting to act they should recognize the authority of the new government. It was not long before most of the "Mandamus Councillors" were compelled to take shelter under a resignation to escape popular resentment.

Manhattan Island, the site of the city of New York, was so named by the Dutch after a tribe of Indians which they first found there, who were called Manna-hatans. The popular story that the name signifies "place of drunkenness," and that it was given because there the Indians were made drunk by Verazzani (1524) or Hudson (1609), is apocryphal. When Peter Minnits came to New Netherlands as governor (1626), he purchased the island of the natives for the Dutch West India Company for the value of sixty guilders (about \$24), and paid for it in cheap trinkets, hatchets, knives, etc. About 1612, Captain Hendrick Christiansen carried some rabbits and goats from Holland to Manhattan, but they were poisoned by the herbage growing there, and it was a long time before any domestic animals were seen on the island excepting cats and dogs. In the winter of 1613-14, Captain Block built a ship there—the beginning of the merchant marine of New York—and there the first permanent settlers within the domain of New York State first landed. The purchase of Manhattan Island by the Dutch from the Indians was an event in history as important and

as creditable to the honesty of the purchasers as was the treaty of William Penn, which painters and poets have delighted to celebrate.

Manifesto of British Commissioners (1778). The commissioners appointed under North's Conciliatory Act (which see), after fair and unfair efforts to accomplish their ends, were completely discomfited, and before leaving for England issued an angry and threatening manifesto (Oct. 3, 1778) addressed not to Congress only, but to the state legislatures and the people, charging upon Congress the responsibility of continuing the war; offering to the assemblies separately the terms already proposed to Congress; reminding the soldiers that Great Britain had already conceded all points originally in dispute; suggesting to the clergy that the French were papists; appealing to all lovers of peace not to suffer a few ambitious men to subject the country to the miseries of unnecessary warfare; allowing forty days for submission; and threatening, if this offer should be rejected, the desolation of the country as a future leading object of the war. This manifesto Congress caused to be printed, with a counter-manifesto by that body, and other comments calculated to neutralize the proclamation of the commissioners. Because the commissioners spoke disparagingly of France, Lafayette, in spite of the remonstrances of Washington and D'Estaing, sent Lord Carlisle, one of the commissioners, a challenge to mortal combat. The earl politely declined, saying he was responsible for his acts only to his sovereign.

Manifesto of the Continental Congress. The colonists had been compelled to take up arms in self-defence. To justify this act, Congress agreed to a manifesto (July 6, 1775), in which they set forth the causes and necessity of their taking up arms. After a temperate but spirited preamble, presenting an historical view of the origin, progress, and conduct of the colonies, and of the measures of the British government towards them since 1763, they specified the various acts of Parliament which were oppressive to the colonies. Having reverted to their fruitless petition to the throne and remonstrances to Parliament; to the unprovoked attack of British troops on the inhabitants of Massachusetts at Lexington and Concord; to the proclamation declaring the people of the colonies to be in a state of rebellion; to the events at Breed's Hill and the burning of Charlestown, the manifesto proceeded: "Our cause is just. Our union is perfect. Our internal resources are great, and, if necessary, foreign assistance is undoubtedly attainable." After acknowledging the evidence of divine favor towards the colonists by not permitting them to be called into this controversy until they had grown strong and disciplined by experience to defend themselves, the manifesto most solemnly declared that the colonists, having been compelled by their enemies to take up arms, they would, in defiance of every hazard, "with unabating powers and perseverance, employ for the preservation of their liberties all the means at their

command, being with one mind resolved to die freemen rather than live slaves." Disclaiming all intention of separating from Great Britain and establishing independent states, they declared that having been forced to take up arms, they should lay them down when hostilities should cease on the part of the aggressors, and all danger of their being made slaves should disappear. In that manifesto the united colonies cast at the feet of their blinded sovereign the gauntlet of defiance.

Manifesto of the Prince Regent. In consequence of the insanity of George III., George, Prince of Wales (afterwards George IV.) was created by Parliament regent of the kingdom. The act for that purpose passed Feb. 5, 1811,



THE PRINCE REGENT—GEORGE IV

and from that time until the death of his father, George Augustus Frederick was acting monarch as prince regent. On the 9th of January, 1813, he issued from the royal palace at Westminster a manifesto concerning the causes of the war and the subjects of blockades and impressments. He declared the war was not the consequence of any fault of Great Britain, but that it had been brought on by the partial conduct of the American government in overlooking the aggressions of the French, and in their negotiations with them. He alleged that a quarrel with Great Britain had been sought because she had adopted measures solely retaliatory as to France, and that as these measures had been abandoned by a repeal of the Orders in Council, the war was now continued on the questions of impressment and search. On this point he took such a decisive position that the door for negotiation which the recommendation of the committee of the American Congress on Foreign Relations proposed to open seemed irrevocably shut. "His royal highness," said the manifesto, "can never admit that the exercise of the undoubted and hitherto undisputed right of searching neutral merchant vessels in time of war, and the impressment of British seamen when found

therein, can be deemed any violation of a neutral flag; neither can he admit that the taking of such seamen from on board such vessels can be considered by any neutral state as a hostile measure or a justifiable cause of war." After reaffirming the old English doctrine of the impossibility of self-expatriation of a British subject, the manifesto continued: "But if to the practice of the United States to harbor British seamen be added their asserted right to transfer the allegiance of British subjects, and thus to cancel the jurisdiction of their legitimate sovereign by acts of naturalization and certificates of citizenship, which they pretend to be as valid out of their own territory as within it, it is obvious that to abandon this ancient right of Great Britain, and to admit these naval pretensions of the United States, would be to expose the very foundations of our maritime strength." The manifesto charged the United States government with systematic efforts to inflame the people against Great Britain; of ungenerous conduct towards Spain, Great Britain's ally, and of deserting the cause of neutrality. He spoke of the subserviency of the United States to the ruler of France, and against this course of conduct the prince regent solemnly protested. He thought that while Great Britain was contending for the liberties of mankind, she had a right to expect from the United States far different treatment—not an "abettor of French tyranny."

Manley, JOHN, was born at Torbay, England, in 1733; died in Boston, Feb. 12, 1793. He became a seaman in early life; settled in Marblehead; commanded a vessel in the merchant service before the revolution, and was commissioned captain in the naval service by Washington in the fall of 1775. He soon captured in Boston harbor, with the schooner *Lee*, three valuable prizes laden with heavy guns, mortars, and intrenching tools, much wanted by the patriots besieging Boston. In August, 1776, Congress commissioned him captain, and placed him in command of the frigate *Hancock*, 32 guns, in which he captured the British man-of-war *Fox*. The *Hancock* was captured in July, 1777, and Manley was a prisoner during nearly the whole of the war. In September, 1782, he commanded the frigate *Hague*, and cruised in the West Indies.

Mann, HORACE, LL.D., was born at Franklin, Mass., May 4, 1796; died at Yellow Springs, Ohio, Aug. 2, 1859. He graduated at Brown University in 1819; studied law at Litchfield, Conn., and began its practice at Dedham in 1823; was a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives from 1823 to 1833, and of the Senate from 1833 to 1837. He was always distinguished for his efforts to promote popular education and temperance. He made Boston his residence in 1833, and from 1837 to 1848 was Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. He effected salutary changes in the system of education in Massachusetts and in the laws pertaining to it, and in 1843 he visited Europe to examine the educational systems there. From 1848 to 1853 he was the successor of John Quincy Adams in

Congress, and, like him, advocated measures for the extinction of slavery in the Republic. From 1852 until his death he was President of Antioch College, Ohio. Dr. Mann's annual reports on education deservedly rank high, and some of them were highly extolled in Europe.

Mansfield, JOSEPH KING FENNO, was born at New Haven, Conn., Dec. 22, 1803; died of wounds received at Antietam, Sept. 18, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1822, and entered the Engineers. He served as chief-engineer under General Taylor in the war against Mexico, and was breveted colonel for his good services there. In 1853 he was inspector-general, with the rank of colonel; and in May, 1861, he was made brigadier-general and placed in command of the Department of Washington, and, for a while, that of Virginia. General Mansfield thoroughly fortified the National capital, and, after various efficient services, took command of the corps formerly under General Banks. With that he went into the battle of Antietam, and was mortally wounded early in the day.

Marauders in Delaware Bay. (See *Amphibious Warfare*.) Commodore Beresford was sent by Admiral Cockburn with the *Poictiers*, *Belvidera*, and some smaller vessels to teach the inhabitants along the shores of Delaware Bay the duty of submission. He found his intended pupils refractory. When he pointed the guns of the *Poictiers* towards the village of Lewes (March 16, 1813), near Cape Henlopen, and said, in a note which he sent to the magistrates, "You must send me twenty live bullocks, with a proportionate quantity of vegetables and hay, for the use of his Britannic Majesty's squadron," offering to pay for them, but threatening to destroy the place in case of refusal, he was astonished to have the magistrates and people answer, "We solemnly refuse to commit legal or moral treason at your command. Do your worst!" The people, forewarned, had fully prepared to receive the invaders at any point. This was the spirit manifested everywhere along the shores of the bay. At Smyrna, Dover, New Castle, and Wilmington the people turned out with spades or muskets, to cast up fortifications or fight. At Wilmington the venerable soldier of the Revolution, Allan McLane, took the direction of military affairs. Beresford was astonished at the spirit of the people. He continued to threaten and hesitate. On the 23d of March he appeared before Lewes and repeated his demand and threat, and received the positive refusal of the people to comply with his requisition. At length, on April 6, Captain Byron was sent with the *Belvidera* and some smaller vessels to attack the town. The militia were out in force, under the command of Colonel S. B. Davis. Byron sent word to the latter that he regretted that the refusal would cause the infliction of so

much misery on the women and children of the village. "Colonel Davis will take care of the ladies," was the prompt reply. The town was then cannonaded and bombarded for twenty-four hours. Notwithstanding eighteen hundred 18- and 24-pound shot and many bomb-shells and Congreve rockets were hurled at the village, not much damage was done, and not a life was lost. The shells did not reach the village, while the rockets passed over it. A few houses were injured by the round shot. Meanwhile Davis's militia, well supplied with powder sent down from Wilmington by Dupont, had kept up a lively response to the cannonading with a battery on an eminence. The most dangerous of the British gunboats was disabled and its guns silenced. On the 7th a party of British attempted to land and seize some live-stock, when the militia drove them back to their ships. Beresford lingered in the Delaware for a month, but failing to obtain any supplies, he sailed with his squadron for Bermuda, where Admiral Warren was fitting out reinforcements for his fleet in American waters.

Marauding on the Southern Shores of Lake Ontario. A British squadron on Lake Ontario hovered along its southern shores in the summer of 1813 and seriously interfered with supplies on their way to the American camp on the Niagara. They captured (June 12, 1813) two vessels laden with hospital stores at Eighteen-mile Creek, eastward of the Niagara River. They made a descent upon the village of Charlotte, situated at the mouth of the Genesee River, on the 15th, and carried off a large quantity of stores. On the 18th they appeared off Sodus Bay, and the next evening an armed party, one hundred strong, landed at Sodus Point for the purpose of destroying American stores known to have been deposited there. These had been removed to a place of concealment a little back of the village. The invaders threatened to destroy the village if the hid-



DESTRUCTION AT SODUS BAY.

ing-place of the stores was not revealed. The women and children fled from their homes in alarm. A negro, compelled by threats, gave the

desired information; and they were marching in the direction of the stores, when they were confronted at a bridge over a ravine by forty men under Captain Turner. A sharp skirmish ensued. The British were foiled, and as they returned to their vessels they burned the public storehouses, five dwellings, and a hotel. The property destroyed at Sodun was valued at \$25,000. The marauders then sailed eastward, and looked into Oswego harbor, but Sir James Yeo, their cautious commander, did not venture to go in.

Marbois, FRANÇOIS, Marquis of Barbé-Marbois, was born at Metz, Jan. 31, 1745; died Jan. 14, 1837. He was tutor to the children of Castries, the French Minister of Marine, through whose influence he obtained (1779) the appointment to the post of Secretary of Legation to the United States during the Revolution. By his learning and talents he became the principal agent in the most important operations of the embassy while Luzerne was minister. After the return of the latter Marbois remained as chargé d'affaires, and resided in America until 1785, arranging all the French consulates. He was afterwards appointed Intendent of Santo Domingo, and returned to France in 1790, when he was sent as ambassador to the German Diet. Having offended the ruling party in the course of the fierce French Revolution, he was condemned to exile at Cayenne. On his return, Bonaparte, then First Consul, nominated him as the first councillor of state, and in 1801 he was made Secretary of the Treasury. He successfully negotiated the sale of Louisiana to the United States in 1803. He served in conspicuous positions in civil life, and was among the first of the senators who voted for the deposition of Napoleon in 1814. Louis XVIII. created him a peer and made him keeper of the seals in 1815. Soon after that he was created a marquis. On Napoleon's return from Elba, Marbois was ordered to quit Paris. After the revolution of July, 1830, he took the oath of allegiance to Louis Philippe.

March of Public Sentiment. On March 6, 1857, Roger B. Taney, Chief-justice of the United States, and a majority of his associates on the bench of the Supreme Court of the Republic, uttered an extra-judicial opinion, that any person who had been a slave, or was a descendant of a slave, could not enjoy the rights of citizenship in the United States. Five years afterwards (1862) the Secretary of State (Mr. Seward) issued a passport to a man who had been a slave to travel abroad as "a citizen of the United States." Six years later still (July 20, 1868) the national Constitution was so amended that all persons, of whatever race or color, born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside. By the same amendment every civil right was given to every such person. And by a subsequent amendment (1869) it was decreed that "the rights of any of the citizens of the United States, or any state, on account of race, color,

or previous condition of servitude should not be abridged." A great change in ten years.

Marcy, WILLIAM LEARNED, was born at Southbridge, Mass., Dec. 12, 1786; died at Ballston Spa, N. Y., July 4, 1857. He graduated at Brown University in 1808, and taught school at Newport, R. I., for a while. He began the practice of law in Troy, N. Y., and, as an officer of militia, volunteered his services in the War of 1812. He had the honor of taking the first prisoners captured on land, by seizing (Oct. 22, 1812) a corps of Canadian militia at St. Regis, N. Y. Their flag was the first trophy of the kind captured during the war. In 1816 Captain Marcy was Recorder of Troy, and he edited the *Troy Budget*, a leading Democratic newspaper. In 1821 he was adjutant-general of the state, and state comptroller in 1823. He was made Associate-justice of the New York Supreme Court in 1829; was United States Senator from 1831 to 1833; and governor of the state from 1833 to 1839. From 1839 to 1842 he was a commissioner to decide upon the claims of the Mexican government, and from 1845 to 1849 he was Secretary of War. Governor Marcy opposed all interference with slavery. He was Secretary of State from 1853 to 1857, while the subject of slavery was in fearful agitation. He was a plain man, possessed of a clear mind, good judgment, and great integrity. Governor Marcy was the author of the political maxim, "To the victor belong the spoils."

Marion and the British Officer. A young British officer was sent from Georgetown to Marion's camp, on Snow's Island, to treat concerning prisoners. From the picket-guard he was led, blindfolded, to the camp of Marion. There he first saw the diminutive form of the great partisan leader, his rough followers lounging in ease around him. When their business was concluded Marion invited the officer to dine with him. He remained. To his utter astonishment, he saw some roasted potatoes brought forward on a piece of bark, of which the general partook freely and invited his guest to do the same. "Surely, general," said the officer, "this cannot be your ordinary fare!" "Indeed it is," replied Marion, "and we are fortunate on this occasion, entertaining company, to have more than our usual allowance." It is said that the young officer, on his return to Georgetown, gave up his commission, declaring that such a people could not be, and ought not to be, subdued.

Marion, FRANCIS, was born near Georgetown, S. C., in 1732; died Feb. 29, 1793. At the age of sixteen, while on a voyage to the West Indies, the vessel in which he sailed foundered at sea, and he was rescued only when several of the crew, who, with himself, had taken to the boat, had died of starvation. Working on a farm until 1759, that year he joined an expedition against the Cherokees. In 1761 he was made a captain, under Colonel Grant. He led the forlorn-hope in the battle of Etchowee, and was among the few who escaped death. On the breaking-out of the Revolution, Marion was

elected to the South Carolina Provincial Congress; became a captain of Provincial troops; served as major in defence of Fort Sullivan; and was lieutenant-colonel of his regiment at



FRANCIS MARION.

Savannah (1779) and at the siege of Charleston. Appointed a brigadier-general in 1780, he began his famous partisan career with only sixteen men. After the war he married a wealthy lady of Huguenot descent (Mary Videan), and in time became a State Senator. In 1790 he was a member of the State Constitutional Convention. Small in stature, reserved, and very modest, he was exceedingly captivating in manner. His residence was at Pond Bluff, on the Santee, near Nelson's Ferry. It was built by himself



MARION'S RESIDENCE.

soon after his marriage, and there he and his young wife dispensed most generous hospitality. She survived him many years.

Marion's Brigade. Francis Marion, who had been a soldier in the French and Indian War, became a famous partisan leader in the war for independence. He raised a company; served as major in the defence of Fort Sullivan (June, 1776); and after many daring exploits with a partisan band—a few ragged followers as grotesque in appearance as any led by Falstaff—he was made a brigadier-general (July, 1780) by Governor Rutledge, of South Carolina. He appeared in the camp of Gates with only sixteen men; and while there the people of Williamsburg district, having risen in arms, sent for him to be their leader. Before he left, Rutledge gave

him the commission of brigadier; and soon afterwards he organized his *brigade*, which became so famous in the partisan warfare in the South. It was the only military force in the field, after the defeat of Gates, that defied British power in South Carolina.

Marion's Camp on Snow's Island (1780). Marion and his brigade (which see) achieved victory after victory over bands of Tories and British among the swamps of the Santee, and late in October they pushed forward to assail the British garrison at Georgetown, on Winyaw Bay, for the purpose of obtaining necessary supplies. This was an unusual and serious undertaking for them. The garrison was on the alert, and in a severe skirmish with a large party near the town Marion was repulsed. He then retired to Snow's Island, at the confluence of Lynch's Creek and the Pedee River, where, in a most secluded spot, he fixed his camp and strengthened its natural defences. It was chiefly high river swamp, covered with forest trees and abounding with game. From that swamp fastness the partisan sent out or led expeditions which, for many weeks, accomplished marvellous results by celerity of movements, stealthiness of approaches to the enemy, and the suddenness and fierceness of the blows. It was in allusion to these movements that Bryant wrote in his *Song of Marion's Men*:

"A moment in the British camp—
A moment—and away,
Back to the pathless forest,
Before the break of day"

The British became thoroughly alarmed, and the destruction of Marion's camp became, with them, an object of vital importance. That work was accomplished in the spring of 1781. During his absence some Tories penetrated to the camp, dispersed the little garrison, destroyed the provisions and stores found there, and fled. (See *Marion and the British Officer.*)

Marion's Exploit near Nelson's Ferry. Marion had gathered many partisans to his standard while Cornwallis was carrying out his reign of terror in South Carolina. "Colonel Marion," wrote Cornwallis, "so wrought on the minds of the people that there was scarcely an inhabitant between the Santee and Pedee that was not in arms against us." Some parties even crossed the Santee and carried terror to the gates of Charleston. One of the earliest of Marion's great exploits was near Nelson's Ferry, on the Santee, on Aug. 20, 1780, two days after Williams's exploit at Musgrove's Mill. At dawn on that day a British party, with one hundred and fifty prisoners of the Maryland line, captured from Gates near Camden (see *Gates, Horatio*), were crossing at the great savannah, near the ferry, on the route from Camden to Charleston, when Marion and his men sprang upon the guard, liberated the prisoners, and captured twenty-six of the escort.

Marquette, JACQUES, was a French missionary and explorer. He was born at Laon, France, in 1637, and died May 18, 1675. In his youth he entered the order of Jesuits, and at the age

of twenty-nine years sailed for Canada as a missionary. After residing eighteen months at Three Rivers, on the St. Lawrence, learning the dialects of the Montagnais and other Indian tribes—also the Huron and Iroquois—he went to Lake Superior in 1668, and founded a mission at Saut de St. Marie, or Falls of St. Mary, at the outlet of the lake. The next year he was sent to take the place of Allouez (which see) among the Ottawas and Hurons, but these tribes were soon afterwards dispersed by the Sioux, and he returned with the Hurons to Mackinaw, near the strait that connects lakes Michigan and Huron, where he built a chapel and established the mission of St. Ignatius. Hearing of the Mississippi River, he resolved to find it, and in 1669 he prepared for the exploration of that stream, when he received orders to join Joliet in a thorough exploration of the whole course of the great river. With that explorer and five others they left Mackinaw in two canoes in May, 1673, and, reaching the Wisconsin River by way of Green Bay, Fox River, and a portage, they floated down that stream to the Mississippi, where they arrived June 17. Near the mouth of the Ohio River savages told them it was not more than ten days' journey to the sea. Voyaging down the great river until they were satisfied, when at the mouth of the Arkansas River, that the Mississippi emptied into the Gulf of Mexico, and not into the Atlantic or Pacific Ocean, they concluded to return, to avoid captivity among the Spaniards farther south. They had accomplished their errand, and travelled in open canoes over two thousand five hundred miles. Passing up the Illinois River instead of the Wisconsin, they reached Green Bay in September. There, at a mission, Marquette was detained a whole year by sickness. In 1674 he sent an account of his explorations of the Mississippi to Dablon, the superior of the Jesuit mission in Canada, and set out on a journey to Kaskaskia, but was compelled, by his infirmities and severely cold weather in December, to stop at the portage on the Chicago, and there he spent the winter. At the close of March, 1675, he resumed his journey, reached Kaskaskia in April, erected a chapel, and celebrated the Easter festival in it. Warned by his infirmities that his life was near its end, he soon attempted to return to Mackinaw. He crossed Lake Michigan to its eastern shore, and entering the mouth of a small stream that bore his name long afterwards, he prepared to die there. His attendants (two Frenchmen) bore him tenderly to a bed of leaves in the shadows of the forest. Then asking for some holy water which he had prepared, and taking a crucifix from his neck, and placing it in the hand of one of his companions, he desired him to keep it constantly before his eyes while he lived. With clasped hands, he pronounced aloud the profession of his faith, and soon afterwards died. His companions buried him near, and erected a cross at his grave. His remains were afterwards taken to Mackinaw, where they still repose.

Marriage Ceremonies among the Indians of the Gulf Region. When a young chief was

inclined to marry, he would send his wisest men to select from the daughters of the best families one of the youngest and most beautiful of the marriageable ones. The chosen bride was then gorgeously painted and decorated preparatory to the nuptials. Brilliant colors and costly pearls and shells adorned her person. From her waist to her knees she was covered with a tunic of beautiful feathers. Then she was placed in a Sedan chair, covered with a canopy of boughs, festooned and garlanded with flowers. In that state she was conveyed to the presence of her future husband on the shoulders of six noblemen, who were preceded by musicians and men bearing magnificent fans, and followed by dancing-girls and the immediate relatives of the bride. She was received by the lords in waiting, and conducted to the side of the groom, on an elevated dais, while great pomp was displayed by all in attendance. The bride and groom were continually fanned by beautiful maidens if the weather was warm, and they were regaled with the unfermented juice of the grape in its season, or with a kind of sherbet made of orange-juice at other times. Near sun-setting the chief and his bride walked into an open field, followed by all the people, and at the last parting ray of the luminary they prostrated themselves towards the west, and invoked the blessings of the sun upon themselves and upon their children. (See *Sun-worshippers*.) From that moment until the stars appeared the people indulged in music and dancing—the music of the reed and a sort of tambourine, and the dancing of young men and maidens—when the chief and his bride retired to their dwelling, there, with friends, to partake of a marriage feast by the light of lamps.

Marseillaise Hymn Parodied. This stirring hymn of the French Revolution was parodied, and sung all over the "Confederate States" at social gatherings, at places of amusement, and in the camps of the "Confederacy" during the early stages of the Civil War. The following is the closing stanza of the parody:

"With needy, starving mobs surrounded,
The zealous, blind fanatics dare
To offer, in their zeal unbounded,
Our happy slaves their tender care.
The South, though deepest wrongs bewailing,
Long yielded all to *Union's* name;
But *Independence* now we claim,
And all their threats are unavailing.
"To arms! to arms! ye brave!
Th' avenging sword unsheathe!
March on! march on!
All hearts resolved
On victory or death!"

The allusion to "starving mobs" was in accordance with the erroneous belief, engendered by misrepresentations of Southern politicians and newspapers, about the "starving and riotous condition of the working-classes in the North." At that time this class, in only three of the New England states (Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut), had \$137,000,000 on deposit in savings-banks.

Marshall, HUMPHREY, was born at Frankfort, Ky., Jan. 13, 1812; died at Louisville, Ky., March 29, 1872. He graduated at West Point

in 1832, and resigned the next year. He served as colonel of cavalry, under General Taylor, in the war against Mexico, leading a charge at Buena Vista. He was in Congress from 1849 to 1852, and from 1855 to 1859, and was sent as commissioner to China. Espousing the cause of the Secessionists, he became a Confederate general, and was defeated by General Garfield at Prestonburg, Ky., in January, 1862. He was afterwards under General Kirby Smith.—Another Humphrey Marshall was a Kentucky pioneer in 1780, and died in Lexington, Ky., July 1, 1841. He served many years in the State Legislature, and from 1795 to 1801 was United States Senator. He was the author of the first history of Kentucky.

Marshall, JOHN, LL.D., was born at Germantown, Fauquier Co., Va., Sept. 24, 1755; died in Philadelphia, July 6, 1835. His father (Thomas) led a regiment that bore the brunt of battle with Cornwallis near the banks of the Brandywine



JOHN MARSHALL.

(Sept. 11, 1777). In early youth John obtained some classical education—not at college—and at the breaking-out of the war for independence he entered the military service as lieutenant of a company. He had formerly led some Virginia militia against Dunmore's troops in the battle of Great Bridge (which see). He, too, was in the battle at the Brandywine; also at Germantown and Monmouth. He left the military service in 1781, and began the practice of law, for which profession he had studied. He soon attained eminence. He was in the Virginia Convention that ratified the national Constitution, in which he distinguished himself by his eloquence and logic. He became a distinguished member of the Virginia Assembly. President Washington offered Marshall the position of Attorney-general, but he declined. On the return of Monroe from France, Washington offered the mission to Marshall, but it was declined. He afterwards accepted the position of special envoy to France from President Adams, and was associated in that mission with Messrs. Pinckney and Gerry. That mission proved fruitless. In 1799 Mr. Marshall was in the national Congress, and in 1800 was made Secretary of War, which office he held only a short time. He succeeded Timothy Pick-

ering as Secretary of State (May 3, 1800), and on the resignation of Chief-justice Ellsworth he was appointed his successor (June 1, 1801), and held the office until his death, thirty-four years afterwards. Chief-justice Marshall was President of the American Colonization Society and Vice-President of the American Bible Society. He was also the author of a *Life of Washington* published in five volumes in 1805. He also wrote a *History of the Colonies Planted by the British in North America*.

Martin, FRANÇOIS XAVIER, LL.D., was born at Marseilles, France, March 17, 1762; died at New Orleans, Dec. 10, 1846. He came to North Carolina in 1782, where he taught French, learned printing, and established a newspaper. He also published almanacs and school-books, studied law, and began its practice in 1789. Jefferson appointed him a judge of the Mississippi Territory, and he was made Attorney-general of the State of Louisiana in 1813. In 1815 he was made Judge of the Supreme Court of Louisiana, and remained a justice thirty-two years. He was chief-justice from 1837 to 1845.

Martin, GOVERNOR JOSIAH, FLIGHT OF. This royal governor became extremely obnoxious to the people of North Carolina by his attempts to thwart the patriotic movements. He denounced the Provincial Congress, and announced his determination to use all the means in his power to counteract their influence. Finding the Assembly firm in their stand against him, he dissolved them (April 8, 1775). Soon after this a letter from the governor to General Gage, asking for a supply of men and ammunition, was intercepted. The people were greatly exasperated. The Committee of Safety at New Berne seized and carried off six cannons which he had placed in front of the "palace" there. News of hostile preparations reached the governor's ears from every quarter. Becoming alarmed for his personal safety, he fled to Fort Johnson (June 14), on the Cape Fear River, near Wilmington, whence he sent forth (June 16) a menacing proclamation. A plot for a servile insurrection was discovered in July. It was supposed the governor had planned it, and the indignant people determined to demolish Fort Johnson, and not allow Martin to make it a stronghold. Five hundred of them, led by John Ashe, marched on the fort. The governor fled to the sloop-of-war *Cruiser*, lying in the river, and the people demolished the fort. The patriots disarmed the Tories, and confined as prisoners, on their plantations, those who were most obnoxious, and the Continental Congress voted to sustain the Whigs in North Carolina with a force of one thousand men. They prepared to hold a new convention, when Martin, from on shipboard, issued a proclamation forbidding the meeting, and making accusations against the patriots. The Whigs denounced it as "a malicious and scandalous libel, tending to disunite the good people of the province," and it was burned by the common hangman. They authorized the raising of three regiments. Martin never returned. So ended royal rule in North Carolina.

Martin, LUTHER, LL.D., was born at New Brunswick, N. J., in 1744; died in New York, July 10, 1826. He graduated at Princeton in 1766; taught school at Queenstown, Md.; was admitted to the bar in 1771, and soon obtained a lucrative practice in Maryland. He was a decided patriot, but was not found in public office until 1778, when he was attorney-general. He had been a member of a committee to oppose the claims of Great Britain in 1774, and wrote essays and made addresses on the topics of the day. In 1784-85 he was in Congress, and was a member of the convention which framed the national Constitution, the adoption of which he opposed, because it did not sufficiently recognize the equality of the states. Mr. Martin was a defender of Judge Chase when he was impeached, and in 1807 he was one of the successful defenders of Aaron Burr, in his trial for treason, at Richmond. Burr was his personal friend. In 1813 Mr. Martin was made Chief-justice of the Court of Oyer and Terminer in Baltimore, and in 1818 he again became Attorney-general of Maryland. He was struck with paralysis in 1820, and in 1822 he took refuge with Aaron Burr in New York, broken in health and fortune. Mr. Martin was a violent political partisan, and savagely attacked Jefferson and the Democratic party.

Martindale, JOHN HENRY, was born at Sandy Hill, N. Y., March 20, 1815. He graduated at West Point in 1835; left the army the next year, and became a civil engineer, and finally practised law in western New York. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, and served in the Army of the Potomac, in the campaign of 1862, under General Fitz-John Porter. He was in the Army of the James, and also in the Army of the Potomac in the campaign against Richmond, commanding (in July and September, 1864) the Eighteenth Army Corps. He resigned in 1864, and was made Attorney-general of New York in 1866. Died Dec. 13, 1881.

Martin's Proclamation. Governor Josiah Martin, of North Carolina, was driven on board the *Cruiser*, a British man-of-war in the Cape Fear River, by the exasperated people. They burned Fort Johnson before his face. He issued a proclamation, in which he stigmatized the Whigs as traitors to the king; denounced all their public movements—such as the Mecklenburg Convention, the Provincial Congress at Hillsborough—and in an incoherent manner made various false accusations, and threatened the insurgents with the wrath of the king, while offering pardon for all past outrages to those who should return to the allegiance. The Convention at Hillsborough defied him, and formally proclaimed the governor's proclamation to be “a false, scurrilous, malicious, and seditious libel.”

Martyrs' Monument. In Merrimac Square, Lowell, Mass., a beautiful monument of Concord granite was erected in commemoration of two of the four young Massachusetts soldiers slain in the streets of Baltimore, April 19, 1861. These were Luther C. Ladd, a youth a little more than

seventeen years of age, and Addison O. Whitney, a young man twenty-one years of age, and both mechanics of Lowell. The monument was erected by the citizens of Lowell. The bodies of these young men had been conveyed to their homes, in ice, at the expense of the State of Massachusetts. They were received at Lowell by a great concourse of citizens, and interred with peculiar honors in a vault in the Lowell cemetery. A little more than four years afterwards they were laid beneath the granite monument here mentioned. At that time Maryland had disappointed the hopes of the Confederates, and was a loyal member of the Union. At the dedication of the monument, June 17, 1865, Lieutenant-colonel Morris, of the staff of Governor Bradford, of Maryland, presented to Governor Andrew as the representative of Massachusetts, a beautiful national banner, made of silk, and wrought by the hands of loyal women of Baltimore for the purpose. On the polished black-walnut staff was a silver-plate bearing an engraving of the arms of Maryland and Massachusetts and the words, “MARYLAND TO MASSACHUSETTS, APRIL 19, 1865. MAY THE UNION AND FRIENDSHIP OF THE FUTURE OBLITERATE THE ANGUISH OF THE PAST.” Long before the Legislature of Maryland had taken steps to “wipe out,” as they expressed it, “the foul blot of the Baltimore riot,” on March 5, 1862, the General Assembly of Maryland appropriated \$7000, to be disbursed under the direction of the governor of Massachusetts, for the relief of the families of those who were then injured. The other two slain at Baltimore were Charles A. Taylor, a decorative painter of Boston, and Sumner H. Needham, of Lawrence, a plasterer by trade.

Maryland, COLONY OF, was one of the original thirteen states of the Union, and was first settled by Captain William Clayborne, with a party of men from Virginia, in 1631. Earlier than this, George Calvert, an Irish peer, had obtained a patent from King James (1622) to plant a Roman Catholic colony in America. Failing in some of his projects, he applied for a charter for the domain between South and North Virginia, but before the matter was completed his lordship died, and a patent was issued to his son Cecil Calvert, June 20, 1632 (see *Baltimore, Lords*), who inherited the title of his father. The province embraced in the grant had been partially explored by the first Lord Baltimore, and it is believed that the charter granted to Cecil was drawn by the hand of George Calvert. In honor of Henrietta Maria, Queen of Charles I., it was called *Terra Maria*—Mary's Land—hence Maryland. It was the most liberal grant yet made by a British sovereign, both in respect to the proprietor and the settlers. The government of the province was made independent of the crown, and equality in religious and civil freedom was secured to every Christian sect excepting Unitarians. This toleration promoted the growth of the colony, and persecuted people found a refuge there. Armed with this charter, young Lord Baltimore set about the business of colonizing his domain. He appointed his half-brother, Leonard Calvert, governor, and Nov. 22,

1633, that kinsman and another brother, "with very near twenty other gentlemen of very good fashion and three hundred laboring-men" (so Lord Baltimore wrote to Wentworth), sailed from Cowes, Isle of Wight, in two vessels, the *Ark* and *Dove*, accompanied by two Jesuit priests, Andrew White and John Altham. The Calverts and the other "gentlemen," and some of the "laboring-men," were Roman Catholics, but a greater portion of the latter were Protestants. After a terribly tempestuous voyage, in which the vessels were separated, they met at Barbadoes and finally entered the broad mouth of the Potomac River, in February, 1634. They sailed up the Potomac, and upon Blackstone Island (which they named St. Clement's) they landed, performed religious ceremonies, and were visited by the wondering natives. The governor made further explorations, and, finally, on the 27th of March (O. S.), Calvert, having entered into a treaty for the purchase of a domain on a pleasant little river, determined there to plant a settlement. With imposing religious ceremonies it was dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and the place was called St. Mary. It was near the entrance of the Potomac into Chesapeake Bay. A year afterwards, they established their capital at St. Mary; a Legislative Assembly composed of the whole people—a purely democratic Legislature—met there. As their ranks increased by emigration this method was found inconvenient, and in 1639 a representative government was established, the people being allowed to send as many delegates as they pleased. So was founded the Commonwealth of Maryland. Clayborne, the first settler, refused to acknowledge the new government, and was finally expelled from Kent Island. Under the charter, Lord Baltimore had the power of enacting all necessary laws for the colony "with the advice, consent, and approbation of the freemen of the province" or their representatives convened in general assembly; but in the first Assembly (1635) a dispute arose respecting the right of initiating legislation. The contention continued until 1638, when Lord Baltimore yielded the right to the Assembly. The first statutes of Maryland were enacted in 1639. In 1642 a company of Puritans, who had been driven out of Virginia, settled in Maryland, and soon showed a spirit of resistance to the authorities. Clayborne, who had been deprived of his property and civil rights by the Legislature of Maryland, now reappeared at Kent Island and stirred up the Indians with jealousy of the colonists, and they made war upon the settlers. It was not long nor very distressing, and it was just ended (1645) when Clayborne, by false representations, fanned the embers of discontent into a flame of civil war. The insurgents, with disaffected Indians, drove the governor and his council into Virginia, and for about a year and a half the rebels held the reins of power. The rebellion was crushed in the summer of 1647, when the governor returned (in August) and resumed his chair. Many of the records had been destroyed in the turmoil, and a greater portion were carried into Virginia and lost. In 1649 an important law called the Toleration Act was

passed, which simply reaffirmed the provisions of the charter concerning religious freedom. (See *Toleration Act*.) The Puritans in Maryland called their chief settlement Providence, which was afterwards named Annapolis. Leonard Calvert died in 1647, and was succeeded by Thomas Greene; but on the death of the king (1649), Lord Baltimore professed to be a Protestant, and appointed William Stone, of Virginia, a warm friend of Parliament and a Protestant, governor. The Parliament not having confidence in Lord Baltimore's professions, removed Stone from office and appointed commissioners to administer the government. Clayborne was one of them, so also was Governor Bennet, of Virginia. These commissioners entered upon their duties with a high hand. They removed Governor Stone, took possession of the records, and abolished the authority of Lord Baltimore. So the "outlaw" trampled on his old enemy. A few months later they reinstated Stone, and put Kent and Palmer's islands into the possession of Clayborne again. On the dissolution of the Long Parliament (1653), Cromwell restored Lord Baltimore's power as proprietor, and Stone proclaimed the actions of the commissioners rebellious. The incensed commissioners returned to Maryland and compelled Stone to surrender his office: then they vested the government in a board of ten commissioners. Civil and religious disputes now ran high. The Puritans, being in the majority in the Assembly, passed an act disfranchising the Roman Catholics and members of the Church of England. These narrow-minded bigots flogged and imprisoned Quakers, and tried to hold sway as their coreligionists did in Massachusetts. Baltimore appealed to Cromwell, and the latter sent word to the commissioners in Maryland not "to busy themselves about religion, but to settle the civil government." So encouraged, Baltimore directed Stone to raise an army for the restoration of the authority of the proprietor. He obeyed. Stone's forces were mostly Roman Catholics. He seized the colonial records, resumed the office of governor, and inaugurated civil war. A sharp and decisive battle was fought near Providence (Annapolis) early in April, 1655, when many of Stone's party were killed or taken prisoners, and he was defeated and became a captive. His life was spared; but four others were executed, having been convicted of treason. Anarchy reigned in Maryland for several months, when Lord Baltimore appointed Josiah Fendall, a former insurgent, governor. But for two years longer there was bitter strife between the people and the agent of the proprietor. The latter finally made important concessions to the popular demands. Fendall acted discreetly, and there was comparative quiet in the colony until the death of Cromwell. In the spring of 1660, the people, boldly asserting popular supremacy, assumed the legislative powers of the state, and gave Fendall a commission as governor. The restoration of monarchy in England soon afterwards led to the reinstatement of Lord Baltimore in his rights, and Fendall was found guilty of treason because he had accepted office from a "rebellious assembly." But Baltimore merely proclaimed a gen-

eral pardon of all political offenders, and for thirty years afterwards Maryland enjoyed repose. Lord Baltimore died in 1675, and was succeeded by his son Charles; and he and his successors continued to administer the government of the province, with a few interruptions, until the period of the war for independence. The revolution in England (1678) shook the colony. The deputy governor hesitated to proclaim William and Mary, and a restless spirit named Coode made this a pretext for exciting the people by giving currency to a story that the local magistrates and the Roman Catholics were about to join the Indians and exterminate the Protestants. The old religious feud instantly flamed out with intensity. The armed Protestants, led by Coode, took forcible possession of the capital of the province (September, 1689) and assumed the administration of the government. They called a convention, invested it with legislative functions, and by that body public affairs were managed until June, 1691, when the sovereign of England, ignoring the rights of Lord Baltimore, made Maryland a royal province, with Lionel Copley governor. In 1694 the capital of the province was transferred from St. Mary to the town soon afterwards named Annapolis, where it yet remains. The proprietary rights of Baltimore (Benedict Leonard Calvert) were restored to his infant son and heir (Charles) in 1716, and the original form of government was re-established. So it remained until the war for independence. A state constitution was adopted Aug. 14, 1776, and Thomas Johnson was elected the first governor of the independent state. During the French and Indian War and the Revolution, the people of Maryland were conspicuous.

Maryland, CONSTITUTION OF, SETTLED. In 1650 a law was enacted for settling the Provincial Assembly of Maryland. It provided that those members who should be called by special writ should form the Upper House, and those chosen by the Hundreds should compose the Lower House, and that all bills which should pass both houses and receive the signature of the governor should be deemed the law of the province, and have the same effect as if the freemen were personally present. The colony was now divided into three counties, which contained eight hundreds. (See *Hundred, A.*)

Maryland, DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE OF. Before receiving information from Philadelphia of the Declaration of Independence, the Convention of Maryland "yielded to the dire necessity" of renouncing a king who had violated his compact, and conjured every virtuous citizen to "join cordially in maintaining the freedom of Maryland and her sister colonies." That action was taken on July 6, 1776.

Maryland for the Union. For a while after the attack on Massachusetts troops in Baltimore (which see), the Unionists of Maryland were almost silenced. Even Governor Hicks yielded to the pressure of the disunionists, and for a while did their bidding. The Legislature was filled with disloyal men. Abettors of the mob in Baltimore, who were members of the Legislature,

proposed laws to shield the rioters from harm. S. T. Wallis proposed for that purpose, "That the measures adopted and conduct pursued by the authorities of the city of Baltimore on Friday, April 19, and since that time, be, and the same are hereby made valid by the General Assembly." This would cover the disloyal acts of the mayor, the chief of police, the murderous rioters, and the bridge-burners. To further shield the offenders, T. Parkins Scott offered in the same body a bill to suspend the operations of the criminal laws, and that the Grand Jury should be estopped from finding indictments against any of the offenders. These things alarmed the best friends of the commonwealth, and added strength to the sympathy for the Union cause in that state. When Butler, by a single bold stroke, revealed the real weakness of the secession element in Maryland, the Unionists breathed freer, and very soon manifested their strength. The 14th of May, 1861, was a memorable one in the annals of Maryland. On that day the disloyal Legislature adjourned, and Governor Hicks, relieved of the presence of the active enemies of the republic, and assured by the Secretary of War that National troops would remain in Maryland so long as seeming necessity demanded their presence, issued a proclamation calling for Maryland's quota of troops (four regiments) in response to the President's call. On that day the veteran Major W. W. Morris, commander of Fort McHenry, at Baltimore, first gave practical force to the suspension of the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* which the exigency of the times gave constitutional sanction for. A man claiming to be a Maryland soldier was imprisoned in Fort McHenry. A Baltimore judge issued a writ of *habeas corpus* for his release. Morris refused to obey, saying, in a letter: "At the date of issuing your writ, and for two weeks previous, the city in which you live and where your court has been held, was entirely under the control of revolutionary authorities. Within that period, United States soldiers, while committing no offence, had been perfidiously attacked and inhumanly murdered in your streets; no punishment had been awarded, and, I believe, no arrests had been made for these atrocious crimes; supplies of provisions intended for this garrison had been stopped; the intention to capture this fort had been boldly proclaimed; your most public thoroughfares had been daily patrolled by large numbers of troops armed and clothed, at least in part, with articles stolen from the United States, and the Federal flag, while waving on the Federal offices, was cut down [by order of the chief of police, Kane] by some person wearing the uniform of a Maryland soldier. To add to the foregoing, an assembly elected in defiance of law, but claiming to be the legislative body of your state, and so recognized by the executive of Maryland, was debating the Federal compact. If all this be not rebellion, I know not what to call it. I certainly regard it as sufficient legal cause for suspending the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*." (See *Habeas Corpus*.) The action of the governor, this indictment of the Secessionists by the

commander of Fort McHenry, and the presence of Butler with his troops made the Unionists of Maryland firm, and it was discovered that they composed an immense majority of the people.

Maryland Guard. This was a corps formed by some enthusiastic young Marylanders who had made their way to Richmond, where they formed themselves into a military corps with the above title, and offered themselves to the Confederacy. The Secession women of Baltimore wrought for them a beautiful banner, which was taken to the corps by a sister Secessionist, and was publicly presented to the corps in Capitol Square, Richmond, in front of the monument there erected in honor of Washington and other founders of the Republic. On that occasion, ex-Senator James M. Mason made a speech, in which he complimented the Chief-justice of the United States (Taney), a Marylander, for his sympathy with the enemies of the government. Hinting at a contemplated invasion of Maryland by troops in Virginia, in which it was expected the corps would join, he told them they were to take the flag back to Baltimore. "It came here," he said, "in the hands of the fair lady who stands by my side, who brought it through the camps of the enemy with a woman's fortitude and courage and devotion to our cause; and you are to take it back to Baltimore, unfurl it in your streets, and challenge the applause of your citizens."

Maryland, INVASION OF, BY LEE. At the request of the governors of many states, the President, on July 1, 1862, called for 300,000 volunteers to serve during the war; and in August he called for 300,000 more for three months, with the understanding that an equal number would be drafted from the citizens who were between eighteen and forty-five years of age, if they did not appear among the volunteers. These calls were cheerfully responded to; and the Confederate government, alarmed, ordered General Lee to make a desperate effort to capture the national capital before the new army should be brought into the field. Lee perceived that it would be madness to make a direct attack upon its formidable defences, so he resolved to cross the Potomac with a large force into Maryland, assail Baltimore, and, if successful, to fall upon Washington in the rear. He believed the people of "sovereign" Maryland were chafing under the dominion of the national government, and were eager to aid the Confederate cause. He believed that the presence of his army on the soil of Maryland would cause an immediate and almost universal uprising in favor of the Confederacy in that state. Lee was joined (Sept. 2, 1862) by the fresh division of General D. H. Hill. This was sent as a vanguard to Leesburg, Va. The whole Confederate army followed, and between the 4th and 7th crossed the Potomac at the Point of Rocks, and encamped not far from the city of Frederick, on the Monocacy River. There General Lee raised the standard of revolt, and on the 8th issued a stirring appeal in the form of a proclamation to the people of Maryland. He was sorely disappointed. Instead

of a general uprising in his favor, he lost more men by desertions than he gained by accessions. When General McClellan heard of this invasion, he left General Banks with some troops at Washington, and with about 90,000 men crossed the Potomac above Washington and advanced cautiously towards Frederick. At McClellan's approach Lee withdrew. There the plan for seizing Washington was discovered. It was to take possession of Harper's Ferry and open communication with Richmond, by way of the Shenandoah valley, and then, marching towards Pennsylvania, entice McClellan's forces in that direction. At a proper time Lee was to turn suddenly, smite and defeat his antagonist, and then march upon Washington. (See *South Mountain and Antietam*.)

Maryland, POLITICAL COURSE OF (1775). There was a steadiness and consistency in the political movements in Maryland which was highly conservative, but not less patriotic than in other colonies. Caution was a characteristic feature of the methods of her people in dealing with important measures; and so, from the first, everything was done with so much moderation that all parties acquiesced in the Democratic principle of deriving all power from the people, and the province presented an almost unbroken line in opposition to ministerial actions. It adopted the *American Association* almost immediately after the adjournment of the First Continental Congress. Religious prejudices were held in abeyance, and the people resolved that henceforth former religious differences should cease. Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, a Roman Catholic, who, under the British government, had not been allowed to vote, now took a prominent part in the political movement, and was placed on the Committee of Correspondence. It was a harbinger of a better day, when a new republic should be formed, and perfect religious and political freedom should prevail in it.

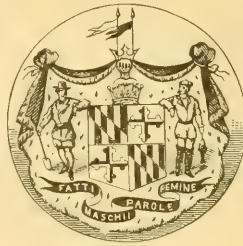
Maryland, POSITION OF (1861). It was very important in carrying out the plan of the Secessionists, early in 1861, to seize the national capital, to have the authorities of the State of Maryland in accord with the movement. It might be a barrier to the march of troops from the North sent to defend the capital. Emissaries and commissioners from the cotton-growing states were early within its borders plying their seductive arts; and they found in Baltimore so many sympathizers among leading citizens that, for a while, they felt sure of the co-operation of Maryland. But they found in the Governor (T. H. Hicks) of Maryland a sturdy opponent of their revolutionary schemes. It is said that on the 1st of January, 1861, there were no less than 12,000 men organized in that state, bound by the most solemn oaths to follow their leaders in seizing Washington city. Against such an array, against the natural sympathy of blood-relationship with the Southern people, and against the seeming self-interest of the holders of 700,000 slaves, valued at \$50,000,000, which property might be imperilled, they thought, by alliance with the North, Governor Hicks manfully con-

tended. He was supported by an eminently loyal people among the so-called "masses." Hicks was urged by the Secessionists to call a meeting of the Legislature to consider the state of affairs; but he too well knew the danger that would attend the gathering of a body largely made up of slaveholders, and he steadily refused to make the call. In fact, he had been informed that the members of the Legislature had already formed a plan for "carrying Maryland out of the Union," and resolutions to that effect had already been drawn. These facts he set forth in an address to the people of his state (Jan. 6, 1861), which delighted the Unionists. Already the late Henry Winter Davis, a representative of the Baltimore district in Congress, had published (Jan. 2, 1861) a powerful appeal against the calling of a meeting of the Legislature, or the assembling of a Border State Convention, as had been proposed. The Secessionists denounced Hicks as a traitor, and tried every means to counteract his influence, but in vain, for the best men of the state upheld him. A strong Union party was organized. Maryland became the great battle-field of opposing opinion. The Union men triumphed; and within the space of four years slavery was abolished in Maryland, not only by the Proclamation of Emancipation by the President of the United States (which see), but by the constitutional act of its own authorities.

Maryland Sanctions Independence. On June 28, 1776, a convention in Maryland, which had assembled on the 21st, passed resolutions concurring with Virginia on the subject of independence, a confederation, treaties with foreign powers, and the reservation of the internal government of each colony to its own people. Five days afterwards (July 3) the convention directed the election of delegates to a new convention to create a government by the authority of the people.

Maryland, STATE OF. A convention assembled at Annapolis in August, 1776, and in September presented a bill of rights and a state constitution, which were adopted in November. The first State Legislature met at Annapolis, Feb. 5, 1777, and on the 13th Thomas Johnson was chosen the first governor. The constitution was amended in 1802, and remodelled in 1836. The "Maryland line" of Continental troops held a high position in the Revolution. At Annapolis, in Maryland, when Congress was in session, late in 1783. Washington resigned his commission; and Maryland gave a handsome majority vote for the national Constitution in April, 1788. During the War of 1812 the coasts of Maryland suffered from the depredations of Admiral Cockburn (see *Havre-de-Grace, Attack on, 1813*); and the battle of Bladensburg (which see) and the defence of Baltimore in August and September, 1814, are conspicuous events in our history. Two of the greatest works of internal improvement in our country were the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (begun in 1828, and completed to Point of Rocks, on the Potomac, in 1832, but not carried through to the Ohio at Wheeling until

1853) and the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, made by a company formed in 1828, but not completed until 1850. In 1845-46 the constitution of Maryland was again amended, and in 1851 a new one was adopted. On the subject of secession the people of Maryland were divided at the beginning of the Civil War, but the state held fast to the Union. There were many battles on her soil (see *South Mountain and Antietam*),



STATE SEAL OF MARYLAND.

and many exciting scenes of minor importance. The state authorities were active in support of the war, furnishing to the Union army 49,730 men. In October, 1864, a new constitution was ratified by the people. It abolished slavery and disfranchised all who had aided or encouraged rebellion against the government. The present state constitution was adopted in September, 1867. Population in 1890, 1,042,390.

Maryland, THE THIRD INVASION OF. At the beginning of July, 1864, Maryland was invaded by the Confederates for the third time. The Confederate General Early had been gathering troops for the purpose in the Shenandoah valley, and with fifteen to twenty thousand of these, of all arms, he swept rapidly down the valley towards Williamsport. General Sigel, too weak to resist, fled into Maryland, with a heavy loss of stores, and General Weber, in command at Harper's Ferry, retired to Maryland Heights. Early crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, and, pushing on to Hagerstown (July 6, 1864), levied a contribution on the inhabitants there of \$20,000. Then he pushed on to Frederick, on the Monocacy River, and threatened both Baltimore and Washington. The raid had a twofold purpose — to draw troops from before Petersburg for the defence of Washington, and to plunder. When informed of it, General Grant sent the Sixth Corps to protect Washington. Meanwhile General Lew Wallace (then in command of the Middle Department, with his headquarters at Baltimore) had proceeded from that city, with a few troops hastily collected, to confront the invaders. General E. B. Tyler was then at the railway bridge over the Monocacy with about 1000 men. Wallace went to Tyler's camp, saw the necessity for prompt and energetic action, and chose a commanding position on the east side of the Monocacy for the concentration of his forces. On the 9th he fought the hosts of Early desperately not far from Frederick. He had been joined by a portion of Rickett's brigade, from the advance of the Sixth Corps. This handful of warriors, after fighting overwhelming numbers eight hours, were defeated, with heavy loss, when Early pushed on towards Washington. The vanquished Nationals had really won a victory, for they had detained the Confederates long enough that evening to al-

low the Sixth and Nineteenth Corps to reach and secure the national capital. When Early perceived this he pushed across the Potomac at Edwards's Ferry with a large amount of plunder, closely pursued by General Wright to the Shenandoah valley. He was struck by the Nationals at Snicker's Ferry and at Snicker's Gap, and sharp skirmishes ensued. At Ashby's Gap there was also a brisk skirmish, and in two encounters the Nationals lost about 500 men. Early moved up the valley as if continuing his retreat, when General Wright, handing his command over to General Crook, returned to Washington. Meanwhile General Averill, with a considerable force, moved towards Winchester, and near that place he fought the Confederates (July 20) three hours. They lost 400 men (about 200 of them made prisoners), with four guns. Averill's loss was about 200. It was supposed Early was moving up the valley, but Crook, marching from Harper's Ferry to Winchester, soon afterwards encountered him in heavy force, and he was driven back (July 23) to Martinsburg, with a loss of 1200 men. Early sent 3000 cavalry, under General McCausland, to make a plundering and devastating raid in the direction of the Susquehanna. They swept over the country in eccentric lines, bewildering its defenders, and on July 30 entered the defenceless and partly deserted village of Chambersburg, Penn., and demanded of the inhabitants \$200,000 in gold or \$500,000 in "greenbacks" (paper currency) as a tribute to insure the town against destruction. The tribute was not offered, and two thirds of the town was laid in ashes. No time was given for the removal of the sick, infirm, women, or children. Harry Gilmor, a young Marylander, was McCausland's torch-bearer, and ten minutes after he received orders he applied the flame. General Averill, with 2600 cavalry, was after the raiders. He drove them across the Potomac with such blows that they did not stop to plunder and destroy. Moseby, another guerilla chief, dashed across the Potomac and carried off a few horsemen. Averill pursued the Confederates up the south branch of the Potomac, attacked and defeated them (Aug. 4, 1864) at Moorfield, captured their guns, trains, and 500 men, with a loss to himself of fifty men. Grant now, to protect Washington from seizure, and Maryland and Pennsylvania from invasion, consolidated several departments, calling the organization the Middle Division. General Sheridan was assigned to its command, Aug. 7, 1864. Sheridan at once entered upon his duties, and found himself at the head of over 30,000 troops.

Mason and Dixon's Line. The disputed boundary-line between the State of Pennsylvania and the states of Maryland and Virginia—the border-line between the free- and slave-labor states—was finally fixed by Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, English mathematicians and surveyors employed for the purpose, between 1763 and the close of 1767. In the debates on slavery before the admission of Missouri, John Randolph used the words "Mason and Dixon's line" as figurative of the division between the two systems of labor. The press and the poli-

ticians echoed it; and in that connection it was used until the destruction of slavery by the late Civil War.

Mason and Slidell, CAPTURE OF. Early in the career of the Confederate government they sent diplomatic agents to European courts who proved to be incompetent. That government undertook to correct the mistake by sending two of their ablest men to represent their cause at the courts of Great Britain and France respectively. These were James M. Mason, of Virginia, author of the Fugitive Slave Law, and John Slidell, of Louisiana, who was deeply interested in the scheme for reopening the African slave-trade. These ambassadors, each accompanied by a secretary of legation, left Charleston harbor on a stormy night (Oct. 12, 1861), eluded the blockading squadron, and landed at Havana, Cuba, where they were cordially greeted by the British consul and other sympathizers. There they embarked for St. Thomas on the British mail-steamer *Trent*, intending to go to England in the regular packet from the latter port. While the vessel was on her way to St. Thomas, and when off the northern coast of Cuba, she fell in with the American war-ship *San Jacinto*, Captain Wilkes, then on his way home from the coast of Africa. He had touched at Havana, where he heard of the movement of the Confederate ambassadors. Satisfied that the English rule concerning neutrals and belligerents would justify him in seizing these men on the *Trent* and transferring them to his own vessel, he went out in search of her. He found her (Nov. 8), and brought her to by firing a shell across her bow. Then he sent Lieutenant Fairfax, a kinsman of Mason, on board the *Trent* to demand of the captain the delivery of the ambassadors and their secretaries to Captain Wilkes. The officers of the *Trent* protested, and the ambassadors refused to leave the ship unless forced by physical power to do so. Lieutenant Greer and a few marines were sent to help Fairfax, who then took Mason by the shoulders and placed him in a boat belonging to the *San Jacinto*. Then the lieutenant returned to Slidell. The passengers were greatly excited. They gathered around him, some making contemptuous allusions to the lieutenant, and even crying out "Shoot him!" The daughter of Slidell slapped Fairfax in the face three times as she clung to the neck of her father. The marines were called, and Slidell and the two secretaries were compelled to go. The captive ambassadors were conveyed to Boston and lodged in Fort Warren as prisoners of state. The British government pronounced the act of Wilkes a "great outrage," though in exact accordance with their code of international law as expounded by their judges and publicists; and with the same unseemly haste which characterized the Queen's proclamation (which see), the British government prepared for war on the United States. It did not wait for diplomatic correspondence, but made extensive preparations for hostilities before sending a peremptory demand for the release of the prisoners. The Tory papers abused the American govern-

ment without stint. While these preparations were going on, and Congress and other legislative bodies were thanking Captain Wilkes, the United States government, acting upon the wise counsel of President Lincoln, and true to its long-cherished principles concerning the sacredness of neutrality, proceeded to disavow the act of Wilkes and to release the prisoners. They were placed on board a British vessel, and went to England, where they were treated with marked coldness. The *London Times*, which had teemed with abuse of the Americans because of the arrest, now declared that the ambassadors were "worthless booty," and added, "England would have done as much, for two negroes."

Mason, GEORGE, was born in Fairfax County, Va., in 1726; died there (at Gunston Hall), Oct. 7, 1792. After his marriage he built Gunston Hall, on the bank of the Potomac, below Mount Vernon. He was a firm patriot and able statesman. In 1769 he drew up the non-importation resolutions which Washington presented to the Virginia Assembly, and which were unanimously adopted. He also wrote a powerful tract against the claim of the British Parliament to tax the colonies without their consent. At a meeting of the inhabitants of Fairfax (July 18, 1774) he offered twenty-four resolutions reviewing the whole ground of the pending controversy; recommended a general congress; and urged the non-intercourse policy. In 1775 he was a member of the Virginia Committee of Safety; and in 1776 he drafted the Declaration of Rights and State Constitution of Virginia, which were adopted unanimously. In 1777 he was elected to the Continental Congress, and in 1787 he was a leading member of the convention which framed the national Constitution. In that body he opposed every measure which tended to the perpetuation of slavery. Dissatisfied with the constitution, he declined to sign it, and, in connection with Patrick Henry, led the opposition to it in the convention of Virginia. He also declined the office of United States Senator, to which he was elected. Jefferson wrote of Mason: "He was a man of the first order of wisdom, of expansive mind, profound judgment, cogent in argument, learned in the lore of our form of constitution, and earnest for the republican change on democratic principles." Mr. Mason's statue occupies a pedestal on Crawford's monument of Washington at Richmond, Va.

Mason, JAMES MURRAY, grandson of George Mason, of Gunston Hall, was born in Fairfax County, Va., Nov. 3, 1798; died near Alexandria, Va., Feb. 14, 1874. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1818; began the practice of law in 1820; served in the Virginia Legislature; was a member of Congress from 1837 to 1839; and United States Senator from 1847 until expelled in July, 1861, for assisting the enemies of the government. Senator Mason was the author of the Fugitive Slave Law (which see) and an active leader of the insurrection in 1860-61. He promoted the secession movement in Virginia, and was a member of the

Confederate Congress. He was arrested while on his way to England as diplomatic agent of the Confederate government (see *Mason and Slidell*), but was soon released. He afterwards resided some time in Paris.



JAMES MURRAY MASON.

Mason, JEREMIAH, LL.D., was born at Lebanon, Conn., April 27, 1768; died in Boston, Oct. 14, 1848. He graduated at Yale College in 1788, was admitted to the Vermont bar in 1791, and soon became the acknowledged head of his profession in the state. He was attorney-general in 1802, and from 1813 to 1817 was United States Senator. For many years he was in the New Hampshire Legislature, and was the author of an able report on the Virginia resolutions touching the Missouri Compromise (which see). In 1837 he removed to Boston, where, until he was seventy years of age, he was extensively engaged in his profession; but he was little known, personally, out of New England. His mind was clear, logical, and extremely vigorous, the characteristics of which, Webster said, were "real greatness, strength, and sagacity."

Mason, JOHN, founder of New Hampshire, was born in Norfolk County, England; died in London in 1635, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. In 1610 he commanded an expedition to subdue a rebellion in the Hebrides, and in 1616 he went to Newfoundland as governor. He surveyed the island and made a map of it, published in 1626. He also wrote a description of Newfoundland. In 1617 he explored the New England coasts, and obtained from the Council of Plymouth (which see) a tract of land there in 1622. With Ferdinando Gorges, he procured a patent for another tract (see *Maine*), and sent a colony there in 1623. In 1629 he obtained a patent for the domain which he called New Hampshire. In the same year he acquired, with Gorges, another tract, which embraced the country around Lake Champlain (see *Laconia*); and in 1631 Mason, Gorges, and others formed a company for trading with the natives of New England and to make settlements there. In 1633 Mason became a member of the Council for New England (see *Plymouth Council*) and

vice-president of the same. He was also judge of the courts of Hampshire, England, in 1665, and in October was appointed Vice-admiral of New England. When he was about to sail for America he died. Mason's heirs sold his rights in the Province of New Hampshire in 1691 to Samuel Allan.

Mason, JOHN, an Indian fighter, was born in England in 1600; died at Norwich, Conn., in 1672. He served as a soldier under Fairfax in the Netherlands, and that leader invited Mason to join his standard in the Civil War. He came to America in 1630, and was one of the first settlers of Dorchester. Captain Mason led the white and Indian troops against the Pequods near the Mystic in 1637 (see *Pequod War*), and was soon afterwards made major-general of the Connecticut forces, which position he held until his death. He was a magistrate from 1642 until 1668, and deputy-governor from 1660 to 1670. He went to Saybrook after the Pequod War at the request of the settlers, and in 1659 removed to Norwich.

Mason, LOWELL, Musical Doctor, was born at Medfield, Mass., Jan. 8, 1792; died at Orange, N. J., Aug. 11, 1872. At an early age he became a teacher and composer of music, and at the age of twenty years went to Savannah, Ga., where he gave instruction and led choirs and musical associations. In 1821 he published in Boston his *Handel and Haydn Collection of Church Music*, and it was so successful that he returned north and settled in Boston, where, in 1827, he began the instruction of classes in vocal music. He taught juvenile classes gratuitously on the Pestalozzian system, and published many juvenile collections of music, glee-books, etc. Dr. Mason's latest work, *The Song Garden*, appeared in 1866. In connection with Professors Park and Phelps, he compiled a *Collection of Psalms and Hymns for Public Worship*, published in 1858.

Mason, STEVENS THOMSON, was born at Stafford, Va., in 1760; died in Philadelphia, May 10, 1803. He was educated at the College of William and Mary, and at the early age of twenty years (1780) held the rank of colonel in the Virginia troops. At the close of the Revolution he was a brigadier-general. In the Virginia House of Representatives he was conspicuous; also in the convention in Virginia in 1788 to consider the national Constitution. He took a conspicuous place in the Democratic party (see *Jay's Treaty*), and was United States Senator from 1794 until his death. Mr. Mason was distinguished for oratory, and was very popular.

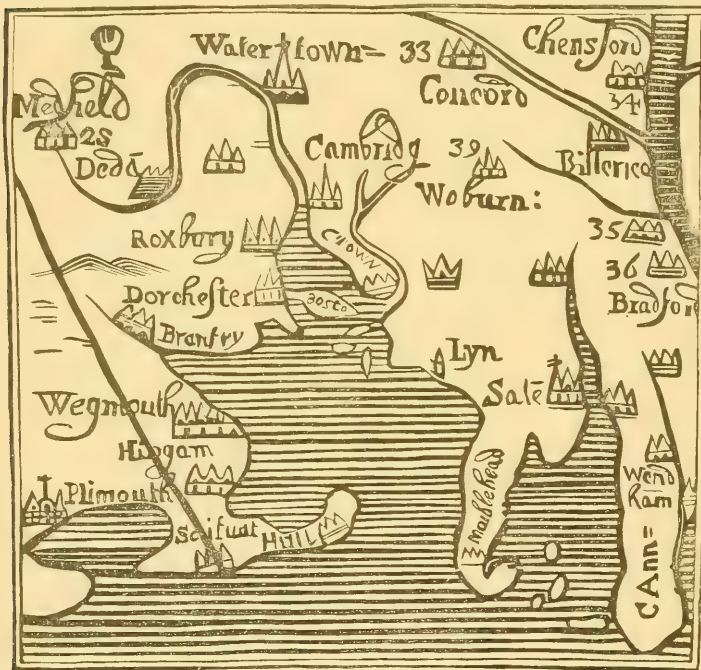
Massachusetts (colony of), one of the original thirteen states of the Union, was founded by English Puritans who fled from persecution. (See *Puritans*.) Its shores were probably visited by Northmen at the beginning of the eleventh century (see *Northmen*), and possibly Sebastian Cabot saw them (1498), and also Verazzani (1524). The shores were explored by Bartholomew Gosnold (1602), Samuel Champlain (1604), and John Smith (1614); but the first permanent European settlement was made on the shores of Cape Cod Bay by some English

Non-conformists, who, calling themselves "Pilgrims," had fled from England to Holland, sojourned there a few years, formed a church at Leyden, and in 1620 came to America, where they might worship God with perfect freedom. Having made arrangements with the Plymouth Company for planting a settlement, and for funds with some London merchants, they went from Delftshaven to England, and sailed for America from Plymouth in the *Mayflower*, of 180 tons' burden, on the 17th of September (N. S.), and, after a stormy passage, arrived at Cape Cod in November. Seeking a good landing-place, the company, one hundred and one in number—men, women, and children—did not leave the vessel until the 22d of December (N. S.), when they landed on a rock on the shores of Cape Cod Bay, built some log-huts in the snow, and called the rude village New Plymouth. In the cabin of the *Mayflower* the men had drawn up and signed a form of government—a solemn compact—by which they were to be ruled (see *Pilgrims*), and chose John Carver governor for one year. Cold, exposure, and poor food caused a sickness that swept away nearly one half their number in four months. Carver was among the victims, and William Bradford was his successor. Their spiritual leader was Elder William Brewster. They made a treaty of friendship with Massasoit, sachem of the surrounding Indians, and it was long maintained inviolate. In petty hostilities with other chiefs, Captain Miles Standish, a valiant little soldier, was very useful. (See *Standish, Miles*.) Other Puritans joined the Pilgrims, and other settlements were soon attempted (see *Weston's Colony*); but the little colony at New Plymouth suffered much at times until 1623, when they were blessed with a bountiful harvest. The community system of labor was abandoned, and in 1627 the colonists dissolved their partnership with the London merchants, and became sole proprietors of the soil. As the Pilgrims could not obtain a patent, they quietly lived under their own simple form of government and prospered. An English company obtained a grant of territory on Massachusetts Bay and sent over John Endicott (1628) with one hundred settlers, who seated themselves at Naumkeag, now Salem. Others soon joined them, and a royal patent was obtained for the "Massachusetts Bay Company." (See *Massachusetts, First Royal Charter for*.) In 1629–30 large reinforcements came to the colony, new settlements were planted, and a supply of farming-tools and live-stock was furnished. The charter and the corporate powers of the company were transferred from England to Massachusetts, and so the foundations of that commonwealth were firmly laid. In 1630 John Winthrop was elected governor, and that year the colony numbered one thousand souls. Religious intolerance marked the rulers in Church and State, and five or six years after the arrival of Winthrop, Roger Williams, an eccentric Puritan minister at Salem, was banished from the colony and soon founded the commonwealth of Rhode Island. In 1637 the colony was disturbed by a war with the Pe-

quods. (See *Pequod War*.) Very soon King Charles I. began to interfere with the political independence of the colony. He demanded the surrender of the charter to the crown; the order was evaded, and, by erecting fortifications and drilling troops, the colonists prepared to resist it. During the Civil War the colony was quiet, but on the restoration of the Stuarts in 1660 (see *Charles II.*) the government of England claimed supreme jurisdiction in Massachusetts. A commissioner was sent to England in 1662, and obtained a confirmation of the charter and a conditional promise of amnesty for offenders during the late troubles between royalty and the people. Charles II. demanded the repeal of all laws contrary to his authority, the taking of an oath of allegiance, the administration of justice in the king's name, the complete toleration of

76. (See *King Philip's War*.) The Indians destroyed a dozen towns, six thousand houses, and six hundred of the inhabitants, in their homes or in the little army. Of the men, one in twenty had fallen, and of the families, one in twenty was homeless; and the cost of the war was over \$500,000 — enormous at that time. The royal pretensions to rule the colony were renewed after the war, though England had not furnished a man or a farthing to carry it on, but these were spurned. In 1680 a committee of the Privy Council, at the suit of the heirs of Gorges, denied the right of Massachusetts to New Hampshire and Maine. Massachusetts purchased the title to the latter (see *Maine*), and the former became an independent province. (See *New Hampshire*.) In 1684 the High Court of Chancery in England gave judgment in favor of the crown

against the governor and company of Massachusetts, and the charter was declared forfeited. Joseph Dudley was appointed royal governor, the General Assembly, or Court, was dissolved, and a new commission superseded the charter government. Edmund Andros succeeded Dudley (Dec. 20, 1686), when that tyrannical ruler and his pliant council proceeded to make laws and levy taxes without the consent of the people. The people submitted with impatience. They were relieved by the expulsion (1688) of the last Stuart king from the throne of England (see *James II.*), and early in 1689 the men of Boston imprisoned Andros, re-instated the old government, and sent the ex-royal-governor to England. (See *Andros, Sir*



ANCIENT MAP OF MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

the Church of England in Massachusetts, and a concession of the elective franchise to every man having a competent estate. There was a diversity of sentiment in the colony respecting these demands, some acquiescing, some opposing; and in 1664 commissioners arrived at Boston (the capital of the colony, founded by Winthrop) to investigate the affairs of the colony. The colonial authorities published an order prohibiting any complaints to be made to the commissioners, and addressed a remonstrance to the king. The commissioners, unable to do anything, finally withdrew. The king reproved Massachusetts, and ordered the governor and others to appear before him. They refused to go, and much trouble was expected. A more serious trouble awaited them. The colony was severely scourged by King Philip's War in 1675—

Edmund.) In the intercolonial war between France and England in 1690 Massachusetts participated, and to pay the expenses the colony first issued paper-money. (See *Paper Currency*.) In 1692 a new charter was given to Massachusetts, by which New Plymouth was united with it. Then the commonwealth included forty thousand inhabitants, and was divided into several counties. It was a royal province, and the governor and secretary were appointed by the king; and no act of the popular Legislature was valid without the sanction of the chief magistrate, who possessed a veto power. About this time a strange delusion, known as Salem Witchcraft, fearfully disturbed the colony for six months. (See *Witchcraft, Salem*.) The province was finally smitten by French and Indian invaders in 1703-4, and war was waged with the

Indians in 1722 and 1725. The colony was involved in war with its French neighbors in 1744, in consequence of a war between France and England. In that war Massachusetts contributed largely in men and means to the capture of Louisburg (1745), and in attempts to conquer Canada. (See *Louisburg*.) She also bore her part in the French and Indian War; and in the opposition to the Stamp Act and other schemes of the British Parliament for taxing the English-American colonists, Massachusetts took a leading part. And when that opposition to British oppression was educating the people for armed resistance, Massachusetts was a chief leader and instructor. All through the war for independence she was among the foremost of the colonies in the council and in the field. Upon her soil the first Continental army was organized, and the first clash of arms in the war for independence was heard within her borders. On March 2, 1780, a state constitution was adopted, and a state government organized under it some time afterwards, with John Hancock as governor.

Massachusetts Charter Forfeited. On June 18, 1684, the High Court of Chancery in England gave judgment for the king against the governor and Council of Massachusetts, and their charter was declared forfeited. The liberties of the people were thus seized by the king. So fell the old charter under which the people had lived for fifty-five years. Colonel Kirke was appointed governor of the colonies of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Plymouth; but before he received his commission and instructions the monarch died and his appointment was annulled.

Massachusetts Committee of Safety. On Feb. 9, 1775, the members of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress (second), consisting of two hundred and fourteen members, appointed eleven men as their Committee of Safety, charged to resist any attempt at executing the acts of Parliament. They were empowered to take possession of the munitions of war of the province, to make returns of the militia and the minutemen (which see), and to muster so many of the militia as they should judge necessary.

Massachusetts Declaration of Independence. On the first day of May, 1776, the General (Provincial) Court of Massachusetts passed "An Act for establishing the Style of Commissions which shall hereafter be Issued and for Altering the Style of writs, Processes, and all Law proceedings within this colony, and for directing *pene* Recognizances to the Use of this Government shall for the future be taken and prosecuted." The act went on to say that, "Whereas, the Petitions of the United Colonies to the King had been rejected and treated with scorn and contempt, and the evident design of the government was to reduce the colonies to a state of servile subjection," it was therefore decreed that, "on and after the first day of June next ensuing, all Civil Commissions, Writs, and Precepts for convening the General Court or Assembly" should thereafter be made out "in the name and Style of the Government and People of the Massachusetts Bay in New England."

II.—3

Also, all the officers of the colony, civil and military, should receive their authority from the same source. This placed the supreme authority of Massachusetts, *de facto* and *de jure*, in the chosen representatives of the people. It was an absolute declaration of independence.

Massachusetts Declaration of Rights. In 1692, after the receipt of the new charter, the General Court of Massachusetts passed an act which was a declaration of the rights of the colony. Among the general privileges which it asserted, it declared that "No aid, tax, tollage, assessment, custom, loan, benevolence, or imposition whatsoever, shall be laid, assessed, imposed, or levied on any of their majesties' subjects, or their estates, on any pretence whatsoever, but by the act and consent of the governor, council, and representatives of the people assembled in General Court." To this declaration the people of Massachusetts firmly adhered; and the principle was formulated as a political maxim in the words used before and at the time of the Revolution in 1775—"Taxation without representation is tyranny."

Massachusetts, FIRST ROYAL CHARTER FOR. In March, 1629, King Charles I. gave a charter to a number of wealthy and influential Englishmen, confirming a former grant to others, to a domain in America (see *Massachusetts*), with whom they became associated, and superadded the power of government. It was similar to the Virginia charter (see *Virginia*), and erected the patentees and their associates into a corporation by the name of the "Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, in New England." The affairs of the company and the colony were to be managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and eighteen assistants, or magistrates, the latter to hold monthly courts. The more important laws of the colony were to be enacted by a General Court of Assembly of all the freemen and stockholders, to be held quarterly. The rights of Englishmen were secured to the colonists, but the management of the local government was entirely in the hands of the corporation in England. No royal negative was reserved in the enactments of the company. Nothing was said about religion. The company was organized under the charter by the appointment of Matthew Cradock governor, and Timothy Goffe deputy-governor—two wealthy London merchants. The executive administration of the colony was intrusted to Endicott (see *Endicott, John*), assisted by twelve councillors—seven to be named by the company, two to be selected by the old planters, and these nine to select three more. The settlement was called "London's Plantation." Every stockholder who should emigrate to America at his own cost was to receive fifty acres of land for each member of his family, and the same for each indentured servant he carried with him. The charter and the government were soon transferred from England to Massachusetts, and a large emigration ensued in 1629-30. (See *Massachusetts*.)

Massachusetts, INDEPENDENCE PROCLAIMED IN. The Declaration of Independence was read

from the pulpits on the ensuing Lord's day after it was received, and was entered at length on the records of the town. It created the greatest enthusiasm throughout the commonwealth, and Tories became a small minority.

Massachusetts Legislature, Two Houses FIRST ESTABLISHED. In 1644 an interesting change took place in the General Assembly of Massachusetts. An arrangement was agreed to for the magistrates to sit by themselves, and the deputies by themselves, forming two houses, and that what one should agree upon should be sent to the other; and if both should agree, then the act was to pass. From that time bills and resolutions were sent in a parliamentary way from one House to the other.

Massachusetts, NEW GOVERNMENT IN. In accordance with the directions of the Continental Congress, the people of Massachusetts, at town meetings, chose representatives for a new Assembly. The citizens of Boston, who were scattered, gathered at Concord and chose their representatives. These and others met at Cambridge, where, on July 19, 1775, the Provincial Congress was dissolved forever, and the new House of Representatives began the restoration of regular civil government in that colony. They chose James Warren, of Plymouth, as their speaker. The next night the Americans destroyed the light-house in Boston harbor by fire, and the British, alarmed, became more circumspect, for they had learned not to regard the American soldiers as an "undisciplined rabble."

Massachusetts, NEW ROYAL CHARTER OF. When the colony resumed its charter in 1689, the people earnestly solicited its re-establishment with the addition of some necessary powers. The king would not consent, and a new royal charter was issued in 1692. By the terms of the new charter the Colony of Plymouth, the provinces of Maine and Nova Scotia, as far north as the River St. Lawrence, and all the country between them, were added to the old Province of Massachusetts; also the Elizabeth Islands and the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard. Under the new charter the governor, lieutenant-governor, and colonial secretary were appointed by the crown. It gave the governor the power to convene and dissolve the General Court, and a veto of all its acts. The councillors first appointed by the crown were afterwards to be annually elected by the House of Representatives and the existing Council; but of the twenty-eight thus chosen the governor might reject thirteen. The advice and consent of the Council were necessary to all appointments and official acts. Under this charter the theocracy which had ruled Massachusetts with rigor lost nearly all its power. (See *Theocracy*.) Toleration was expressly secured to all religious sects, excepting Roman Catholics. The right of suffrage, limited by the old government to church members and a few persons admitted freemen on a minister's certificate, was now bestowed on all inhabitants possessing a freehold of the annual value of \$6.66, or personal property to the amount of \$133.33. Massa-

chusetts had gained religious freedom and the extension of political rights. (See *Phipps*.)

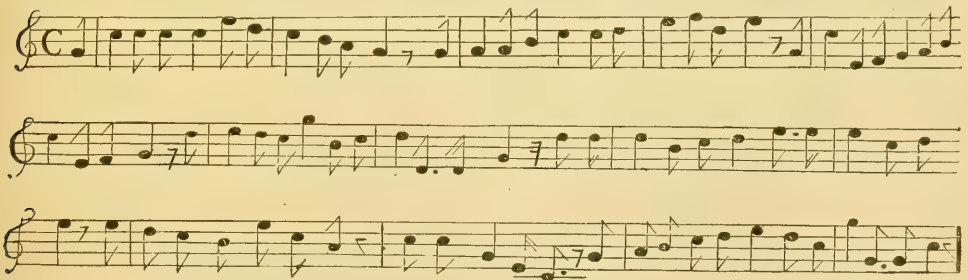
Massachusetts, PETITION OF, TO THE KING. Recent acts of Parliament for taxing the Americans caused the Massachusetts Assembly, in January, 1768, to send to the king a petition which combined, temperately, the spirit of liberty and of loyalty. In it was set forth a brief history of the colony of Massachusetts; the franchise guaranteed by their charter; expressed the happiness of the colonists while in the enjoyment of these chartered privileges; spoke of the obedience to acts of Parliament not inconsistent with these chartered rights, and said: "It is with the deepest concern that your humble suppliants would represent to your majesty that your Parliament, the rectitude of whose intentions is never to be questioned, has thought proper to pass divers acts imposing taxes on your subjects in America, with the sole and express purpose of raising a revenue." "If your majesty's subjects here shall be deprived of the honor and privilege of voluntarily contributing their aid to your majesty," they continued, "in supporting your government and authority in the province, and defending and securing your rights and territories in America, which they have always hitherto done with the greatest cheerfulness, their liberties would be in danger." They declared that if Parliament intended to lay taxes upon them without their consent, the people "must regret their unhappy fate in having only the name left of free subjects." "With all humility," they continued, "we conceive that a representation of this province in Parliament, considering these local circumstances, is utterly impracticable. Your majesty has heretofore been graciously pleased to order your requisitions to be laid before the representatives of the people in the General Assembly, who never failed to afford the necessary aid to the extent of their ability, and sometimes beyond it; and it would be ever grievous to your majesty's faithful subjects to be called upon in a way that should appear to them to imply a distrust of their most ready and willing compliance." They closed by humbly asking the king to consider their situation and to afford them relief from the oppression of the Parliament. With this petition went to England letters to leading statesmen, urging the rights of the province.

Massachusetts, REMONSTRANCE OF (1813). The doctrine of state supremacy had yet a strong hold upon the political opinions of New England, and particularly of Massachusetts, and it was restless under the assumption of supreme power by the national government in the War of 1812-15. In his message to the Legislature (May 20, 1813), Governor Strong defended the right of free discussion of the great question of the day—peace or war with Great Britain. The Peace Party (which see) powerfully influenced public opinion in Massachusetts, and, following the message of the governor, the Legislature of that state agreed to a remonstrance, in which they denounced the perseverance in war, and

declared that, for ought that appeared, the questions at issue might be adjusted by peaceful negotiations. This remonstrance was regarded as highly unpatriotic by the great bulk of the nation, put forth as it was in the midst of the struggle, when the American government required the sympathy of all its citizens.

Massachusetts, RESUMPTION OF CHARTER GOVERNMENT IN (1775). The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts wrote to the Continental Congress (May 16), setting forth the difficulties they experienced for the want of a regular government, since the act of Parliament that was intended to subvert their charter, and asking for explicit advice in the matter. The Congress resolved (June 9) that no obedience was due from the inhabitants of Massachusetts to the obnoxious act of Parliament, nor to any of the crown officers acting under it; that, as there was no council (see *Mandamus Councillors*), and as Governor Gage was actually carrying on war against the people, they recommended an election of representatives to an assembly that should appoint councillors, and that this body or the councillors should exercise the powers of government until a governor should be appointed who would consent to govern the colony according to the charter. This was done. James Warren, President of the Provincial Congress, was authorized to issue writs for an election. The summons was readily obeyed. A full house convened at Watertown on the 20th of July, and Warren was chosen speaker. A council was chosen, and the two branches proceeded to legislation, under the charter.

Massachusetts Song of Liberty, THE, was sung throughout all the colonies for several years before the war for independence broke out. It was very popular, for it touched the hearts of the people at that time. It was published in Bickerstaff's *Boston Almanac* for 1770, with the music as given below. The *Almanac* for that year contained on its title-page a rude type-metal engraving of a likeness of James Otis. The portrait of the patriot is supported by Liberty on one side and Hercules on the other.



FAC-SIMILE OF THE MUSIC.

"Come swallow your bumpers, ye *Tories*, and roar,
That the Sons of fair Freedom are hamper'd once more;
But know that no *Cutthroats* our spirits can tame,
Nor a host of *Oppressors* shall smother the flame.

"In Freedom we're born, and, like Sons of the brave,
Will never surrender,
But swear to defend her,
And scorn to survive if unable to save.

"Our grandsires, bless'd heroes, we'll give them a tear,
Nor sully their honors by stooping to fear;
Through deaths and through dangers their *Trophies* they won,
We dare be their *Rivals*, nor will be outdone.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"Let tyrants and minions presume to despise,
Encroach on our *Rights*, and make *Freedom* their prize;
The fruits of their rapine they never shall keep,
Though vengeance may nod, yet how short is her sleep.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"The tree which proud *Haman* for *Mordecai* rear'd
Stands recorded, that virtue endanger'd is spared;
That *rogues*, whom no bounds and no laws can restrain,
Must be stripp'd of their honors and humbled again.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"Our wives and our babes, still protected, shall know
Those who dare to be free shall forever be so;
On these arms and these hearts they may safely rely
For in freedom we'll live, or like *Heroes* we'll die.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"Ye insolent *Tyrants*! who wish to enthrall;
Ye *Minions*, ye *Placemen*, *Pimps*, *Pensioners*, all;
How short is your triumph, how feeble your trust,
Your honor must wither and nod to the dust.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"When oppress'd and approach'd, our *KING* we implore,
Still firmly persuaded our *Rights* he'll restore;
When our hearts beat to arms to defend a just right,
Our monarch rules there, and forbids us to fight.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"Not the glitter of arms nor the dread of a fray
Could make us submit to their chains for a day;
Withheld by affection, on *Britons* we call,
Prevent the fierce conflict which threatens your fall
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

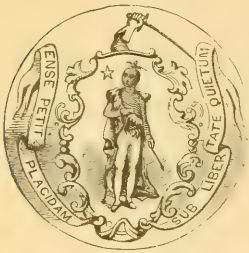
"All ages shall speak with amaze and applause
Of the prudence we show in support of our cause;
Assured of our safety, a *BRUNSWICK* still reigns,
Whose free, loyal subjects are strangers to chains.
"In Freedom we're born, etc.

"Then join hand in hand, brave *AMERICANS* all,
To be free is to live, to be slaves is to fall;
Has the land such a dastard as scorns not a *LORD*,
Who dreads not a fetter much more than a sword?
"In Freedom we're born," etc.

Massachusetts, STATE OF. In 1780 a state constitution for Massachusetts was framed, and was adopted by the people, and it is now the fundamental law of the commonwealth, though it has been amended several times. It was soon decided that by a clause in its Bill of Rights slavery was abolished. Under the constitution, John Hancock was elected its first governor. The poverty and distress of the people caused some of them, in the interior of the state, to resist taxation. (See *Shays's Rebellion*.)

A state convention ratified the national Constitution Jan. 9, 1788. The people were generally opposed to the War of 1812, yet that state furnished a large number of seamen for the navy. The politicians of that state were chiefly instrumental in getting up the "Hartford Conven-

tion" (which see), and George Cabot, of that state, was its president. In 1820 the District of



STATE SEAL OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Maine was separated from Massachusetts, and admitted into the Union as a state. During the Civil War Massachusetts furnished to the National army and navy 159,165 men, and the losses were 3749 killed in battle, 9086 who died from wounds or disease, 15,645 discharged for disability contracted in the service, and 5866 not accounted for. The state expended on account of the war \$30,162,200. The state now maintains a militia force of about 5000 men. Population in 1890, 2,238,943.

Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore. Early in January, 1861, Governor Andrew, of Massachusetts, tendered troops to the government for its protection. Fort Sumter was attacked, and on the day when the President's call for troops was issued, Senator Wilson telegraphed to Governor Andrew to despatch twenty companies to Washington immediately. The formal requisition of the Secretary of War arrived an hour later, calling for two regiments from Massachusetts, and before sunset the same day an order went out for four regiments to muster forthwith on Boston Common. Benjamin F. Butler was commissioned brigadier-general, and these regiments formed his brigade. On the 16th Senator Wilson telegraphed for four regiments. They were ready, and the Sixth Regiment, Colonel Jones, was sent forward immediately, to go by way of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. The regiment consisted of eleven companies, and to these were added two more. News had reached Baltimore of the approach of these troops, and there was much excitement there on the morning of April 19th, for they had heard of the destruction of the armory and arsenal at Harper's Ferry (which see) the night before. At near noon the Massachusetts troops arrived, and the excitement was intensified. When the train reached the President Street Station, between which and Camden Street Station the cars were drawn by horses, a mob of about five hundred men were waiting to receive them. The number rapidly increased, until, when the cars started, at least two thousand men followed them, with yells, to the Camden Street Station, where another mob, which had been gathering all the morning, met them. A mob in Pratt Street became more and more unruly, shouting lustily for "Jeff Davis and the Southern Confederacy," and at near the corner of Gay Street, where lay a heap of stones, they broke loose from all restraint, and hurled these missiles upon the cars loaded with soldiers as they were passing. Every window was demolished, and several soldiers were hurt. Then the cry was raised, "Tear up the track!" That could not easily be done, and

the mob barricaded the street by dragging anchors upon it from a store near by. The troops back of the barricade alighted for the purpose of marching to the station. They consisted of four companies. As they began a march in close order, the mob fell upon them. The rioters were led by a man with a Secession flag on a pole, who told the troops they should never go through the city—that "every nigger of 'em" would be killed before they could reach the other station. The word *March!* was given to the troops, when the mob began hurling bricks and stones. The missiles filled the air like hail, while the troops advanced at a "double-quick." Very soon the attack became more furious, and several of the soldiers were knocked down by stones and their muskets taken from them. Presently some shots were fired by the infuriated populace. Up to this time the troops had made no resistance. Now, finding the mob intent upon murder, the troops were ordered to cap their muskets (already loaded) and defend themselves. They had now reached Gay Street, and the mob was full ten thousand strong, hurling stones and bricks. Heavy pieces of iron were thrown upon them from windows. One of them crushed a man to the earth. Now the troops turned and fired at random upon the mob. Shouts, stones, musketry, shrieks of women, and the carrying of wounded men into stores made an appalling tragedy. The severest of the fight was in Pratt Street, between Gay and Bowley's Wharf, near Calvert Street. The Mayor of Baltimore tried to quell the storm of passion, but in vain, and the New-Englanders were left to fight their way through to the Camden Street Station. They were furiously assailed at Howard Street, where about twenty shots were fired. At a little past noon the troops entered the cars for Washington. Three of their number had been killed outright, one mortally wounded, and eight were seriously hurt and several slightly. Nine citizens of Baltimore were killed and many—how many is not known—were wounded. The mob followed the cars as they went off for Washington, more than a mile, impeding the progress of the train with stones, logs, and telegraph-poles, which the accompanying police removed. The train was fired into from the hills on the way. The troops reached the capital that evening, and were quartered in the Senate Chamber.

Massacre of Huguenots in Florida. (See *Huguenots in America*.)

Massasoit, sachem, or king, of the Wampanoags, was born about 1580; died in 1661. His domain extended from Cape Cod to Narraganset Bay. At one time his tribe numbered thirty thousand souls, but just before the arrival of the *Mayflower* they had almost been swept from the face of the earth by a malignant disease, which left only three hundred persons alive. On the 15th of March, 1621, Massasoit appeared at New Plymouth with sixty of his followers, armed and painted, prepared for peace or war. Edward Winslow had been sent with Squanto (see *New Plymouth*) to meet him with presents from the governor, while Captain Standish, with

several musketeers, remained a little behind. Leaving Winslow behind as a hostage, Massasoit approached with twenty armed warriors, and met Standish at a dividing brook. The dusky people were taken to a building where a rug and cushions were prepared for the king and his courtiers, and there, sitting in state, he received Governor Carver, who came with a braying trumpet and beaten drum. Squanto acted as interpreter. A treaty of peace and amity was concluded, which was never broken by either party while Massasoit lived. The old sachem sent messengers to other tribes, inviting them to come and make peace with the white people. Soon after this treaty Edward Winslow and a companion visited Massasoit at his residence at Pokanoket, within the limits of Warren, R. I. Squanto went with them as guide. They carried presents to the king, and were graciously received; but Massasoit was so unprovided with food, his corn being spent, that the Englishmen nearly starved. They were honored by sleeping in the same bed—which was made of plank, covered with thin matting, and infested with vermin—with the king and queen (the latter at one end and the former at the other). In 1623, when Massasoit was very sick, Winslow again visited him, and, in gratitude for the attention of the Englishman, the sachem revealed a plot of the Indians to destroy the white people. Thirteen years later, when Roger Williams, banished from Massachusetts, was making his way towards Narraganset Bay, he was kindly entertained by Massasoit for several weeks. A contemporary writer says the Wampanoag king was "a portly man in his best years; grave of countenance and spare of speech." He left two sons. (See *Barbarian Monarch*.)

Matches. Loco-foco, or friction, matches were invented by John Walker, an English chemist, in 1829. They began to find their way into the United States in 1831 or 1832, when they were sold in boxes of twenty-five sticks in number for twenty-five cents, or one cent apiece. The first patent issued in the United States for their manufacture was to Alonzo D. Phillips, of Springfield, Mass., in the fall of 1836. In 1870 there were seventy-five establishments devoted to their manufacture, and the total value of the annual product was more than \$3,540,000. In 1891 nearly all the matches used in this country were made by the Diamond Match Company, which owned many factories in different places. These factories consumed 27,000,000 feet of pine lumber annually, producing 6,000,000 gross of matches, of 14,400 matches to a gross.

Mather, COTTON, D.D., was born in Boston, Feb. 12, 1663; died there, Feb. 13, 1728. He is one of the most notable of the early New England divines. He graduated at Harvard in 1678, was employed several years in teaching, and was ordained a minister in May, 1684, as colleague of his father, Dr. Increase Mather. The doctrine of special providence he carried to excess. He was credulous and superstitious, and believed he was doing God service by witch-

hunting. (See *Salem Witchcraft*.) His *Wonders of the Invisible World* (1692) gives an account of the trials for witchcraft. In 1700 he published *More Wonders*, and seems never to have relinquished his belief in witches and witchcraft.



COTTON MATHER.

Aside from this peculiarity, he was a most sincere, earnest, indefatigable Christian worker, engaging in every good work; and he was the first to employ the press extensively in this country in the dissemination of tracts treating of temperance, religion, and social morals. He preached and wrote for sailors, Indians, and negroes. The number of his published works issued between 1686 and 1727 is three hundred and eighty-two.

Mather, INCREASE, D.D., was born at Dorchester, Mass., June 21, 1639; died Aug. 23, 1723. He was educated at Harvard and Dublin Universities, and returned to Boston in 1661, having spent some time in England, preaching occasionally. He was President of Harvard University from 1685 to 1701. He was the first in this country upon whom was conferred the degree of D.D. He was an energetic and patriotic public man, and took an active part in the political affairs of the colony. He was sent to England to obtain redress of grievances, and returned in 1692 with a new charter, and invested with the power to nominate a governor, lieutenant-governor, and council for Massachusetts. Dr. Mather opposed the violent measures promoted by his son against persons accused of witchcraft. He wrote a *History of the War with the Indians*, and many other books and pamphlets, to the number of ninety-two.

Matlack, TIMOTHY, was born at Haddonfield, N. J., in 1730; died near Holmesburg, Penn., April 15, 1829, at the age of ninety-nine years. He was a member of the society of "Free Quakers," or "Fighting Quakers," as the members of the Society of Friends were called who took an active part in the war for independence—like General Mifflin. Matlack was most active in every patriotic movement from the time of the Stamp Act until the end of the war, serving in the councils of the inchoate nation and as

colonel of a Pennsylvania battalion of troops. He was in the civil service of Pennsylvania after the war, and in all places was distinguished for thorough uprightness.

Matthews, EDWARD, was born in 1729; died Dec. 26, 1805, at Clauville Lodge, Hauts, Eng. In 1746 he was an ensign in the Coldstream Guards, and before he came to America, in 1776, he was a colonel, and aide-de-camp to the king. He commanded a brigade of the Guards, with the rank of brigadier-general, in the attack on Fort Washington (which see). He commanded a raiding-party near Norfolk, Va., in May, 1779, and assisted in the capture of Verplanck's and Stony Point soon afterwards. Appointed major-general, he was stationed at or near New York, and returned to England in 1780. General Matthews was commander-in-chief of the forces in the West Indies in 1782, and the next year was governor of Grenada and the Caribbean Islands. In 1797 he became a general.

Matthews, GEORGE, was born in Augusta County, Va., in 1739; died at Augusta, Ga., Aug. 30, 1812. He led a company in the battle of Point Pleasant (which see), and was colonel of a Virginia regiment in the war of the Revolution. Made a prisoner at the battle of Germantown (which see), he was a captive in a prison-ship until exchanged, late in 1781, when he joined Greene's army with his regiment. After the war he settled in Georgia, and was governor of the state from 1793 to 1796. From 1789 to 1791 he was a member of Congress. He was afterwards brigadier-general of the Georgia militia, with which he was active in taking possession of Florida, by order of the President (see *Florida, Revolutionary Movements in*), and the capture of Amelia Island.

Matthews's Plundering Raid in Virginia. In May, 1779, General Clinton sent two thousand men from New York, under General Matthews, to plunder the coast of Virginia. He entered the Elizabeth River on transports, escorted by a squadron of armed vessels under Sir George Collier, on May 9. They plundered and spread desolation on both sides of the river to Norfolk. They seized that city, then rising from its ashes and enjoying a considerable trade, and also Portsmouth, opposite. These were the chief places of deposit of Virginia agricultural productions, especially tobacco. They captured and burned not less than one hundred and thirty merchant vessels in the James and Elizabeth rivers, an unfinished Continental frigate on the stocks at Portsmouth, and eight ships of war on the stocks at Gosport, a short distance above Portsmouth, where the Virginians had established a navy-yard. So sudden and powerful was the attack, that very little resistance was made by Fort Nelson, below Portsmouth, or by the Virginia militia. Matthews carried away or destroyed a vast amount of tobacco and other property, estimated, in the aggregate, at \$2,000,000.

Maubila, BATTLE OF. At Choctaw Bluff, in Clarke County, Ala., about twenty-five miles above the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, was a strong Indian town, the cap-

ital of Tuscaloosa, the head of the Mobilian tribes. Tuscaloosa was gigantic in stature, and was called the Black Warrior. De Soto had led his marauders through the beautiful Coosa country, and had, as usual, requited kind treatment by treachery and cruelty. He made captive the Coosa ruler, and carried off men, women, and children in chains as slaves. Arriving on the borders of Tuscaloosa's domain, at the great town of Tallase, he there released the Coosa chief, and found the Black Warrior at his temporary residence. He was seated on a commanding eminence, with beautiful mats under his feet, and surrounded by numerous attendants. Forty years of age, with a handsome face and grave aspect, a head taller than any of his warriors, and lord of many tribes, he was revered by his people and feared by all his neighbors, and his influence was felt from the Alabama to the Mississippi River. He received De Soto with haughty courtesy. When a pack-horse was brought, and Tuscaloosa was requested to mount and ride by the side of De Soto, it was evident to him that he was really a prisoner of the Spaniard, after the manner of other caciques who had been held as hostages. They crossed the Alabama River a little below the site of Selma, and moved on in the direction of the sea. De Soto discovered signs which made him uneasy. Tuscaloosa was in close and continual consultation with his principal followers, and was constantly sending runners ahead to his capital with messages, telling De Soto that he was preparing for their honorable reception there. De Soto did not believe him, and took measures against treachery. The Black Warrior and the Spanish leader rode side by side into the Mobilian capital, a large, high-palisaded, and walled town, called Maubila. They were received in a great square, with songs, the music of flutes, and the dancing of Indian girls. There Tuscaloosa requested not to be held as a hostage any longer. De Soto hesitated, when the cacique, with proud and haughty step, entered a house. When invited to return, he refused, saying, "If your chief knows what is best for him, he will immediately take his troops out of my country." This was followed by a revelation that ten thousand Indian warriors were in the houses, with a vast amount of weapons; that the old women and children had been sent to the forests, and that the Indians were talking about the proper hour to fall upon the Spaniards. A greater part of De Soto's army was lagging behind at that perilous moment in fancied security. To postpone attack until his army should come up, De Soto approached Tuscaloosa with smiles and kind words. The cacique turned haughtily away, when a chief came out of a house, and denounced the Spaniards as robbers and murderers. Gallegos, one of De Soto's most powerful warriors, angered by his words, cleft the speaker with his heavy sword from his head to his loins. The fury of the people was aroused. They swarmed from the houses, and by force of numbers pushed the invaders out of the walled town into the plain, releasing the Indian captives, and making them fight their late masters. Five Spaniards were

killed and many wounded in that first encounter. De Soto himself was wounded, but he fought on desperately. At the head of his cavalry, he charged upon the Indians, and drove them back into their town. They rushed to their wall-towers, and hurled showers of stones and clouds of arrows upon their assailants, which drove them back. The barbarians rushed out with heavy clubs, and there was a fierce hand-to-hand fight. Hearing the sounds of battle, De Soto's laggards hurried forward, and with these fresh troops the Indians were driven back into their town, followed by the invaders. A dreadful carnage ensued. The Indians fought with all the desperation of patriots. Young women, in large numbers, fought side by side with the warriors, and their blood flowed as freely. At length De Soto, at the head of his cavalry, made a furious charge into the town, with a shout of, "Our Lady and Santiago!" and made fearful lanes in the ranks of fighting men and women. The houses were now fired, and the combatants were shrouded in blinding smoke. As the sun went down, the sights and sounds of the slaughter were dreadful. When night fell the contest was over. It had raged nine hours. Maubila was a smoking ruin, and its inhabitants had perished. It was estimated that eleven thousand native Alabamians had fallen, and De Soto lost eighty-two of his men, some of them the flower of Spanish chivalry. It is believed that Tuscaloosa remained in his house and perished in the flames. (See *De Soto*.)

Mauduit Duplessis (Chevalier de), THOMAS ANTOINE, was born at Hennebion, France, Sept. 12, 1753; died in Santo Domingo, March 4, 1791. When a boy twelve years of age he ran away from home, visited the battle-fields of Marathon and Thermopylæ, and made plans of these battles with his own hand. He became an artilleryman, and served in the Continental army of America, first as volunteer aid to General Knox. He became a lieutenant-colonel, and behaved with skill and bravery at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, Fort Mercer, and Monmouth. In 1781 he distinguished himself at the siege of Yorktown. After the war he was stationed at Santo Domingo, where he perished by the hands of the revolutionists. (See *Santo Domingo*.)

Mauduit, ISRAEL, was born at Exeter, Eng., in 1708; died June 16, 1787. He was a prosperous London merchant. He was acting agent of the Province of Massachusetts in England (1763-64), and wrote much in praise of the American cause during the war of the Revolution.

Maurepas (Count de), JEAN FRÉDÉRIC PHÉLYPEAUX, was born in Versailles in 1701; died in November, 1781. He was minister of state in 1738, and was one of the ablest statesmen France ever produced; but because of an epigram on the mistress of Louis XV.—Madame d'Etoiles—whom the monarch had just created Marquise de Pompadour, he was removed from office in 1745. He was recalled in 1774, on the accession of Louis XVI., when he restored the exiled Parliament, and began a system of reform. He was

instrumental in bringing about the treaty of alliance (which see) between France and the United States in 1778.

Maury, MATTHEW FONTAINE, LL.D., was born in Spottsylvania County, Va., June 14, 1806; died at Lexington, Va., Feb. 1, 1873. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman in 1825, and while circumnavigating the globe began his treatise on "Navigation." An accident in 1839 made him a permanent cripple, and he was placed in charge of the Hydrographic Office at Washington. On its union with the Naval Observatory, in 1844, he became its superintendent. He made extensive researches concerning the physical geography of the sea, and published an interesting work on the subject. He also made extensive investigations concerning the Gulf Stream. In 1861 he resigned his appointments from the government and joined the insurgents. In 1871 he was made President of the University of Alabama. His scientific works gained for him distinguished honors from foreign governments and many learned societies.

Maverick, SAMUEL, was born in England in 1602; died in New York, at the age of about seventy years. He settled on Noddle's Island (now East Boston), Mass., in 1629, and suffered much persecution from the Puritans because he was a zealous member of the Church of England. In 1664 he was appointed one of the six commissioners to settle political difficulties in New England, and to wrest New Netherland from the Dutch. After the surrender of New Amsterdam (now New York) to the Dutch, he settled in that city. (See *New Netherland, Conquest of*.)

Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico, was made so by the power of French arms. Louis Napoleon, emperor of the French, had long cherished a scheme for extending imperial rule, and the consolidation of the power of the Roman Catholic Church and the Latin race in America; and when the Civil War in the United States was at its height, he sent troops to Mexico to establish a throne there and fill it with one of the royal family of Austria, believing the government of the United States to be then too feeble to attempt to enforce the "Monroe Doctrine" (which see). Ferdinand Maximilian Joseph Maximilian, an archduke of Austria, was chosen by Napoleon to be the instrument of his designs. He was born in Vienna, July 6, 1832, and, having entered the naval service, was made rear-admiral and chief of the Austrian navy in 1854. In 1857 he was made governor of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and in the same year married Charlotte, daughter of Leopold I. of Belgium and sister of the present king. He departed for Mexico in April, 1864, and landed, with his wife, at Vera Cruz in May. The French army had already taken possession of the country. The archduke assumed the crown of Mexico, with the title of Maximilian I., and, being childless, adopted a son of Iturbide (which see) as his presumptive successor on the throne. Juárez, the president, who had been driven from the capital, and, with his followers, declared by the new emperor to be an outlaw and usurper, made such strong re-

sistance, that Maximilian had to struggle for his throne from the very beginning. When the Civil War was ended, Napoleon was given to understand, by the United States government, that the empire in Mexico and the presence of French troops there could not be regarded with favor by the citizens of the Republic. The emperor of the French acted upon this hint. He suggested the propriety of the abdication of Maximilian, but the latter would not consent, for he relied upon French arms to sustain him. His wife went to Europe to have an interview with the emperor and also with the pope, but the boon was refused, and her mind gave way under the pressure of her anxiety. Napoleon perfidiously abandoned Maximilian by withdrawing his troops, and left the latter to his fate, who, after struggling for a while to maintain his power, was captured by the Republicans at Queretaro on May 14, 1867. He was shot, with two of his generals, on June 19. A vessel was sent from Austria, under the command of a vice-admiral, to convey his remains to his native country, and they were interred in the imperial vault in January, 1868. His poor wife yet (1880) lives, hopelessly insane.

Maxwell, WILLIAM, was born in New Jersey, and died in that state Nov. 12, 1798. He was made colonel of a New Jersey battalion in 1775, and served in the campaign in Canada in 1776. He had been in the provincial army continually for fifteen years before the revolution broke out. In October, 1776, he was appointed brigadier-general, and, in command of a New Jersey brigade, was distinguished at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He was in Sullivan's campaign (which see) in 1779, and soon after the action at Springfield, N. J. (which see), in 1780, he resigned.

May, CORNELIUS JACOBSEN, commanded the Dutch trading vessel *Fortune* on a trading excursion to Manhattan in 1613. The next year he coasted along New England to Martha's (Martin's) Vineyard. In 1620 he was on the coasts and rivers southward of Manhattan, in the ship *Glad Tidings*, visited Chesapeake Bay, and sailed up the James River to Jamestown. The bay at the mouth of the Delaware River the Dutch called New Port May, in compliment to their commander, and the southern extremity of New Jersey is still known as Cape May. In the spring of 1623, Captain May conveyed to Manhattan thirty families, chiefly Walloons, in the ship *New Netherland*, with Adriaen Joris as lieutenant. May remained at Manhattan as first director or governor of the colony. He was succeeded by William Verhulst, second director of New Netherlands, and returned to Holland.

Mayer, BRANTZ, was born in Baltimore, Sept. 27, 1809; died there in 1878. He was educated at St. Mary's College, Baltimore, and made a trip to the East Indies, visiting Sumatra, China, and Japan, returning in 1828. He became a lawyer. In 1841 he was appointed secretary of legation to Mexico, and afterwards published two important works on that country. He was an accurate and industrious writer, and issued

several valuable publications, besides numerous occasional addresses. During the Civil War and afterwards, he held the office of paymaster in the army, and resided in California a few years. He was appointed one of the judges at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876.

Mayor Wood and Georgia Disunionists. Early in January, 1861, it became known to the superintendent of the Metropolitan Police of New York (who were not under the control of the mayor) that large quantities of arms, purchased of Northern manufacturers and merchants, were going southward. It was resolved to put a stop to this traffic; and, on Jan. 22, nearly forty boxes of fire-arms, consigned to parties in Georgia and Alabama, and placed on board a steam-vessel bound for Savannah, were seized by the New York police. The governor of Georgia was informed of the act by telegraph, sent to him at Milledgeville. Toombs was there, and took the matter into his own hands. He telegraphed to the mayor of New York (Fernando Wood): "Is it true that arms, intended for and consigned to the State of Georgia, have been seized by public authorities in New York? Your answer is important to us and New York. Answer at once." To this demand of a private citizen the mayor meekly expressed his regret, but disclaimed any "responsibility for the outrage," as he called it. "As mayor," he said, "I have no authority over the police. If I had the power, I should summarily punish the authors of this illegal and unjustifiable seizure of private property." Toombs determined to retaliate. The governor had no authority under the law to do so. Toombs advised him to act without authority, and he did. By his orders, ships of Northern owners were seized at Savannah and held as hostages. Meanwhile a large portion of the arms seized in New York had been given up, and the little tempest of passion raised by the event was allayed. An investigation proved that during several months the insurgents had been largely armed by purchases from Northern merchants.

Mazzei, JEFFERSON'S LETTER TO. During the debates on Jay's treaty, Jefferson watched the course of events from his home at Monticello with great interest. He was opposed to the treaty, and, in his letters to his partisan friends, he commented freely upon the conduct and character of Washington, regarding him as honest but weak, the tool and dupe of rogues. In one of these letters, addressed to Philip Mazzei (which see), he declared that "in place of that noble love of liberty and republican government" which carried the Americans triumphantly through the late struggle, "an Anglican, monarchical, aristocratic party" had sprung up, resolved to model our form of government on that of Great Britain. He declared that the great mass of citizens, the whole landed interest, and the talent of the country, were republicans; but opposed to them were the executive (Washington), the judiciary, two out of three of the national Legislature, "all the officers of the government, all who want to be officers, all timid men who prefer the calm of despotism to

the boisterous sea of liberty, British merchants and Americans trading on British capital, speculators and holders in the banks and public funds—a contrivance invented for the purpose of corruption, and for assimilating us in all things to the rotten as well as the sound parts of the British model.” “It would give you a fever,” he continued, “were I to name to you the apostates who have gone over to these heresies—men who were Samsons in the field and Solomons in the council, but who have had their heads shorn by the harlot of England.” This letter was dated April 24, 1796. Mazzei published an Italian translation of it in Florence, Jan. 1, 1797. Thence it was retranslated into French, and published in the *Moniteur*, Jan. 25. Translated a third time, into English, it made its way to the American newspapers, through the London press, in the beginning of May, and produced a most profound sensation in the United States. Jefferson first saw it on the 9th of May, at Bladensburg, while on his way to Philadelphia to take his seat as president of the Senate, having been chosen Vice-President of the United States. The administration newspapers and pamphleteers attacked Jefferson with energy, but he wisely kept silent on the subject. This letter caused Washington to lose faith in Jefferson, and it was never restored. It was used as political capital by the Federalists until the election of Jefferson to the presidency of the United States in 1800.

Mazzei, PHILIP, was born in Tuscany in 1730; died at Pisa, March 19, 1816. He was a practising physician at Smyrna for a while, and was in London in 1755, where he resided most of the time until 1783, engaged in mercantile business, excepting a period when he was in America. He came hither in December, 1773, with a few of his countrymen, for the purpose of introducing into Virginia the cultivation of the grape, the olive, and other fruits of Italy. He formed a company for the purpose. Jefferson was a member of it, and Mazzei bought an estate adjoining that of Monticello to try the experiment. He persevered three years, but the war and other causes made him relinquish his undertaking. Being an intelligent and educated man, he was employed by the State of Virginia to go to Europe to solicit a loan from the Tuscan government. He left his wife in Virginia, when he finally returned to Europe, in 1783, where she soon afterwards died. He revisited the United States in 1785, and in 1788 wrote a work on the *History of Politics in the United States*, in four volumes, which has never been translated. In 1792 Mazzei was made privy-councillor of the King of Poland; and in 1802 he received a pension from the Emperor Alexander, of Russia, notwithstanding he was an ardent republican. (See *Mazzei, Jefferson's Letter to*.)

Meade, GEORGE GORDON, LL.D., was born in Cadiz, Spain, in 1816; died in Philadelphia, Nov. 6, 1872. He graduated at West Point in 1835, served in the war with the Seminoles (see *Seminole War*), and resigned in 1836. He continued in the practice of engineering until May,

1842, when he was reappointed second-lieutenant of topographical engineers, serving through the war against Mexico, attached to the staff, first of General Taylor, and then of General Scott. The citizens of Philadelphia presented him with an elegant sword on his return from Mexico. In the summer of 1861 he was made a brigadier



GEORGE GORDON MEADE.

general of volunteers, having been in charge of the surveys on the Northern lakes until that year as captain of engineers. He was in the Army of the Potomac, active and efficient, from 1861 until the close of the war. In June, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers, and was in command of the Army of the Potomac in the summer of 1863. In July of that year he won a victory at Gettysburg. In 1864 he was made major-general in the United States Army; and from July, 1865, to August, 1866, he was in command of the military division of the Atlantic, and subsequently of the Department of the East and the military district comprising the states of Florida, Georgia, and Alabama. In 1865 he received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard University. The citizens of Philadelphia had presented to his wife the house in which he died, and \$100,000 was afterwards raised for his family.

Meade, WILLIAM, an American bishop, son of Richard K. Meade, a revolutionary soldier, and one of Washington's confidential aids, holding the rank of colonel, was born in (present) Clarke County, Va., Nov. 11, 1789; died near Millwood, Va., March 14, 1862. He graduated at Princeton in 1808, and became a minister of the Protestant Episcopal Church. He was an earnest and active worker for his Church and the best interests of religion. In 1829 he was made assistant bishop of the diocese of Virginia, and became bishop on the death of Bishop Moore in 1841. For several years he was the acknowledged head of the "evangelical" branch of the Church in the United States. In 1856 he published, in two volumes, *Old Churches, Ministers, and Families in Virginia*.

Meagher, THOMAS FRANCIS, was born at Waterford, Ireland, Aug. 3, 1823; was drowned at

Fort Benton, Montana, July 1, 1867. He was well educated in Ireland and in England. In 1846 he became one of the leaders of the "Young Ireland" party. He was already distinguished



THOMAS FRANCIS MEAGHER.

for his oratory, and was sent to France to congratulate the French Republic in 1848. On his return he was arrested on a charge of sedition and held to bail. Afterwards charged with treason, he was again arrested, tried, found guilty, and sentenced to death. That sentence was commuted to banishment for life to Van Diemen's Land, from which he escaped, and landed in New York in 1852. Lecturing with success for a while, he studied law, entered upon its practice, and in 1856 edited the *Irish News*. When our Civil War broke out he raised a company in the Sixty-ninth New York Volunteers, and, as major of the regiment, fought bravely at Bull's Run. Early in 1862 he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and served in the Army of the Potomac in the campaign against Richmond that year. He was in Richardson's division in the battle of Antietam. Engaged in the desperate battle of Fredericksburg, he was badly wounded. Immediately after the battle of Chancellorsville (which see) he resigned. He was recommissioned brigadier-general of volunteers. Early in 1864 he was assigned to the command of the district of Etowah. In 1865 he was appointed Secretary of the Territory of Montana, and for some time previous to his death was acting-governor.

Mechanicsville (or Ellison's Mill), BATTLE OF (1862). General Robert E. Lee, who had been recalled from Georgia, was placed in command of the Confederate army led by Johnston, after the latter was wounded. (See *Seven Pines* and *Fair Oaks*.) He prepared to strike McClellan a fatal blow or to raise the siege of Richmond. He had quietly withdrawn Jackson and his troops from the Shenandoah valley, to have him suddenly strike the right flank of McClellan's army at Mechanicsville and uncover the passage of that stream, when a heavy force would join him, sweep down the left side of the Chicka-

homy towards the York River, and seize the communications of the Army of the Potomac with the White House. McClellan did not discover Jackson's movement until he had reached Hanover Court-house. He had already made provision for a defeat by arrangements for a change of base from the Pamunky to the James River; and when, on the morning of June 25, he heard of the advance of Jackson on his right, he abandoned all thought of moving on Richmond, took a defensive position, and prepared for a retreat to the James River. On the right side of the Chickahominy General Porter was posted with 27,000 men and ten heavy guns in battery. At three o'clock in the afternoon of the 26th General A. P. Hill crossed the river and drove a regiment and a battery at Mechanicsville back to the main line near Ellison's Mill, where the Nationals were strongly posted. There, on a hill, McCall's Pennsylvania Reserves (which see) were posted, 8500 strong, with five batteries. These, with a part of Meade's brigade, were supported by regulars under Morell and Sykes. General Reynolds held the right, and General Seymour the left, and the brigades of Martindale and Griffin were deployed on the right of McCall. In the face of these formidable obstacles, and a heavy fire of infantry and artillery, the leading brigades of Hill advanced, followed by Longstreet's, and moved to the attack. They massed on the National right to turn it, expecting Jackson to fall upon the same wing at the same time; but this movement was foiled by Seymour. A terrific battle ensued. The Confederates were hurled back with fearful carnage. Night fell, and at nine o'clock the battle of Mechanicsville, or Ellison's Mill, ceased. The loss of the Nationals was about 400; that of the Confederates, between 3000 and 4000. By this victory Richmond was placed at the mercy of the National army; but McClellan, considering his army and stores in peril, immediately prepared to transfer both to the James River.

Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. Towards the close of May, 1775, Colonel Thomas Polk, of Mecklenburg County, N. C., issued a notice to the elected committee-men of that county to assemble in the court-house at Charlotte. They met on the 31st of May, appointed Abraham Alexander chairman, and Dr. Ephraim Brevard clerk. The court-house was surrounded by a large concourse of excited people eager to know the resolves of their representatives. Dr. Brevard, Rev. H. J. Balch, and William Kennon were appointed a committee to draft resolutions. They reported twenty in number, with the following preamble: "Whereas, by an address presented to his majesty by both Houses of Parliament in February last, the American colonies are declared to be in a state of actual rebellion, we conceive that all laws and commissions confirmed by or derived from the authority of the king and Parliament are annulled and vacated, and the former civil constitution of these colonies for the present wholly suspended." To provide for the present exigencies of their county in such a crisis, they

passed the twenty resolutions, the first of which virtually declared the independence of the colonies, and the remainder provided for the government of affairs in Mecklenburg County.

around which were thirty-three stars, the number of the states then in the Union. Such medals were awarded to three hundred and twenty persons.

Alfred Alexander — *Opp Brand*
Thos. Polk — *Adam Alexander*
David Reese — *John Alexander*
Herz Alexander — *John Pfiffer*
Robt. Green
Will Kennon — *Nichl Berry*
Benjamin Patton — *John Road*
John Davidson — *William Graham*
John Lemmitir — *Waightstill Avery*
Charles Alexander
Henry Downs — *Robt Harris*
Ezra Alexander — *Nell Morrison*
James Harris

AUTOGRAPHS OF THE MEMBERS OF THE MECKLENBURG COMMITTEE.

Medals of Honor. Congress authorized the Secretary of the Navy, late in 1861, to cause bronze "Medals of Honor" to be struck, to be bestowed by him upon such petty officers and others of inferior rank as should most distinguish themselves by their gallantry in action in the navy during the war. They were in the form of a star with five points, with a device emblematic of Union crushing the monster Rebellion,

Mediation of Connecticut. Anxious for reconciliation after the affair at Lexington and Concord, Governor Trumbull and the Assembly of Connecticut sent a deputation to Gage (May 1, 1775) to act as mediators. This step alarmed the ardent patriots of Massachusetts. The Provincial Congress remonstrated against any separate negotiations; and they declared, by vote, that Gage was a public enemy and an instru-

ment in the hands of tyrants whom there was no further obligation to obey. There was some unimportant correspondence between Trumbull and Gage, and the affair was dropped.

Mediterranean Fund, THE. When news of the capture of the *Philadelphia* in the harbor of Tripoli reached the United States, Congress passed an act by which all goods subject to *ad valorem* duties were to pay an additional two and a half per cent. during the continuance of hostilities in the Mediterranean, to constitute a fund to be exclusively applied to expenses occasioned by hostilities with the Barbary Powers. (See *Tripoli, War with.*)

Meigs, MONTGOMERY CUNNINGHAM, was born in Georgia in 1816. He graduated at West Point in 1836, entering the Artillery, and was transferred to the Engineers. His services as Quartermaster-general of the United States armies in the Civil War were vastly important; and for these services he was made major-general United States Army. He held the office of quartermaster-general many years after the war.

Meigs, RETURN JONATHAN, was born at Middletown, Conn., in December, 1740; died at the Cherokee Agency, Jan. 28, 1823. He hastened with a company to Cambridge after the affair at Lexington. He accompanied Arnold to Quebec, with the rank of major (see *Arnold's Expedition*), where he was made prisoner. Having raised a regiment in 1777, he was made a colonel, and performed a brilliant exploit at Sag Harbor (which see). He commanded a regiment at Stony Point (which see), and served faithfully to the end of the war. Colonel Meigs was one of the first settlers of Marietta, O. He was Wayne's commissary of clothing in 1794.

Meigs, RETURN JONATHAN, son of the preceding, was born at Middletown, Conn., in November, 1765; died at Marietta, O., March 29, 1825. He graduated at Yale College in 1785. He became a lawyer, and went with his father among the first settlers of Marietta, O., in 1788. There he took a conspicuous part in public affairs, and was often engaged in Indian fights. From 1803 to 1804 he was Chief-justice of Ohio; and for two years he was commander of the St. Charles District of Louisiana, with the brevet of colonel United States Army. He was a United States district judge in Michigan; United States Senator from 1808 to 1810; and Governor of Ohio from 1810 to 1814. His services during the War of 1812 were of incalculable value. From 1814 to 1823 Meigs was Postmaster-general.

Melyn, CORNELIUS, a patroon. Cornelius Melyn, of Antwerp, came to Manhattan in 1639, and was so pleased that he returned and brought over his family and began a colony on Staten Island, under the authority of the Amsterdam directors. His domain was near the Narrows, and he was vested with the privilege of a patroon. Melyn was active, and was chosen one of the Eight Men, under Kieft. He quarrelled with Kieft, and, as President of the Eight Men, he wrote a vigorous letter to the States-General, urging them to interfere in behalf of the

province. (See *Addresses of the People of New Netherland.*) On the accession of Stuyvesant, he was falsely accused of rebellious practices as one of Kieft's Council of Eight Men, and a prejudiced verdict was given against him. He was sentenced to seven years' banishment from the colony, to pay a heavy fine, and to "forfeit all benefits to be derived from the company." Kuyter, another of the Eight involved in the same charges, received a similar but less severe punishment. He and Melyn sailed for Holland in the same ship with Kieft, which was lost on the coast of Wales (see *Kieft*), but both were saved, while eighty others were drowned. The proper authorities in Holland reversed the sentence, and Melyn and Kuyter returned to Manhattan, when he demanded that his vindication should be made as public as had the sentence of disgrace; but this redress was denied. Melyn was persistently persecuted by Stuyvesant, and at length, weary with suffering, he returned to Holland to seek justice there. He joined delegates of the commonalty of New Amsterdam, who wrote voluminous documents—the Great Remonstrance—filled with complaints against Stuyvesant's administration. There were promises of relief, but their fulfilment was delayed, and when Melyn returned to New Netherland Stuyvesant renewed his persecutions. He made new charges against the patroon, confiscated his property in New Amsterdam, and compelled him to confine himself to his manor on Staten Island. Melyn finally abandoned New Netherland (1657) and went to New Haven, where he took the oath of fidelity; and in 1661 he surrendered his manor and patroonship to the West India Company. Soon afterwards the whole of Staten Island became the property of the company.

Memminger, CHARLES GUSTAVUS, was born in Württemberg, Germany, June 7, 1803. He graduated at South Carolina College in 1820, and began to practise law in 1826. In the nullification movement in South Carolina (see *Nullification*) he was a leader of the Union men. In 1860 he was a leader of the Secessionists in that state, and on the formation of the Confederate government was made Secretary of the Treasury. He had been for nearly twenty years at the head of the Finance Committee of the South Carolina Legislature. Died March 7, 1888.

Memminger's Mission to Virginia. In January, 1860, C. G. Memminger, of South Carolina, as a representative of the political leaders in that state, appeared before the Legislature of Virginia as a special commissioner to enlist the representatives of the "Old Dominion" in a scheme of disunion. In the name of South Carolina, he proposed a convention of the slave-labor states to consider their grievances and to "take action for their defence." In an able plea he reminded the Virginians of their narrow escape from disaster by John Brown's Raid (which see), and the necessity of a Southern union to provide against similar perils. He concluded by saying, "I have delivered into the keeping of Virginia the cause of the South." He reported that he "found it difficult to see

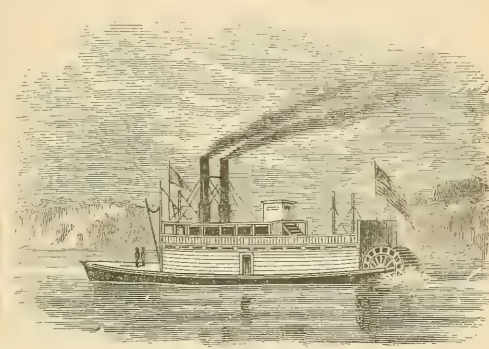
through" the Virginia Legislature, for they hesitated to receive his gospel. The slaveholders of that state, who were deriving a princely revenue from the inter-state slave-trade—from \$12,000,000 to \$20,000,000 a year—were averse to forming a part of a confederacy in which the African slave-trade was to be reopened and encouraged. Mr. Memminger, in his report, said: "I see no men, however, who would take the position of leaders in a revolution."

Memorial of Revenue Officers (1768). On the day after the Massachusetts Circular (see *Circular Letter of Massachusetts*), the Board of Commissioners of the Revenue at Boston addressed, with great secrecy, a memorial to the Board of Trade in England, complaining of seditious writings like the *Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer* (by Dickinson), the boldness of the newspaper press, the noxious influence of town-meetings in New England, the sin of Massachusetts in inviting the other provinces to discontinue the consumption of British manufactures, and giving their opinion that they would find it impracticable to execute the revenue laws unless the people should be made to feel the strong arm of the British government; in other words, until a fleet and an army should be sent to Boston. Governor Bernard made a report of like tenor. The crown officers in Massachusetts counselled the British government to change the charter of the colony and send a military force.

Memorial, or Decoration, Day. The 30th day of May is made by law a holiday for the citizens of the United States, when the touching ceremony of decorating the graves of Union soldiers all over the land is performed, in public and private cemeteries, with appropriate ceremonies. The 20th of May is observed in the Southern States as "Memorial Day," when the graves of Confederate soldiers are also decorated with flowers, with imposing ceremonies.

Memphis (TENN.), CAPTURE OF. After the capture of Island Number Ten, Commodore Foote went down the Mississippi with his flotilla, and transports bearing Pope's army, to attempt the capture of Memphis, but was confronted at Chickasaw Bluffs, eighty miles above that city, by a Confederate flotilla under Captain J. S. Hollins (see *Greytown, Attack upon*) and three thousand troops under General Jeff. M. Thompson, who occupied a military work on the Bluffs, called Fort Pillow, then in command of General Villepigne, an accomplished engineer. On April 14 (1862) Foote began a siege of Fort Pillow with his mortar-boats, and soon drove Hollins to the shelter of that work. Pope, whose troops had landed on the Arkansas shore, was unable to co-operate, because the country was flooded, and being soon called by Halleck to Shiloh, Foote was left to operate alone. He was finally compelled to turn over the command to Captain C. H. Davis on account of the painfulness of a wound he had received at Fort Donelson. On May 10 Hollins attacked Davis, but was repulsed, notwithstanding he was aided by the heavy guns of Fort Pillow. For more than a fortnight afterwards the belligerent fleets

watched each other, when a "ram" squadron (see *Southwest Pass*), commanded by Colonel Charles Ellet, Jr., joined Davis's flotilla and



ELLET'S STERN WHEEL RAM.

prepared to attack Hollins. The Confederates, having just heard of the flight of Beauregard from Corinth, which uncovered Memphis, hastily evacuated Fort Pillow (June 4) and fled down the river in transports to Memphis, followed by Hollins's flotilla. On the 6th of June the National flotilla won a victory over the Confederate squadron in front of Memphis, when that city was surrendered to the Union forces. It was speedily occupied by troops under General Lew. Wallace, who were received with joy by the Union citizens. All Kentucky, western Tennessee, northern Mississippi, and Alabama were now in possession of the National authorities.

Men and Money called for (1782). The defeat of Cornwallis seemed to prophesy speedy peace, yet Washington wisely counselled ample preparations for carrying on the war. He spent some time in Philadelphia in arranging plans for the campaign of 1782. The Congress had already (Oct. 1, 1781) called upon the several states for \$8,000,000, payable quarterly in specie or commissary certificates, besides an additional outstanding requisition. The states were requested to impose separate and distinct taxes for their respective quotas of the sum of \$8,000,000; the taxes to be made payable to the Loan-office Commissioners, or to federal collectors to be appointed by the Superintendent of Finance, for whom was asked the same power possessed by the state collector. At Washington's suggestion, a circular letter, containing an earnest call for men and money, was sent to the executive of each of the states; but the people were so much impoverished by the war and exhausted by past efforts that the call was feebly responded to; besides, the general expectations of peace furnished excuses for backwardness.

Menendez Hangs Huguenots in Florida.
(See *Huguenots in America*.)

Menendez, PEDRO, D'AVILES, was born at Aviles, Spain, in 1519, and entered the Spanish naval service in his youth. After successfully battling with French corsairs, Philip II. of Spain appointed him captain-general of the India fleet. Menendez carried that monarch to England to

marry Queen Mary, and took him back on his return. In 1565 Philip made him Governor of Florida; and just before he was to depart the king was informed of the Huguenot settlement there, and fitted out an expedition for their destruction. Menendez sailed with thirty-four vessels, bearing twenty-six hundred persons—farmers, mechanics, soldiers, and priests. Arriving at Porto Rico with a small part of his force, Menendez heard of the reinforcements Ribault had taken to Florida, and he immediately went to the mouth of the St. John with Philip's cruel order to murder all the Huguenots. Failing to catch the French fleet that escaped from the St. John, Menendez landed farther southward, built a fort, and founded St. Augustine. Marching overland, he attacked and captured the French Fort Carolina, putting nearly the whole of the garrison to death. Only seventy of the colonists escaped, and some of the prisoners were hanged. Ribault's ships that went out to drive Menendez from St. Augustine were wrecked, and a portion of the crew, with Ribault, falling into the hands of the Spaniards, were nearly all put to death. These outrages were avenged by a Frenchman named De Gourgues. In 1570 Menendez sent a colony of Jesuits to establish a mission near Chesapeake Bay. They were massacred by the Indians. In 1572 he explored the Potomac and the Chesapeake Bay, and was preparing to colonize that region, when his king appointed him commander of a fleet against the Low Countries. While preparing for this expedition he died, Sept. 17, 1574. (See *Huguenots in America*.)

Menomonees. A family of the Algonquin nation, residing always upon the Menomonee River, in Wisconsin, which empties into Green Bay. They assert that their ancestors emigrated from the east, but they were found on their present domain in 1640 by the French. Jesuit missions were established among them in 1670 by Allouez and others. The Menomonees were fast friends of the French, marched to the relief of Detroit in 1712, and subsequently drove the Foxes from Green Bay. Some of their warriors were with the French against Braddock in 1755; also at the capture of Fort William Henry, on Lake George, and on the Plains of Abraham with Montcalm. In the Revolution and the War of 1812 they were the friends of the English. They assisted in the capture of Mackinaw in 1812 (see *Mackinaw*), and were with Tecumtha at Fort Meigs and at Fort Stephenson in 1813. After that they made several treaties with the United States, and they served the government against the Sacs and Foxes in 1832. (See *Black Hawk War*.) The religion of the Menomonees was that of all the other tribes in the North. They are now about half pagans and half Roman Catholics. They refused to join the Sioux in their outbreak in 1861, and several of their warriors were volunteers in the National army. They are fading, like some of the other tribes. In 1822 they numbered nearly 4000; in 1872 their number was only 1480. The use of strong drink, introduced by white people, is destroying them.

Mercer, HUGH, was born at Aberdeen, Scotland, in 1721; died at Princeton, N. J., Jan. 12, 1777. He was a physician, and was assistant surgeon at the battle of Culloden, on the side of the Pretender, and was obliged to leave his country. He came to America in 1747, was a captain in the French and Indian War, was severely wounded in the battle where Braddock was defeated, and received a medal from the corporation of Philadelphia for his prowess in that expedition. He was made lieutenant-colonel in 1758. He entered heartily into the military service when the war for independence broke out, and was made colonel of a Virginia regiment in February, 1776. In June following Congress made him a brigadier-general. He led the column of attack at the Battle of Trenton (which see), and at the council of war there he suggested the daring night march on Princeton. In the battle that ensued the following morning he was mortally wounded. (See *Princeton*.)



HUGH MERCER, JR.

Congress provided for the education of his son, Hugh (portrait above), who died at Fredericksburg, Va., Dec. 2, 1853.

Merino Sheep were first introduced into the United States from Spain by Colonel David Humphreys (late minister to the Spanish court) in 1802. He brought one hundred of that breed to New England. For this act, so useful in providing for the improvement of sheep in America, the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture presented Colonel Humphreys with a gold medal.

Merritt, WESLEY, was born in New York in 1836. He graduated at West Point in 1860, entering the Dragoons. He became captain of cavalry in 1862, and brigadier-general of volunteers in 1863. He was a very active and efficient leader of cavalry until the end of the Civil War, his field of operations having been chiefly in Virginia, in the Army of the Potomac, to the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court-house. In March, 1865, he was breveted brigadier-general in the United States Army, and held (1893) the rank of brig.-general in the regular army.

Merry Mount. (See *Salem*.)

Metcalfe, THOMAS, was born in Fauquier County, Va., March 20, 1780; died in Nicholas County, Ky., Aug. 18, 1855. He became a stone-

cutter at the age of sixteen, in Kentucky, whither his parents had removed, devoting all his leisure to study, and became quite a popular public speaker. When the War of 1812-15 broke out he entered the military service, and commanded a company at the siege of Fort Meigs in 1813. After serving several years in the Kentucky Legislature, he was elected to Congress, wherein he labored from 1819 to 1829. From 1828 to 1832 he was governor of Kentucky, State Senator in 1834, and United States Senator in 1849.

Methodist Bishop, THE FIRST, IN THE UNITED STATES. Soon after the close of the old war for independence, Thomas Coke, an able coadjutor of Wesley, and ordained by him bishop, arrived in New York (November, 1784), bringing with him Wesley's plan of government and discipline for the Methodist Episcopal Church. The new sect spread rapidly, especially in Maryland and Virginia, particularly among the poorer classes.

Methodists, THE, AND SLAVERY (1780). At their General Conference in 1780 the Methodists of the United States, agreeing with the Friends, or Quakers, voted "slave-keeping contrary to the laws of God, man, and nature."

Mexican Boundary Question. A serious difficulty had arisen between the United States and Mexico in 1853-54, which at one time threatened war between the two nations. The Mesilla valley, a fertile and extensive region, was claimed by the Province of Chihuahua, in Mexico, and by the United States Territory of New Mexico. Under the direction of Santa Ana (who was again President of Mexico in 1852), Chihuahua took armed possession of the disputed territory. The dispute was finally settled by negotiation, and friendly relations between the two governments have since been maintained. During the late Civil War the relations of the United States with Mexico were delicate, while French bayonets kept Maximilian on a throne in the latter country; but the government of the United States steadily acknowledged the Republic, and, diplomatically, the Emperor of Mexico was unknown at Washington. (See *Maximilian*.)

Mexican Migration and Settlement. The original Mexicans, it is said, lived in a country north of California until about the year A.D. 1160, when they began their migration southward towards the country of Anahuac. After a temporary residence at several intermediate places, they arrived on the borders of Lake Tezcuco, and founded a city. They first erected a temple for their god, Huitzlopochtli, around which they built huts of reeds and rushes.

Mexico, when first discovered by the Spanish adventurers, was in the possession of the Aztecs, a semi-civilized race of dark-hued people, who called their country *Mexitli*. Older occupants were the Toltecs, who came to the Valley of Mexico about the sixth century, and were the first known tribe on this continent who left a written account of their nationality and polity. Their empire ended in the twelfth century. The

Aztecs appeared at the close of the thirteenth century, coming from Azatlan, an unknown region in the North. They seem to have first halted in their migrations southward at the Great Salt Lake in Utah; the next on the River Gila; and the last on the high plateau in the Valley of Mexico, where they led a nomadic life until early in the fourteenth century, when they laid the foundations of a city upon an island in Lake Tezcuco, and called it Tenochtitlan; afterwards Mexitli (Spanish, Mexico), after their supreme god. It was a large and prosperous city when Cortez entered it on the 8th of November, 1519. Montezuma was then emperor of the extended domain of the Aztecs. He lived in a fine palace in the city. Another palace was assigned to the use of Cortez as a guest, large enough to hold his whole army. By treachery and violence that adventurer took possession of the city and empire, caused the death of Montezuma and his successor, and annexed Mexico as a province to Spain. (See *Cortez*, *Hernando*.) The Mexicans were then very much enlightened. They worked metals, practised many of the useful arts, had a system of astronomy, kept their records in hieroglyphics, and practised the fine arts of architecture and sculpture in a remarkable degree. They had a temple, pyramidal in shape, constructed solidly of earth and pebbles, and coated externally with hewn stones. The base was three hundred feet square, and its top was reached by one hundred and fourteen steps spirally constructed. The top was a large area paved with great flat stones, and on it were two towers or sanctuaries, and before each an altar on which fire was perpetually burning. There they made human sacrifices. The conquest by Cortez was accomplished by the aid of native allies who had been subjected by the Aztecs and hated them. He began to rebuild the city of Mexico on its present plan while he was governor, and it remained in possession of the Spanish government until 1821, or just three hundred years. After years of revolutionary movements the Spanish province of Mexico was declared independent, Feb. 24, 1821, with Don Augustin Iturbide, a native of Mexico, at the head of the government as a republic. He afterwards became emperor. In 1836 it lost the fine province of Texas by revolution, and ten years afterwards that portion of ancient Mexico was annexed to the United States. (See *War with Mexico*.) In 1864 Napoleon III. placed Maximilian, an archduke of Austria, on a throne in Mexico, with the title of emperor. Juarez, the deposed president of the republic, struggled for power with the troops of the usurper, and succeeded. The emperor of the French withdrew his troops and abandoned Maximilian, who, early in 1867, was defeated and made prisoner, and was shot on the 19th of June. The republic was re-established, and the country entered upon an era of comparative peace and prosperity.

Mexico, CITY OF, TAKEN BY CORTEZ (1519). With four hundred and fifty Spaniards and six thousand Tlascalans (which see), Cortez appeared before the city of Mexico, Nov. 8, 1519. He was at Iztapalapan, six miles from the city

He marched along a grand paved causeway, eight yards wide, extending across Lake Tezcuco directly to the city. It was crowded with people—as were all the towers, temples, and other causeways—many of them drawn by mere curiosity. Before them lay the great city of Mexico (an Indian name, signifying the place of Mexitli, the Mars of the Aztecs), but commonly called, before 1530, Tenochtitlan. The Spaniards, instead of meeting fierce warriors, were confronted by a great number of lords from the court of Montezuma, covered with mantles of fine cotton and wearing great plumes, who announced the approach of their emperor. Soon afterwards appeared two hundred other persons in a uniform dress, marching in couples in deep silence, barefooted, and their eyes fixed on the ground. Then came a company of higher rank, in showy apparel, in the midst of whom was Montezuma, borne on a magnificent litter, carried by his principal nobility. He and Cortez alighted at the same time, and approached each other with great respect and dignity. Montezuma's attendants covered the street with cotton cloth, that his feet might not touch the ground. He wore a superb dress, glittering with jewels. After mutual salutation, the emperor conducted Cortez to quarters in the city prepared for the latter, when he took leave of his intrusive guest with courtly expressions of hospitality. Cortez took precautions against treachery. He planted his cannons so as to command different avenues that led to his dwelling-place. He posted sentinels, and kept a large division of his troops constantly on guard. With audacity born of fear and desperation (for he was really at the mercy of the emperor), Cortez resolved to seize Montezuma in his palace and bring him to Spanish headquarters. With five of his principal officers and as many soldiers, and thirty of the latter class following at a distance, carelessly, as if for the gratification of mere curiosity, he went, at the usual hour of visiting Montezuma, directly to the palace on the hill Chapultepec, where they were admitted without suspicion. Cortez boldly made a charge against the emperor of a treacherous attempt against the Spaniards, and also a peremptory demand for satisfaction from Montezuma. Indignant at the conduct of Cortez, he as peremptorily refused; but, at the end of an altercation of three hours, the intimidated monarch complied. His officers, astonished and grieved, "carried him in silent pomp" to the quarters of Cortez. There he continued six months, exercising imperial rule, though really a prisoner in the hands of the invaders. He was compelled to acknowledge himself a vassal of the Spanish crown, and to pay tribute to it. So Mexico became a conquered city, without bloodshed at that time. (See *Montezuma*.)

Mexico, FINAL CONQUEST OF, BY CORTEZ. Early in 1521 Cortez, with more than 200 Spaniards, 3000 Tlascalans, and many of the Tezcuacan nobility, marched upon Iztapalapan, near the city of Mexico. They found it nearly deserted, and the invaders sacked and burned the city. Cortez was now reinforced by native tribes, who

joined the standard of the Spaniards. He had caused thirteen brigantines to be built at Tlascalala, which, in sections, were carried on the shoulders of Tlascalans to Lake Tezcuco. Everything necessary for their equipment was carried on the backs of 8000 of their allies. For the transportation of provisions, 2000 were employed; and there were 30,000 of these dusky allies armed for battle. The brigantines were launched on the lake April 28, 1521. The allies, on notice being given, came in vast numbers to the aid of the Spaniards. At Tezcuco Cortez prepared his forces for the siege. He had 917 Spaniards, and more than 75,000 auxiliaries, which number was soon increased to 200,000. He seized the principal causeways, took command of the brigantines himself, divided his army into three parts, and began the siege on May 30. After several days the invaders penetrated to the great square of the city, but were so violently assailed that they were compelled to retreat. At length Cortez determined to make a general assault. On the day appointed he marched with twenty-five horses, all his infantry, and more than 100,000 allies; his brigantines, with more than 3000 canoes, forming the two wings of the army on each side of the causeway over which they approached. He entered the city with very little opposition, when the Mexicans feigned a retreat. Pushing easily into the city, the Spaniards left a broad gap in their line on the causeway. Suddenly the Mexican priests blew the horn of the god Painalon, the alarm in great danger, which excited the Mexicans, and a multitude assembled and poured with fury on their assailants, compelling them to retreat in confusion. When attempting to pass the gap, which seemed to be filled with fagots and other light materials, the causeway there sank with the weight of the multitude, and Spanish footmen and horsemen, Tlascalans and others, plunged into the abyss, the Mexicans rushing upon them from every side. Cortez was seized and borne away to become a human sacrifice, but was rescued. Forty of his Castilian companions were taken alive and immediately sacrificed in the great temple. Various successes followed subsequent struggles. Quonhtemotzin (see *Guatimozin*), the successor of Montezuma, daily lost an incredible number of his subjects, refused frequent demands for a surrender, and famine began its work in the city, for Cortez, by the vast number of his allies, had shut up all avenues of supplies for the besieged town. Cortez now made another combined assault, and 40,000 Mexicans, it is said, were slain. The stench of the slain was intolerable. Three fourths of the city, which contained 60,000 houses, were in ruins. During the last assault (Aug. 13, 1521), when it was seen that longer resistance would be useless, Quonhtemotzin and his court attempted to escape, but were caught. "I am your prisoner," said the king to his captors. "I have no favor to ask but that you will show the queen, my wife, and her attendants, the respect due to their sex and rank." The Mexicans were now expelled from the city without arms or baggage. The conquest of the capital, after a siege of sev-

enty-five days, was complete, and that conquest decided the fate of the empire. The whole of Mexico soon afterwards passed under the dominion of Spain. The Mexicans lost, in killed, wounded, and by sickness, about 100,000 men. Believing immense treasures to be hidden, and that Quauhquemotzin knew where they were concealed, he was subjected to cruel torture—burning his feet slowly, after being anointed with oil. About three years afterwards, because of some suspicious circumstances in their conduct, this king, and those of Tezcuco and Tlacopan, were hanged on the same tree by their feet, to lengthen their torment.

Mexico, SURRENDER OF THE CITY OF (1847). On the fall of Chapultepec (see *Chapultepec, Battle of*) there was nothing between General Scott's veteran troops and the capital, on the evening of Sept. 13, 1847. That night terror reigned in the capital. Santa Aña, thoroughly alarmed, and his army hopelessly shattered, fled from the city with the remnant of his troops (about 2000 in number), accompanied by the officers of the civil government of the republic. Scott prepared to enter the city the next morning with Worth's division. At four o'clock a deputation of the City Council waited upon Scott to beg him to spare the town and propose terms of capitulation. He would make no terms, but ordered Generals Worth and Quitman to move forward through the Cosmo Gate to the Grand Plaza in the city. The American flag was there unfurled from the top of the national palace. At that moment the magnificent figure of Scott, in full uniform, and mounted on his powerful white charger, rode through the columns to the Grand Plaza, the bands playing "Yankee Doodle." The chief dismounted, took off his hat, and, drawing his sword and raising it high above his head, he proclaimed in a loud voice the conquest of Mexico, and took formal possession of the republic. At that moment a musket-fire upon the American troops began from windows and house-tops. Bands of Mexican soldiers had been hidden in the city, and this attack was made by them without the approval of the Mexican authorities. This kind of warfare continued nearly all day, and many American officers were killed or wounded. By sweeping the streets with light batteries and picking off the assailants with rifles, they were silenced before night. A threat to destroy the city put an end to this treacherous conduct. General Quitman was appointed by Scott civil and military governor, and the city of Mexico remained in the hands of the Americans until after the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (which see) was made, some months afterwards. Scott imposed a contribution of \$150,000 on the city for the use of his army. In the battles in the vicinity of the city the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, 2713; the loss of the Mexicans, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was 10,730, the prisoners amounting to 3730.

Mexico, TREATY WITH (1854). Unfaithful American citizens plotted schemes against the honor of their own country, the peace of neigh-

boring provinces, and for the extinction of the Mexican republic. (See *Knights of the Golden Circle*.) While the plots were fast ripening, the two governments successfully negotiated a treaty by which the boundary-line between the United States and Mexico was defined and fixed. The treaty was ratified early in 1854, and it was agreed that the decisions of the commissioners appointed under it to revise the boundary should be final. By that treaty the United States was to be released from all obligations imposed by the treaty of peace with Mexico in 1848, and, as a consideration for this release and for the territory ceded by Mexico, the United States agreed to pay the latter \$10,000,000—\$7,000,000 on the ratification of the treaty, and the remainder as soon as the boundary-line should be established. These conditions were complied with, and peace between the two countries has never since been broken.

Mexico, WAR WITH (1846–48). The annexation of Texas, as had been predicted, caused an immediate rupture between the United States and Mexico, for the latter claimed Texas as a part of her territory, notwithstanding its independence had been acknowledged by the United States, England, France, and other governments. When Congress had adopted the joint resolution for the Annexation of Texas (which see) to the United States, General Almonte, the Mexican minister at Washington, protested against the measure and demanded his passports. On the 4th of June following, the President of Mexico (Herrera) issued a proclamation declaring the right of Mexico to the Texan territory, and his determination to defend it by arms, if necessary. At the same time there existed another cause for serious dispute between the United States and Mexico. The latter had been an unjust and injurious neighbor ever since the establishment of republican government in Mexico in 1824. Impoverished by civil war, it did not hesitate to replenish its treasury by plundering American vessels in the Gulf of Mexico, or by confiscating the property of American merchants within its borders. The United States government remonstrated in vain until 1831, when a treaty was made and promises of redress were given. These promises were never fulfilled. Robberies continued; and, in 1840, the aggregate value of property belonging to Americans which had been appropriated by the Mexicans amounted to more than \$6,000,000. The claim for this amount was unsatisfied when the annexation of Texas took place in 1845. Being fully aware of the hostile feelings of the Mexicans, President Polk ordered (July, 1845) General Zachary Taylor, then in command of the United States troops in the Southwest, to go to Texas and take a position as near the Rio Grande as prudence would allow. This force, about 1500 strong, was called the "Army of Occupation" for the defence of Texas. At the same time a strong naval force, under Commodore Conner, sailed to the Gulf of Mexico to protect American interests there. In September Taylor formed a camp at Corpus Christi, and there remained during the autumn and winter. He was ordered (Jan. 13,

1846) to move from his camp at Corpus Christi to the Rio Grande, opposite the Spanish city of Matamoras, because Mexican troops were gathering in that direction. This was disputed territory between Texas and the neighboring province of Tamaulipas. When he encamped at Point Isabel (March 25, 1846), on the coast, twenty-eight miles from Matamoras, Taylor was warned by the Mexicans that he was upon foreign soil. He left his stores at Point Isabel, under a guard of 450 men, and, with the remainder of his army, advanced to the bank of the Rio Grande, where he established a camp and began the erection of a fort, which he named Fort Brown, in honor of Major Brown, in command there. The Mexicans were so eager for war that, because President Herrera was anxious for peace with the United States, they elected General Paredes to succeed him. The latter sent General Ampudia, with a large force, to drive the Americans beyond the Nueces. This officer demanded of General Taylor (April 12) the withdrawal of his troops within twenty-four hours. Taylor refused, and continued to strengthen Fort Brown. Ampudia hesitated, when General Arista was put in his place as commander-in-chief of the Northern Division of the Army of Mexico. He was strongly reinforced, and the position of the Army of Occupation became critical. Parties of armed Mexicans soon got between Point Isabel and Fort Brown, and had cut off all intercommunication. A reconnoitring party under Captain Thornton was surprised and captured (April 24) on the Texas side of the Rio Grande, when Lieutenant Mason was killed. Having completed his fort, Taylor hastened to the relief of Point Isabel (May 1), which was menaced by a Mexican force, 1500 strong, collected in the rear. He reached Point Isabel the same day. This departure of Taylor from the Rio Grande emboldened the Mexicans, who opened fire upon Fort Brown (May 3) from Matamoras, and a large body crossed the river to attack it in the rear. Taylor had left orders that, in case of an attack, if peril appeared imminent, signal guns must be fired, and he would hasten to the relief of the fort. On the 6th, when the Mexicans began to plant cannons in the rear and Major Brown was mortally wounded, the signals were given, and Taylor marched for the Rio Grande on the evening of the 7th, with a little more than 2000 men, having been reinforced by Texan volunteers and marines from the fleet. At noon the next day he fought and defeated Arista, with 6000 troops, at Palo Alto (which see). At two o'clock the next morning his wearied army was summoned to renew its march, and, towards evening, fought a more sanguinary battle with the same Mexicans, at a place called Resaca de la Palma (which see). Again the Americans were victorious. The Mexican army in Texas was completely broken up. Arista saved himself by solitary flight across the Rio Grande. The garrison at Fort Brown was relieved. In the meanwhile, Congress had declared (May 11, 1846) that, "by the act of the Republic of Mexico, a state of war exists between that government and the United States,"

and authorized the President to raise 50,000 volunteers. They also (May 13) appropriated \$10,000,000 for carrying on the war. The Secretary of War and General Scott planned a magnificent campaign. On the 23d of May the Mexican government also declared war. (See *Taylor's Campaign*.) Taylor crossed the Rio Grande, drove the Mexican troops from Matamoras, took possession of the town (May 18), and remained there until August, when he received reinforcements and orders from his government. Then, with more than 6000 troops, he moved on Monterey, defended by General Ampudia with more than 9000 troops. It was a very strongly built town, at the foot of the great Sierra Madre. A siege commenced Sept. 21 and ended with the capture of the place on the 24th. General Wool had been directed to muster and prepare for service the volunteers gathered at Bexar, in Texas, and by the middle of July (1846) 12,000 of them had been mustered into the service. Of these, 9000 were sent to reinforce Taylor. Wool went up the Rio Grande with about 3000 troops, crossed the river at Presidio, penetrated Mexico, and, in the last of October, reached Monclova, seventy miles northwest of Monterey. He pushed on to Coahuila, where he obtained ample supplies for his own and Taylor's troops. General Taylor had agreed to an armistice at Monterey. This was ended Nov. 13, by order of his government, when, leaving General Butler in command at Monterey, he marched to Victoria, the capital of Tamaulipas, with the intention of attacking Tampico, on the coast. Meanwhile, General Worth, with 900 men, had taken possession of Saltillo (Nov. 15), the capital of Coahuila. Taylor, ascertaining that Tampico had already surrendered to the Americans (Nov. 14), and that Santa Aña was collecting a large force at San Luis Potosi, returned to Monterey to reinforce Worth, if necessary. Worth was joined at Saltillo by Wool's division (Dec. 20), and Taylor again advanced to Victoria (Dec. 29). Just as he was about to proceed to a vigorous campaign, Taylor received orders from General Scott, at Vera Cruz, to send the latter a large portion of his (Taylor's) best officers and troops, and to act only on the defensive. This was a severe trial for Taylor, but he cheerfully obeyed. He and Wool were left with an aggregate force of only about 5000 men, of whom only 500 were regulars, to oppose 20,000, then gathering at San Luis Potosi, under Santa Aña. Taylor and Wool united their forces (Feb. 4, 1847) on the San Luis road, determined to fight the Mexicans, who were approaching. The opportunity was not long delayed. The Americans fell back to Buena Vista, within eleven miles of Saltillo, and encamped in a narrow defile, and there a severe battle was fought (Feb. 23, 1847), resulting in victory for the Americans.—General S. W. Kearny was placed in command of the Army of the West, with instructions to conquer New Mexico and California. He left Fort Leavenworth in June, 1846, and, after a journey of nine hundred miles over the great plains and among mountain ranges, he arrived at Santa Fé (August 18), having met with no resistance.

Appointing Charles Brent governor, he marched towards California, and was soon met by an express from Commodore Stockton and Lieutenant-colonel Frémont, informing him that the conquest of California had been achieved. Frémont and a party of explorers, sixty in number, joined by American settlers in the vicinity of San Francisco, had captured a Mexican force at Sonoma Pass (June 15, 1846), with the garrison, nine cannons, and two hundred and fifty muskets. He then defeated another force at Sonoma, and drove the Mexican authorities out of that region of country. On July 5 the Americans in California declared themselves independent, and put Frémont at the head of affairs. On the 7th Commodore Sloat, with a squadron, bombarded and captured Monterey, on the coast; on the 9th Commodore Montgomery took possession of San Francisco. Commodore Stockton and Colonel Frémont took possession of Los Angeles on the 17th of August, and there they were joined by Kearny, who had sent the main body of his troops back to Santa Fé. With these officers, he shared in the honors of the final event which completed the conquest and pacification of California. Frémont, in disobedience of the commands of Kearny, his superior officer, went to Monterey, and there, in conjunction with Commodore Shubrick, assumed the office of governor, and proclaimed (Feb. 8, 1847) the annexation of California to the United States. Frémont was tried for disobedience and deprived of his commission. It was soon offered to him again, but he refused to accept it, and went to the wilderness on another exploring expedition. Meanwhile, Colonel Doniphan, detached by Kearny, with 1000 Missouri volunteers, marched towards Chihuahua to join General Wool. In two engagements with Mexicans he was victorious, and entered the capital of Chihuahua in triumph (March 2, 1847), and took possession of the province. After resting six weeks, he joined Wool at Saltillo, and thence returned to New Orleans, having made a perilous march from the Mississippi of about five thousand miles. The conquest of all northern Mexico was now complete, and General Scott was on his march for the capital. He had landed near Vera Cruz, March 9, 1847, with an army of 13,000 men. It had been borne thither by a powerful squadron, commanded by Commodore Conner. He invested the city of Vera Cruz on the 13th, and on the 27th it was surrendered, with the castle of San Juan de Ulloa. Scott took possession of the city two days afterwards, and, on the 8th of April, the advance of his army, under General Twiggs, began its march for the capital, by way of Jalapa. Santa Aña had advanced, with 12,000 men, to meet the invaders, and had taken post at Cerro Gordo, a difficult mountain pass at the foot of the Eastern Cordilleras. Scott had followed Twiggs with the rest of his army, and, on the 18th of April, defeated the Mexicans at that strong pass, and, pushing forward, entered Jalapa on the 19th. On the 22d the American flag was unfurled over the Castle of Perote, on the summit of the eastern Cordilleras, fifty miles from Jalapa. This

was considered the strongest fortress in Mexico, excepting Vera Cruz. It was surrendered without resistance, and with it fifty-four pieces of cannon, some mortars, and a large amount of munitions of war. Onward the victorious army marched, and entered the fortified city of Puebla (May 15), a city of eighty thousand inhabitants; and there the army rested until August. Being reinforced, Scott then pushed on towards the capital. From that very spot on the lofty Cordilleras, Cortez first looked down upon the quiet Valley of Mexico, centuries before. Scott now beheld that spacious panorama, the seat of the capital of the Aztecs—the “Halls of the Montezumas.” He pushed cautiously forward, and approached the stronghold before the city. The fortified camp of Contreras was taken by the Americans on Aug. 20, 1847. Then the strong fortress of San Antonio yielded the same day. The heights of Churubusco were attacked. Santa Aña advanced, and soon the whole region became one great battle-field, under the eye and control of Scott, the American commander-in-chief. Churubusco was taken; and Santa Aña fled towards the capital. A Mexican army, 30,000 strong, had in a single day been broken up by another less than one third its strength, in number, and at almost every step the Americans were successful. Full 4000 Mexicans were killed and wounded, 3000 were made prisoners, and 37 pieces of cannon were taken on that memorable 20th of August. The Americans had lost 1100 in killed and wounded. They might now have entered the city of Mexico in triumph, but General Scott preferred to bear the olive-branch rather than the palm. As he advanced to Tacuba (Aug. 21), only seven miles from the city, he met a deputation from Santa Aña to ask for an armistice, preparatory to negotiations for peace. It was granted. N. P. Trist, appointed by the United States government to treat for peace, was present. The treacherous Santa Aña had made this only a pretext to gain time to strengthen the defences of the city. When the trick was discovered, Scott declared the armistice at an end, and advanced upon the city. Less than 4000 Americans attacked Santa Aña with 14,000 Mexicans (Sept. 8), at Molino del Rey (the King's Mill), near Chapultepec. The combatants fought desperately and suffered dreadfully. The Mexicans left almost 1000 dead on the field; the Americans lost 800. The lofty battle-mmented hill of Chapultepec was doomed. It was the last place to be defended outside of the city. It was attacked by mortar and cannon shells and round-shot (Sept. 12), and the assault continued until the next day, when the American flag waved in triumph over the shattered Castle of Chapultepec. The Mexicans fled into the city, pursued by the Americans to the very gates. That night Santa Aña and his troops, with the civil officers, fled from the city, and, at four o'clock the next morning, a deputation from the municipal authorities waited upon Scott, begging him to spare the town and treat for peace. He would make no terms, but entered the capital of Mexico (Sept. 13, 1847) a

conqueror; and from the Grand Plaza he proclaimed the conquest of the Republic of Mexico. Santa Aña made some feeble efforts to regain lost power, but failed. He was defeated in two slight battles. Before the close of October he was stripped of every command, and fled for safety to the shores of the Gulf. The president of the Mexican Congress assumed provisional authority, and, on Feb. 2, 1848, that body concluded a treaty of peace with the United States commissioners at Guadalupe-Hidalgo. It was ratified by both governments, and, on July 4, 1848, President Polk proclaimed it. It stipulated the evacuation of Mexico by the American troops within three months; the payment of \$3,000,000 in hand, and \$12,000,000 in four annual instalments, by the United States to Mexico, for New Mexico and California, which had become territory of the United States by conquest, and, in addition, to assume debts due certain citizens of the United States from Mexico to the amount of \$3,500,000. It also fixed boundaries and otherwise adjusted matters in dispute.

Miami (or **Maumee**), the name of a large Indian family in the Ohio country, and of three streams that run through that state—namely, "Maumee of the Lakes," that enters Lake Erie at Toledo, and Great and Little Miami, which flow into the Ohio River. Maumee more nearly indicates the pronunciation of the name to the English ear. The Indians pronounced it as if spelled Me-aw-me. So the French spelled it, according to their pronunciation of the *i* and *a*, Mi-a-mi. (See *Miamis*.)

Miami, **FORT**, standing near (present) Fort Wayne, Ind., was garrisoned by Ensign Holmes and ten men. On the morning of May 27, 1763, he was informed that the fort at Detroit had been attacked, and he put his men on their guard. The same day an Indian woman came to Holmes, saying a squaw in a cabin three hundred yards off was ill and wished him to bleed her. He went out and was shot. The sergeant followed and was made prisoner, when the rest of the garrison surrendered to the savages who swarmed in the forest near. (See *Pontiac's War*.)

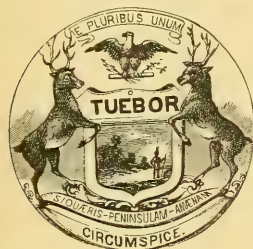
Miamis. This Algonquin family, when discovered by the French in 1658, were seated near Green Bay, Wis.; and their chief, having a body-guard, was treated with more reverence than was usual among the Northern Indians. The English and the Five Nations called them Twightwees. In 1683 they and their kindred (the Illinois) were attacked by the Iroquois, whom they drove back, though engaged at the same time in war with the fiery Sioux. Acting alternately as friends and foes of the French, they were ruthless, and were not trusted by Europeans. Some of them were with De Nonville in his expedition against the Five Nations in 1687; and they joined the Iroquois against the Hurons and opened intercourse with the English. In their wars with the French and the Sioux, the Miamis lost heavily; and, finally, in 1721, they were mostly seated upon the St. Joseph and the Maumee, near Fort Wayne, in eastern Indiana. Miami and Maumee are the same, the

latter simply showing the French pronunciation of the word. When the struggle for dominion began, between the French and English, the Miamis hesitated; and when the French power fell they would not allow the English to pass through their country for a while, and joined Pontiac in his operations. (See *Pontiac*.) During the Revolution they were friends of the English; and when, in 1790, General Harmar was sent against them, they put fifteen hundred warriors in the field with the famous Little Turtle at their head. They defeated Harmar, but were crushed by Wayne, and were parties to the treaty at Greenville in 1795. (See *Greenville, Treaty at*.) When Tecumtha conspired, they refused to join him, but favored the British in the War of 1812. Since that time they have rapidly declined. Intemperance has done its horrid work among them. In 1822 they numbered about twenty-five hundred; in 1873 the wretched remnant on the Quapaw reservation was only one hundred and fifty.

Miantonomoh succeeded Canonicus, his uncle, as sachem, or king, of the Narragansets in 1638. He was born in Rhode Island, and was a nephew of Ninegret. (See *Ninigret*.) As early as 1632 he visited Boston with his wife, and stayed two nights. He went to church with the English. Governor Winthrop took Miantonomoh and his attendants to his home and made much of them. In 1637 he assisted the English in the war with the Pequods. (See *Pequod War*.) At the beginning of 1638 he succeeded his uncle Canonicus as sachem of the Narragansets; and in March he granted lands on the island of Rhode Island to William Coddington and others, to make a settlement. Entering into an agreement with Uncas, sachem of the Mohegans, not to make war upon each other without first appealing to the English, he fell under the suspicions of the latter, and was cited to appear before the governor and council at Boston in 1642. Nothing being found against him, he was dismissed with honor. It was the policy of the English to foment a rivalry between the Mohegans and Narragansets, and Uncas was induced to insult and injure Miantonomoh as much as it was in his power to do. When Uncas pressed hard upon Miantonomoh, the latter made war. The Narragansets were beaten and their sachem was made prisoner. Uncas conveyed him to the English at Hartford, where, by the advice and consent of the magistrates and elders of the Church, this uniform friend of the white people was put to death, in obedience to a policy that thus favored the Mohegans. His death left an indelible stain upon the Connecticut authorities.

Michigan was discovered and settled by French missionaries and fur-traders. As early as 1610 the site of Detroit was visited by Frenchmen, and in 1641 some Jesuits reached the Falls of St. Mary. The first European settlements within the present limits of Michigan were made there by the establishment of a mission by Father Marquette and others in 1668. Three years later Fort Mackinaw was established, and in 1701 Detroit was founded. Michigan made slow

progress in population from that time until it was made a territory of the United States. It came into possession of the English by the treaty of 1763 (which see). It suffered from the conspiracy of Pontiac (which see); and it was some time after the treaty of peace, in 1783, before the British gave up the territory. The Americans did not take possession until 1796. At first it was a part of the Northwest Territory, and afterwards it formed a part of the Territory of Indiana.



STATE SEAL OF MICHIGAN.

It was erected into an independent territory in 1805, with William Hull as its first governor. In August, 1812, it fell into the hands of the British (see *Detroit, Surrender of*), and remained so until the fall of 1813, when Harrison reconquered it. (See *Thames, Battle of the*.)

The lands of Michigan were first brought into market for public sale in 1818, and from that time it dates its prosperity. The territory was authorized in 1819 to send a delegate to Congress, and in the election the right of suffrage was extended to all taxable citizens. Afterwards the Indians made important territorial cessions, and in 1836 all the lower peninsula and part of the upper were freed from Indian titles. The same year Wisconsin Territory was formed from the western portion of Michigan. The legislative power of Michigan was vested in the governor and judges until 1823, when Congress transferred it to a council of nine persons, selected by the President of the United States from eighteen chosen by the citizens. The council was increased to thirteen in 1825; but two years later the citizens were allowed to elect the councillors without the interference of the President or Congress. In 1835-36 there was a territorial dispute between Ohio and Michigan that, at one time, threatened civil war; but it was settled by Congress admitting the latter into the Union as a state, on condition that it should relinquish its claim to the disputed territory and accept in its stead the upper peninsula. In January, 1837, Michigan was admitted. In 1847 the seat of government was removed from Detroit to Lansing. In 1850 a new constitution was adopted, which, with subsequent amendments, is now in force. Michigan furnished to the national army, during the Civil War, 90,747 soldiers, of which number 14,823 perished. The expenditures of the state for carrying on the war were \$3,784,408; by counties, cities, and townships for the same purpose, \$10,173,336; and for the relief of soldiers' families by counties, \$3,591,248, or a total of nearly \$17,600,000. Population in 1890, 2,093,889.

Michigan, Efforts to Recover (1812). In consequence of alarming despatches from Hull, at Detroit, in July, 1812, a force to support him was organized at Georgetown, Ky.; but before it had crossed the Ohio news of the surrender at Detroit (which see) reached them. That event

stirred the patriotic zeal of the whole western country, and the greatest warlike enthusiasm prevailed. Volunteers gathered under local leaders in every direction. Companies were formed and equipped in a single day, and were ready to march the next. They passed over the Ohio from Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and Virginia; and the governor of Ohio sent forward two thousand men under General Tupper for the recovery of Michigan. General Harrison was appointed commander-in-chief of the Army of the Northwest. For several weeks volunteers found employment in driving the hostile Indians from post to post, in Ohio and Indiana, on the borders of the extreme western settlements. They desolated their villages and plantations, after the manner of Sullivan in 1779, and thereby incurred the fiercest indignation of the tribes. Harrison took steps early to relieve the frontier posts—Fort Harrison, on the Wabash; Fort Wayne, at the head of the Maumee; Fort Defiance, at the junction of the Auglaize and Maumee; and Fort Deposit. At Vincennes General Hopkins had assembled about four thousand mounted Kentucky militia to chastise the Indians on the borders of Illinois. They penetrated the Indian country beyond the Wabash; but, becoming alarmed, returned to Vincennes, and left the honors of the campaign to be gathered by Ninian Edwards, Governor of the Territory of Illinois, who had advanced up the Illinois River with about four hundred men to co-operate with Hopkins. He succeeded in destroying several Indian villages above Peoria. Harrison, meanwhile, was busily employed in pushing forward provisions to forts towards the lake, whence his troops were to march for concentration at the rapids of the Maumee, where another depot was to be established. It was a miserable country to pass over—swampy, wooded, and made almost impassable by heavy rains. The troops became discontented and mutinous. Orders given to Tupper's division to advance to the Maumee Rapids were not, or could not be, obeyed; it fell back to Urbana. Harrison had been very anxious to retake Detroit before winter; but the nature of the country compelled him to wait for the freezing of the swamps. Another expedition, under Hopkins, marched up the Wabash to Tippecanoe (Nov. 1812); but the approach of winter and insufficient clothing of his troops compelled him to return to Vincennes after destroying one or two Indian villages. So ended in failure the effort to recover Michigan in the autumn of 1812. To this end Harrison had labored incessantly all through the months of October, November, and December.

Michigan, Position of (1861). This peninsular state—its shores washed by great inland seas, and its population numbering 800,000—took a decided stand against the Southern Secessionists. Its Legislature met at the beginning of January, 1861, when its retiring governor (Moses Wisner) denounced the President of the United States as a partisan, and the Democratic party as cause of the alarm, resentment, and discontent in the South, by persistent mis-

representations of the principles and intentions of the Republican party. He declared the Personal Liberty Act of his state to be right. "Let it stand," he said; "this is no time for timid and vacillating counsels while the cry of treason is ringing in our ears." The new governor (Austin Blair), who was inaugurated the next day (Jan. 3, 1861), took substantially the same ground. He recommended the Legislature to take action for the support of the national government, and they responded by passing resolutions (Feb. 2) pledging to that government all the military power and material resources of the state. They expressed an unwillingness "to make compromises with traitors," and refused to send delegates to the Peace Congress (which see). The best men of the state, serving in the Union armies, redeemed this pledge.

Micmac Indians, TREATMENT OF. At the instigation of La Loutre, a French priest, the Micmacs, in Nova Scotia, or Acadia, united with other tribes to annoy the feeble English settlements in that region. When threatened by the English governor, their ruler scornfully said: "The land on which you sleep is mine; I sprang out of it as the grass does; I was born on it from sire to son; it is mine forever." This defiant declaration caused the English Council at Halifax to vote the Micmacs "so many banditti, ruffians, or rebels;" and by the authority of that Council Colonel Cornwallis, in order to "bring the rascals to reason," offered for every one of them taken or killed ten guineas, to be paid on producing the savage or his scalp. The poor Indians soon suffered dreadfully at the hands of the English.

Micmacs. These were the most easterly family of the Algonquin nation. They spread over New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, and were called by the neighboring tribes "Salt-water Indians," because they also inhabited the sea-coasts. They carried on wars with the Little Esquimaux, north of the St. Lawrence, at a very early period; and their chief business, in peace, was fishing. When De Monts attempted settlements in that region and in Canada, the Micmacs numbered full three thousand. The French established missions among them and secured their friendship; and they were a source of great annoyance to the English in their wars in that region. The Micmacs plundered English vessels in the Bay of Fundy, and captured eighteen English vessels in 1722. They actually cruised in their prizes and attacked British armed vessels. From 1724 to 1760 they were the active enemies of the English in Nova Scotia; but at the latter date, Canada having been captured by the English, the Richibucto Micmacs, the most formidable of the tribe, laid down their arms and submitted to English rule. Their estimated number in 1873 shows them to be about as populous as they were at the beginning of the 17th century. The Micmacs were sun-worshippers.

Middleton, ARTHUR, signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born on the bank of

the Ashley River, South Carolina, in 1743; died Jan. 1, 1788. He was educated at Harrow and Westminster schools, England, graduating at Cambridge University in 1764. After his marriage he became a planter, and in politics became a leader of the patriots, and a most efficient member of the Council of Safety. In 1776 he helped to frame the state constitution, and was sent to Congress, where he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence. In 1779 he took up arms in defence of Charleston, and was made a prisoner when it fell, in 1780, when his estate was sequestered and he was sent a prisoner, first to St. Augustine and then to the horrible prison-ship *Jersey*. In 1781 he was exchanged, and was a member of Congress from 1781 to 1783. He was a skilful stenographer, and took notes of the debates in which he was engaged. Mr. Middleton wrote some effective political essays over the signature of "Andrew Marvel." His father, Henry Middleton, was President of Congress in 1775; and his grandfather, Arthur, who was born at Twickenham, England, was often in public affairs in South Carolina, as early as 1712. His influence was always on the side of the people. He was governor of the colony (1725-31), and was afterwards in the Council.

Mifflin, THOMAS, was the son of Quaker parents, and was born in Philadelphia in 1744; died at Lancaster, Penn., Jan. 21, 1800. He was educated in the Philadelphia College, visited Europe in 1765, and, on his return, became a mer-



THOMAS MIFFLIN.

chant. Having served in the Legislature of Pennsylvania, he was chosen a member of the First Continental Congress in 1774, was appointed major of one of the first regiments raised in Philadelphia, and accompanied Washington as his aide-de-camp to Cambridge in the summer of 1775. All through the war for independence Mifflin was a faithful and efficient officer, rising to the rank of major-general in 1777. He was eloquent in speech, and was efficient in rousing his countrymen to action when neces-

sary. In this way, traversing Pennsylvania, he caused large numbers of its citizens to flock to the standard of Washington before the attack on the enemy at Trenton. He was quartermaster-general, and, in 1777, was a member of the Board of War. Mifflin was one of "Conway's Cabal" (which see), a conspiracy to put Gates in the place of Washington. Late in 1782 he was elected to Congress, and was president of that body in the last month of that year, when Washington resigned his commission into their hands. General Mifflin was a delegate to the convention that framed the national Constitution (1787), and was president of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania (1788-90). He was also president of the convention that framed his State Constitution (1790), and was governor of the state from 1791 to 1800. He was very efficient in quelling the whiskey insurrection in 1794.

Milan Decree. (See *Orders and Decrees.*)

Miles, NELSON A., was born in Wachusettville, Mass., Aug. 8, 1839. He entered the military service, as first lieutenant, in October, 1861, and was wounded at Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines, near Richmond, Va. He was distinguished at Malvern Hills. Miles was adjutant-general of a brigade of the Second Army Corps from Seven Pines to Harrison's Landing. In September, 1862, he was made colonel of the Sixty-first New York Regiment, which he led at Fredericksburg. He was badly wounded at Chancellorsville (which see); and he commanded a brigade in the campaign against Richmond in 1864, having been created brigadier-general in May. He was breveted for gallantry at Reams's Station (which see); was made major-general of volunteers in October, 1865; he was noted in frontier warfare, and is (1894) major-general U. S. Army.

Military Chest, THE, REPLENISHED (1776). Hard money was lacking to pay the bounties offered by the Congress when Washington attempted to recruit his army (December, 1776). It was an urgent necessity at a critical moment. The Congress had just ordered the issue of \$5,000,000 in paper-money, but the credit of that body was already so low that many good republicans refused to take that currency. Washington applied to Robert Morris, whose credit stood high as well as his skill as a financier, for a large sum in hard money. Morris doubted his ability to raise it. In a desponding mood he left his counting-room at a late hour, musing as he walked on the subject of the requisition. He met a wealthy member of the Society of Friends, to whom he made known his wants. "Robert, what security canst thou give?" asked the Friend. "My note and my honor," Morris replied. "Thou shalt have it," was the response of the Quaker; and the next day Morris wrote to Washington, "I was up early this morning to despatch a supply of \$50,000 to your excellency."

Military Council at Boston (1757). The Earl of Loudoun called a military council at Boston, Jan. 19, 1757, to determine a plan for the military campaign for that year. The command-

er-in-chief insisted upon confining the operations to an expedition against Louisburg, and to the defence of the frontiers. Better men acquiesced in his plan, but deplored his weakness. The people of New England were disappointed to find that their favorite scheme of driving the French from Lake Champlain was to be deferred, yet the general ardor of the colonies was not abated.

Military Departments (1861). When the Civil War broke out there were only two military departments, named, respectively, the Eastern and the Western. Three new departments were created April 27, 1861—namely, the Department of Washington, Colonel J. K. Mansfield, commander; Department of Annapolis, Brigadier-general Benjamin F. Butler, commander; and the Department of Pennsylvania, Major-general Robert Patterson, commander.

Military Districts (1813). The states were divided into nine military districts, to each of which a general officer of the army was assigned. These districts were composed as follows: 1st. Massachusetts and New Hampshire; 2d. Rhode Island and Connecticut; 3d. New York from the sea to the Highlands and the State of New Jersey; 4th. Pennsylvania from its eastern limit to the Alleghany Mountains, and Delaware; 5th. Maryland and Virginia; 6th. The two Carolinas; 7th. The states of Tennessee and Louisiana and the Territory of Mississippi; 8th. Kentucky and Ohio, and the territorial governments of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri; 9th. Pennsylvania from the Alleghany Mountains westward, New York north of the Highlands, and Vermont. The commandant of each district was charged with the superintendence and direction of all the means of defence within the domain under his military control.

Military Division of the Mississippi. The national government determined to hold Chattanooga and East Tennessee at all hazards. For that purpose it ordered the concentration there of three armies under one commander, and on the 10th of October (1863) the departments of the Ohio, of the Cumberland, and of the Tennessee were constituted the Military Division of the Mississippi, and placed under the command of Ulysses S. Grant, "with his headquarters in the field." His field of authority comprised three departments and nine states and parts of states, from the Mississippi between the Gulf and the Great Lakes eastward into the heart of the Appalachian range of mountains. General W. T. Sherman was placed in command of the Army of the Tennessee (Grant's command), and General Thomas succeeded Rosecrans in command of the Army of the Cumberland.

Military Events in Kentucky. Late in 1861, the Confederates occupied a line of military posts across southern Kentucky, from Cumberland Gap to Columbus, on the Mississippi River, a distance of nearly four hundred miles. Don Carlos Buell, major-general, had been appointed commander of the Department of the Ohio with his headquarters at Louisville. There he gathered a large force, with which he was enabled

to strengthen various advanced posts and throw forward along the line of the Nashville and Louisville Railway a large force destined to break the Confederate line. He had under his command 114,000 men, arranged in four columns, commanded respectively by brigadier-generals A. McDowell, McCook, O. M. Mitchel, G. H. Thomas, and T. L. Crittenden, acting as major-generals, and aided by twenty brigade commanders. These troops were from states northward of Ohio and loyalists of Kentucky and Tennessee. They occupied an irregular line across Kentucky, parallel with that of the Confederates. General McCook led 50,000 men down the railroad, and pushed the Confederate line to Bowling Green, after a sharp skirmish at Mumfordsville, on the south side of the Green River. In eastern Kentucky, Colonel James A. Garfield struck (Jan. 7, 1862) the Confederates under Humphrey Marshall, near Prestonburg, on the Big Sandy River, and dispersed them. This ended Marshall's military career, and Garfield's services there won for him the commission of a brigadier-general. On the 19th, General Thomas defeated General George B. Crittenden near Mill Spring, when General Zollicoffer was slain and his troops driven into northwestern Tennessee. (See *Mill Spring, Battle of*.) This latter blow effectually severed the Confederate lines in Kentucky, and opened the way by which the insurgents were soon driven out of the state and also out of Tennessee. The Confederate line was paralyzed eastward of Bowling Green, and their chief fortifications and the bulk of their troops were between Nashville and Bowling Green and the Mississippi. On that line was strong Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland River. Believing Beauregard to be a more dashing officer than Johnston, the Confederates appointed him commander of the Western Department, late in January, 1862, and he was succeeded in the command at Manassas by General G. W. Smith, formerly a politician in New York city.

Military Force (1788). When the new national government went into operation early in 1789, the military force consisted of about six hundred men under the command of General Harmar, with several forts, military posts, arsenals, etc. Two companies of artillery had been formed out of the recruits enlisted at the time of Shays's Rebellion (which see), one of which was stationed at Springfield, Mass., to defend the armory there, and the others at West Point, on the Hudson. The stations on the frontier were, Pittsburgh; Fort McIntosh, on Beaver Creek, Penn.; Fort Franklin, on French Creek, half-way between Pittsburgh and Lake Erie; Fort Harmar, at the mouth of the Muskingum River; Fort Steuben, opposite Louisville; and Fort Vincennes, on the Wabash. All the posts on the lakes were still held by the British. The principal arsenals were at Springfield, West Point, and Philadelphia. There were temporary depositories of arms, ordnance, and stores at Providence, New London, on the Mohawk River, Manchester, opposite Richmond, Va., and Charleston, S. C. The Canadian refugees—the remainder of Hazen's regiment—were still a source of ex-

pense, though lately settled on lands on Lake Champlain granted to them by the State of New York.

Military Instruction. Since the Civil War, provision has been made by act of Congress for military education apart from the Military Academy at West Point (which see). An act passed July 28, 1866, authorizes the President to detail officers of experience to act as professors in institutions of learning having upwards of one hundred and fifty masculine students. Several colleges have availed themselves of such instruction. By the same act provision is made for the instruction of enlisted men in barracks, or in camp, in the common branches of English education, and especially in the History of the United States. An artillery school was organized at Fortress Monroe in 1867, to which one battery from each of the artillery regiments is ordered every year for theoretical and practical instruction in that branch of military tactics. Several military schools, such as the Virginia Military Institute at Lexington, Va., and the Kentucky Military Institute at Frankfort, Ky., are now in a flourishing condition. Two or three colleges are under partial military organization, and numerous private schools. Since 1866, the standard of qualification has been raised at West Point, and appointments to cadetships must now be made one year previous to admission.

Military Lands. By a proclamation of King George III., dated Oct. 7, 1763, grants of lands in America were authorized to the reduced officers and discharged soldiers who had served during the French and Indian War—5000 acres each to field-officers, 3000 to captains, 2000 to subaltern and staff officers, 200 to non-commissioned officers, and 50 to private soldiers.

Military Stores, GATHERING OF, BY PATRIOTS. The new Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, composed of more than three hundred members, met at Cambridge (Feb. 1, 1775), published a warning to the people that reinforcements of troops expected at Boston indicated an intent to destroy the liberties of the colony, and urged them to prepare for war. Elbridge Gerry, a merchant, was appointed chairman of the Committee of Supplies, and actively engaged in laying up magazines of provisions and military stores at Concord, Worcester, and other places. For some time the patriots, without being suspected, had carried arms and ammunition secretly out of Boston. Cannon-balls and muskets were conveyed in carts under loads of manure, and powder was concealed in the panniers of market-women, while cartridges were conveyed without suspicion, for a time, in candle-boxes. Finally, the guard at the Neck discovered the business, and seized 13,425 musket-cartridges and a quantity of balls. After that, no more could elude the vigilance of the guard.

Militia, CALL FOR, RESISTED (1812). On the proclamation of war (June, 1812) the few regular troops of the United States were employed in the attempted invasion of Canada. To man the seaboard forts the President called upon the

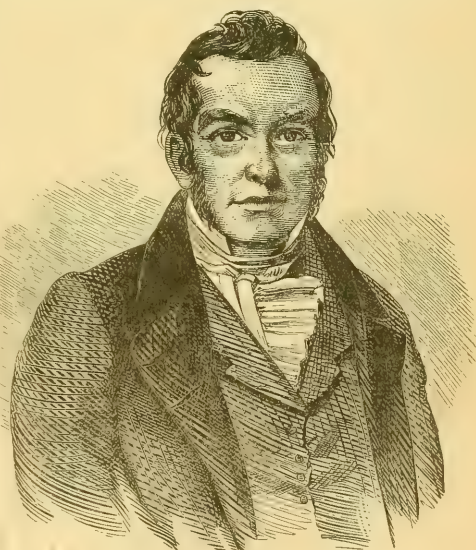
governors of states for militia to be placed under officers of his own appointment. The governors of Massachusetts (Strong), Rhode Island (Jones), and Connecticut (Griswold) resisted the demand on the twofold ground that no constitutional exigency had arisen, and that the militia could not be compelled to serve under any other than their own officers, with the exception of the President himself, when personally in the field. As the British did not invade either of those states during the year, the militia remained unemployed.

Militia, ORGANIZATION OF THE. The pressure of wars with the Indians in the Northwest forced Congress to undertake the organization of the militia throughout the Union. This was a difficult task, for at once there was a conflicting claim for authority in the matter between the national and state governments. The President called the attention of Congress to the subject on the 7th of August, 1789. Immediate action was taken. The matter was referred to a committee, but they did not report that session, and a new committee was appointed Jan. 15, 1790. A plan was arranged by General Knox, Secretary of War. A bill was offered on July 1, 1790, but there were no further proceedings on the subject during that session. Soon after the assembling of the third session of the First Congress, another committee was appointed (Dec. 10, 1790) by the House of Representatives, and a bill reported, but no result was reached at that session. The President, in his message at the opening of the Second Congress called attention to it, and another committee was appointed (Oct. 31, 1791). A bill for the organization of the militia passed the House of Representatives, and the Senate made amendments which the House would not agree to. A committee of conference was appointed, and the bill was passed March 27, 1792. Some amendments were made the next session, and the militia system then adopted remained, with very little alteration, until the breaking-out of the Civil War in 1861. It provided for a geographical arrangement of the militia by the state legislatures into companies, battalions, regiments, brigades, and divisions; each company to consist of sixty-four men, each battalion of five companies, each regiment of two battalions, and each brigade of four regiments. Each company, battalion, regiment, and division officered as now, except that the commander of a regiment held the rank of lieutenant-colonel. This arrangement was long perpetuated in the regular army, as well as in the militia. The rank of colonel, however, had been established in both services. There was provision made for one company of light troops to each battalion, and at least one company of artillery and one of horse to each division, to be formed out of volunteers, and to be clad in uniform at their own expense. Each state was to appoint an adjutant-general for the general superintendence of the whole militia system. Every able-bodied male citizen between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, with certain exceptions, was to be enrolled in the militia by the captain of the company within whose bounds he might reside; such citizen to arm and equip

himself and appear for exercise when called. This law simply adopted the system as it stood in each state. By another act it authorized the President, in case of invasion by any foreign nation or Indian tribe, or imminent danger thereof, or in case of insurrection in any state, application being made by its Legislature or its executive, to call forth the militia of the state or states most convenient to the scene of action. Whenever there should be an invasion, or insurrection, or combination to resist the laws too strong to be suppressed by the civil authorities, the President was authorized to call out the militia in such numbers as he might deem necessary.

Milledge, JOHN, was born in Savannah in 1757; died at the Sand Hills, Feb. 9, 1818. He was brought up in the office of the king's attorney of Georgia, but when the revolution approached he took the side of the colonists. He was one of the party who captured Governor Wright. (See *Wright, Sir James*.) He was active in civil and military affairs in Georgia, during the war, and in 1780 was appointed attorney-general of the state. From 1792 to 1802 he was member of Congress, excepting one term, and from 1802 to 1806 he was governor of the state. Mr. Milledge was the principal founder of the University of Georgia, and the Legislature of that state evinced their profound respect for him by giving his name to the capital of Georgia.

Miller, JAMES, was born at Peterborough, N. H., April 25, 1776; died at Temple, N. H., July 7, 1851. He entered the United States Army as major in 1808, and was lieutenant-colonel and leader of the Americans in the battle at Brownstown (which



JAMES MILLER.

see) in 1812. He was distinguished in events on the Niagara frontier, especially in the battle at Niagara Falls, or Lundy's Lane (which see), in July, 1814. For his services there he was brevetted brigadier-general, and received from Con-

gress a gold medal. He was governor of Arkansas from 1819 to 1825, and collector of the port of Salem from 1825 to 1849.

Miller, SAMUEL, LL.D., was born at Dover, Del., Oct. 31, 1769; died at Princeton, N. J., Jan. 7, 1850. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1789. From 1793 to 1813 he was minister of a Presbyterian church in New York city, and was noted as a political and theological writer. From 1813 to 1849, a period of thirty-six years, he was professor of Ecclesiastical History and Church Government in the Theological Seminary at Princeton. His published works are quite numerous. Dr. Miller was an early member of the American Philosophical Society.

Miller, WILLIAM, founder of the sect of "Millerites," or Second Adventists, who prophesied that the world would be consumed by fire in 1843. He was born at Pittsfield, Mass., in 1781; died at Hampton, N. Y., in 1849. He was an uneducated man. So early as 1826 he began to promulgate his peculiar views on the subject of the millennium, and earnestly uttered his prophecies and warnings in public after 1833. He declared that in 1843 Christ would descend in clouds, the true saints would be caught up into the air, and the earth would be purified by fire. Thousands embraced his doctrine and withdrew from church-fellowship. Other preachers appeared on the field, and before the arrival of the appointed time he had between 30,000 and 40,000 followers, who called themselves "The Church of the Latter-day Saints." The delusion rapidly subsided when the prophecy was not fulfilled.

Mill Spring, BATTLE OF. At Beech Grove and Mill Spring, Ky., there were gathered by the middle of January, 1862, about 10,000 effective Confederate soldiers, with twenty pieces of artillery, under the command of General Crittenden. General George H. Thomas was sent to attack them, and, if successful, to push over the Cumberland Mountains and liberate the East Tennesseans from Confederate rule. He divided his forces, giving a smaller number to the command of General Schoepf, and leading the remainder himself. When he was within ten miles of the Confederate camp, the insurgents came out to meet him. At early dawn (Jan. 19, 1862) the Confederates, 5000 strong, led by Zollicoffer, met the Union pickets—Woolford's cavalry. A severe battle was soon afterwards begun, on the side of the Nationals, by the Kentucky and Ohio regiments, and Captain Kinney's battery. It was becoming very warm, when Colonel R. L. McCook came up with Ohio and Minnesota troops, also a Tennessee brigade and a section of artillery. For a time it was doubtful which side would prevail. They were hotly contesting the possession of a commanding hill, when Zollicoffer was killed at the head of his column. General Crittenden immediately took his place, and the struggle for the hill continued about two hours. A galling fire from Minnesota troops, and a charge of Ohio troops with bayonets, compelled the Confeder-

ates to give way and retreat towards their camp at Beech Grove. They were hard pressed by the Nationals, who had gained a position where their great guns commanded the Confederate works and the ferry across the Cumberland River. Such was the situation when the conflict ended that (Sunday) evening. The next morning the Confederates were gone. The beleaguered troops had escaped silently across the river, under cover of darkness, abandoning everything in their camp, and destroying the vessels that carried them over the stream. The Confederates were dispersed, and suffered much among the hills on the borders of Tennessee. The Nationals lost 247 men, of whom 39 were killed; the Confederates lost 349, of whom 192 were killed and 89 were made prisoners. As the Confederates were then threatening Louisville, it was thought best for Thomas not to attempt the liberation of East Tennessee at that time.

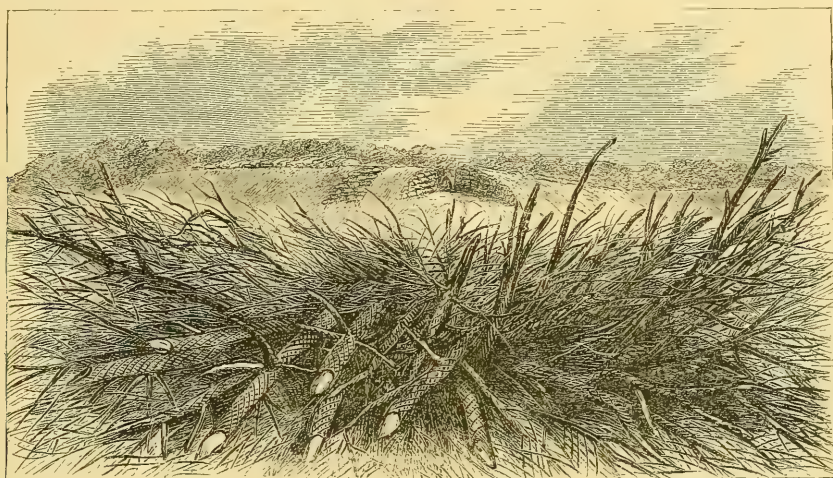
Mills, SAMUEL JOHN, founder of the American Foreign Missionary Society, was born at Torrington, Conn., April 21, 1783; died at sea, June 18, 1818. He graduated at Williams College in 1809. (See *Missions*.) He was the originator of the American Bible Society, founded in 1816, and was also instrumental in the formation of the American Colonization Society (which see). In its behalf he explored the western coast of Africa for a suitable site for a colony, in 1818, and died on his passage homeward.

Milroy, ROBERT H., was born in Indiana in 1814; became a lawyer; served as a volunteer in the Mexican War; entered the service as a volunteer in 1861, as brigadier-general of Indiana troops, the most of his military career being in western Virginia and the Shenandoah valley.

Mine Run, OPERATIONS NEAR. Early in November, 1863, General Lee was preparing to go into winter-quarters near Culpepper Court-house, when the National victory at Rappahannock Station (which see) and the crossing of that stream by Meade (Nov. 8) caused him, under cover of darkness, to withdraw beyond the Rapid Anna, and intrench his army on Mine Run and its vicinity, a strong defensive position. Meade lay quietly between the Rappahannock and Rapid Anna, until late in November, when, his communications being perfect with his supplies and the capital, he undertook a bold forward movement. He proceeded to attempt to turn the right of the Confederates, and, sweeping round towards Orange Court-house, overwhelm Ewell, turn the works on Mine Run, and effect a lodgment at Orange and Gordonsville. This would involve the perilous measure of cutting loose from his supplies, but he took the risk. He left his trains parked at Richardsville, on the north side of the Rapid Anna, and moved on the morning of Nov. 26; but instead of crossing that stream in a short time, so as to march rapidly and surprise the Confederates, the whole day was consumed in the passage. It was ten o'clock the next day before any of the troops reached the designated point, when the move-

ment had become known to the Confederates. Warren, with 10,000 men, followed by an artillery reserve, was confronted by a large portion of Ewell's corps, and brisk skirmishing began. French's troops, that were to support Warren, did not, for various causes, come up until night, when the latter was so hard pressed that Meade was compelled to send troops from his left to Warren's assistance. These various delays had given Lee ample time to prepare to meet his antagonist, and Meade's plans, so well laid, were frustrated. He concentrated his whole army on the west bank of Mine Run, and extended his fortifications along the line of that stream until they crossed the two highways on which Meade's army lay. In front of all was a strong *abatis*.

the night of July 19, 1779, Joseph Brant, the Mohawk chief, at the head of sixty Indians and twenty-seven Tories disguised as savages, stole upon the little town of Minisiuk, Orange Co., N. Y., which was wholly unprotected, and, before the people were aroused from their slumbers, set on fire several houses. The inhabitants fled to the mountains. Their small stockade fort, mill, and twelve houses and barns were burned; their orchards and plantations were laid waste; their cattle were driven away, and booty of every kind was borne to the banks of the Delaware, where the chief had left the main body of his warriors. Several of the inhabitants were killed, and some were made prisoners. When news of this invasion reached Go-



ABATIS.

Meade, however, resolved to attack Lee, and to Warren was intrusted the task of opening the assault, his whole force being about 26,000 men. He was to make the attack at 8 o'clock, Nov. 30. At that hour Meade's batteries on the left and centre were opened, and skirmishers of the latter dashed across Mine Run and drove back those of the Confederates. But Warren's guns were not heard. He had found the Confederates much stronger than he expected, and prudently refrained from attacking. Satisfied that Warren had done wisely, Meade ordered a general suspension of operations. Lee's defences were growing stronger every hour, while Meade's strength was diminishing. His rations were nearly exhausted, and his supply-trains were beyond the Rapid Anna. To attempt to bring them over might expose them to disaster, for winter was at hand and rains might suddenly swell the streams and make them impassable. Meade therefore determined to sacrifice himself, if necessary, rather than his army. He abandoned the enterprise, recrossed the Rapid Anna, and went into winter-quarters on his old camping-ground between that stream and the Rapahannock.

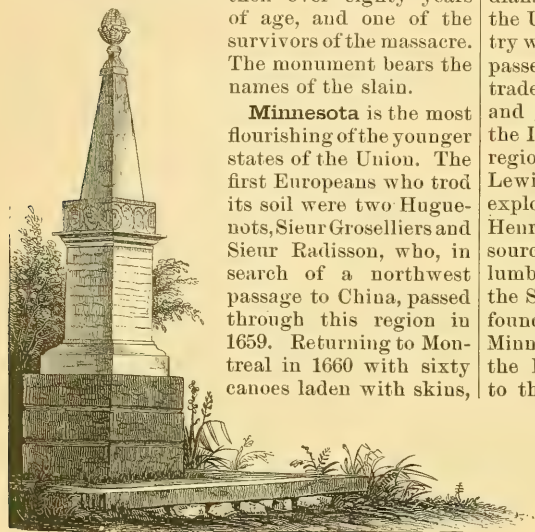
Minisink Settlement, DESOLATION OF. On

shen, Dr. Tusten, colonel of the local militia, ordered the officers of his regiment to meet him at Minisink, the next day, with as many volunteers as they could muster. They promptly responded, and one hundred and forty hardy men were gathered around Tusten the next morning, many of them the most respected citizens. They pursued the invaders, under Colonel Hathorn, who joined Tusten with a small reinforcement, and, being senior officer, took chief command. The more prudent officers counselled against pursuit, when the great number of Indians at Brant's command became known. But hot-heads ruled, and the expedition soon became involved in a desperate fight with the Indians on July 22. The barbarians pressed upon the white people on every side, until they were hemmed within the circumference of one acre, on a rocky hill that sloped on all sides. The conflict began at 11 o'clock in the morning, and lasted till sunset. Into that hollow square the Indians broke. The survivors of the conflict attempted to escape. Behind a ledge of rocks Dr. Tusten had been dressing the wounds of his companions all day. When the retreat began he had seventeen under his care. The Indians fell upon these with fury, and all, with the doctor, were

slain. The flower of the youth and mature manhood of that region had perished. The dreadful event made thirty-three widows in the congregation of the Presbyterian Church at Goshen. It gave firmness to Sullivan's men, who, a few weeks afterwards, desolated the beautiful land of the Cayugas and Senecas. (See *Sullivan's Indian Campaign*.) In 1822, the citizens of Orange County collected the bones of the slain, and caused them to be buried near the centre of the green at the foot of the main street of the village of Goshen. There was a great multitude of citizens present. Over their remains a new marble monument was erected the same year, the corner-stone of which was laid by General Hathorn,

then over eighty years of age, and one of the survivors of the massacre. The monument bears the names of the slain.

Minnesota is the most flourishing of the younger states of the Union. The first Europeans who trod its soil were two Huguenots, *Sieur Groselliers* and *Sieur Radisson*, who, in search of a northwest passage to China, passed through this region in 1659. Returning to Montreal in 1660 with sixty canoes laden with skins,

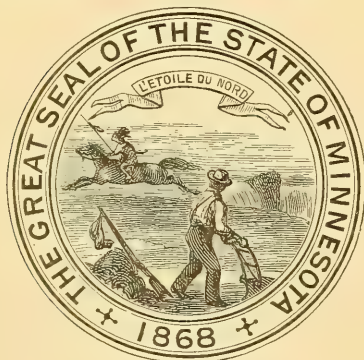


MONUMENT AT GOSHEN.

they excited others to go in search of peltries, and this was the beginning of the French fur-trade which afterwards interfered with the Hudson's Bay Company (which see). To se-

Father Hennepin and two others, who were a part of La Salle's expedition (see *La Salle*), penetrated the country far above the Falls of St. Anthony. The territory was formally taken possession of in the name of the French monarch, by Perrot and his associates, in 1689. They built a fort on the west shore of Lake Pepin; and Le Seur built another fort, in 1695, on an island in the Mississippi, just below the mouth of the St. Croix River, after which the fur-traders flocked into that region. In 1763, Jonathan Carver (which see) visited Minnesota and published a description of the country. In the year 1800, a part of Minnesota lying west of the Mississippi was included in the Territory of Indiana. The purchase of Louisiana, in 1803, gave the United States possession of the whole country west of the Mississippi, and in 1816 Congress passed a law excluding foreigners from the fur-trade in that region. Fort Snelling was built and garrisoned in 1819, and active trade with the Indians was carried on there. In 1820 that region was explored by a party under General Lewis Cass, and by Major Long in 1821. A third exploring party went there in 1832, led by Henry R. Schoolcraft, who discovered the main source of the Mississippi River. In 1837, some lumbering operations began in Minnesota, upon the St. Croix River. The town of St. Paul was founded in 1842, and in 1849 the Territory of Minnesota was created. At that time one half the lands included in the territory belonged to the Indians, and the white population was less than 5000. Emigrants flocked in, and at the end of eight years (1857) the number was 150,000. In 1851 the Sioux ceded to the United States all their lands in Minnesota. In 1857 application was made by the people for the admission of Minnesota into the Union as a state. This was effected May 11, 1858. Minne-

sota furnished to the national army and navy during the Civil War 25,034 soldiers. The population in 1890, a little more than fifty years after the first settlement, was 1,301,826.



STATE SEAL OF MINNESOTA.

Minnesota, POSITION OF (1861). The people of this new state were faithful to the old flag; so was the governor, Alexander Ramsay. The Legislature that assembled Jan. 26, 1861, passed a series of loyal resolutions, in which secession was denounced as revolution, and the acts of the South Carolinians in Charleston harbor as treasonable; and said that the full strength of the national authority under the national flag should be put forth. It gave assurance that the people of Minnesota would never consent to the obstruction of the free navigation of the Mississippi River (see *Mississippi Ordinance of Secession*) "from its source to its mouth by any power hostile to the Federal government."

Minor Events of the Civil War. The following are brief notices of the most important of the minor events of the Civil War:

1860. — *Nov. 18th.* The Georgia Legislature voted \$100,000 for the purpose of arming the state, and ordered an election for a state convention — *29th.* The Legislature of Vermont re-

cure this trade, which the English were grasping, Daniel Greysolon du Luth, a native of Lyons, left Quebec in September, 1678, with twenty men, and entered Minnesota. The next year

refused, by a vote of 125 to 58, to repeal the Personal Liberty Bill. (See *Personal Liberty Bills*.) The Legislature of Mississippi voted to send commissioners to confer with the authorities of the other slave-labor states.—*Dec. 6th.* In Maryland, a Democratic State Convention deplored the hasty action of South Carolina.—*10th.* The Legislature of Louisiana voted \$500,000 to arm the state.—*22d.* The Crittenden Compromise voted down in the United States Senate.—*24th.* The South Carolina delegation in Congress offered their resignation, but it was not recognized by the speaker, and their names were called regularly through the session.—*31st.* The Senate Committee of thirteen reported that they could not agree upon any plan of adjustment of existing difficulties, and their journal was laid before the Senate.

1861.—*Jan. 2d.* The authorities of Georgia seized the public property of the United States within its borders.—*4th.* Governor Pickens, having duly proclaimed the "sovereign nation of South Carolina," assumed the office of chief magistrate of the new empire, and appointed the following cabinet ministers: A. G. Magrath, Secretary of State; D. F. Jamison, Secretary of War; C. G. Memminger, Secretary of the Treasury; A. C. Garlington, Secretary of the Interior; and W. W. Harlee, Postmaster-general.—*7th.* The U. S. House of Representatives, by a vote, commended the course of Major Anderson in Charleston Harbor.—*12th.* The five representatives of Mississippi withdrew from Congress.—*14th.* The Ohio Legislature, by a vote of 58 to 31, refused to repeal the Personal Liberty Bill.—*21st.* Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, Benjamin Fitzpatrick and C. C. Clay of Alabama, and David L. Yulee and Stephen R. Mallory of Florida, finally withdrew from the United States Senate. Representatives from Alabama withdrew from Congress.—*23d.* Representatives from Georgia, excepting Joshua Hill, withdrew from Congress. Hill refused to go with them, but resigned.—*24th.* The Anti-slavery Society of Massachusetts, at its annual session, broken up by a mob.—*25th.* Rhode Island repealed its Personal Liberty Bill by act of its Legislature.—*Feb. 5th.* John Slidell and J. P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, withdrew from the United States Senate; the representatives in the Lower House also withdrew, excepting Bouligny, under instructions from the Louisiana State Convention. Bouligny declared he would not obey the instructions of that illegal body.—*11th.* The House of Representatives "Resolved, that neither the Congress nor the people or governments of the non-slaveholding states have a constitutional right to legislate upon or interfere with slavery in any slaveholding state of the Union."—*28th.* Jefferson Davis, President of the Southern Confederacy, vetoed a bill for legalizing the African slave-trade.—*March 16th.* A convention at Mesilla, Arizona, passed an ordinance of secession, and subsequently the Confederate Congress erected a territorial government there.—*April 17th.* Governor Letcher, of Virginia, recognized the Confederate government.—*20th.* Property valued at \$25,000,000, belonging to the United States gov-

ernment, lost at the Gosport navy-yard, Virginia. Eleven vessels, carrying 602 guns, were senttled.—*21st.* The Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railway taken possession of by the United States government.—*23d.* The first South Carolina Confederate regiment started for the Potomac.—*28th.* Virginia proclaimed a member of the Confederacy by its governor.—*30th.* The Legislature of Virginia, by act, established a state navy.—*May 3d.* The Legislature of Connecticut voted \$2,000,000 for the public defence.—*4th.* The governors of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Wisconsin, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and other states met at Cleveland, O., to devise plans for the defence of the Western States.—*7th.* The governor of Tennessee announced a military league between the state and the Confederacy.—*10th.* The President of the United States proclaimed martial law on the islands of Key West, the Tortugas, and Santa Rosa.—*11th.* The blockade of Charleston, S. C., established.—*13th.* The blockade of the Mississippi River at Cairo established.—*15th.* The Legislature of Massachusetts offered to loan the United States government \$7,000,000.—*20th.* All mail-steamships on the coast, and running in connection with the insurgents, were stopped.—*21st.* The Confederate Congress, at Montgomery, adjourn to meet at Richmond, July 20.—*26th.* New Orleans blockaded by sloop-of-war *Brooklyn*.—*27th.* The ports of Mobile and Savannah blockaded.—*June 1st.* The postal system in the Confederacy put into operation.—*10th.* Forty-eight locomotives, valued at \$400,000, belonging to the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, were destroyed by the insurgents at Martinsburg, Va.—*July 11th.* The United States Senate expelled from that body James M. Mason, R. M. T. Hunter, T. L. Clingman, Thomas Bragg, Lonis T. Wigfall, J. A. Hemphill, Charles B. Mitchell, W. K. Sebastian, and A. O. P. Nicholson, charged with treasonable acts.—*25th.* The governor of New York called for 25,000 more troops.—*Aug. 16th.* Several newspapers in New York presented by the Grand Jury for hostility to the government.—*19th.* Secretary of State ordered that all persons leaving or entering the United States shall possess a passport. Mayor Berrett, of Washington, D. C., arrested on a charge of treason, and conveyed to Fort Lafayette, in the Narrows, at the entrance of New York Harbor.—*24th.* Transmission of Secession journals through the mails prohibited.—*Sept. 12th.* Colonel John A. Washington, formerly of Mount Vernon, aid of General Robert E. Lee, killed while reconnoitring in western Virginia.—*18th.* Bank of New Orleans suspended specie payments.—*21st.* John C. Breckinridge fled from Frankfort, Ky., and openly joined the insurgents.—*24th.* Count de Paris and Duc de Chartres entered the United States service as aids to General McClellan.—*Oct. 11th.* Marshal Kane, of Baltimore, sent to Fort Lafayette.—*15th.* Three steamers despatched from New York after the Confederate steamer *Nashville*, which escaped from Charleston on the 11th.—*23d.* The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* suspended in the District of Columbia.—*30th.* All the state prisoners (143) in Fort Lafayette transferred to

Fort Warren, Boston Harbor.—*Nov. 3d.* Rising of Union men in East Tennessee, who destroy railroad bridges.—*Dec. 1st.* Loyal Legislature of Virginia meet at Wheeling.—*3d.* Henry C. Burnett, representative from Kentucky, and John W. Reid, representative from Missouri, expelled from the House of Representatives because of alleged treacherous acts. Fortifications at Bolivar Point, Galveston Harbor, Tex., destroyed by the United States frigate *Santee*.—*9th.* The Confederate Congress passed a bill admitting Kentucky into the Southern Confederacy.—*20th.* Insurgents destroyed about one hundred miles of the North Missouri Railroad, with its stations, bridges, ties, fuel, water-tanks, and telegraph-poles.—*30th.* The banks of New York, Albany, Philadelphia, and Boston suspend specie payments.

1862.—*Jan. 10th.* Waldo P. Johnson and Truett Polk, of Missouri, expelled from the United States Senate.—*11th.* Bridges of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad burned by the Confederates.—*16th.* The Ohio Legislature authorized the banks of that state to suspend specie payments.—*17th.* Cedar Keys, Fla.; captured by Union troops.—*22d.* A convention at Great Salt Lake City adopt a state constitution for Utah, and ask for admission into the Union under the name of "Deseret."—*30th.* The *Monitor* launched.—*Feb. 3d.* Confederate steamer *Nashville* ordered to leave Southampton (England) harbor; the United States gunboat *Tuscarora*, starting in pursuit, stopped by the British frigate *Shannon*.—*5th.* Jesse D. Bright, of Indiana, expelled from the United States Senate. British schooner *Mars* captured off Florida.—*8th.* General Hunter declared martial law throughout Kansas.—*9th.*—*13th.* The House Treasury-note Bill, with legal-tender clause, passed the United States Senate. Chesapeake and Albemarle Canal destroyed by Union forces.—*17th.* Confederates defeated at Sugar Creek, Ark. First regular Congress of the Confederates assembled at Richmond.—*10th.* Confederate government ordered all Union prisoners to be released.—*20th.* Full 4000 Confederates, sent to reinforce Fort Donelson, captured on the Cumberland River.—*21st.* First execution of a slave-trader under the laws of the United States took place at New York, in the case of N. P. Gordon.—*22d.* Martial law proclaimed over West Tennessee.—*24th.* Fayetteville, Ark., captured by the Union troops, but burned by the Confederates on leaving it.—*25th.* Telegraph lines taken possession of by government, and army news not to be published until authorized.—*26th.* Legal Tender Bill approved by the President.—*28th.* Confederate steamer *Nashville* ran the blockade at Beaufort, N. C. Fast-day in the Confederacy.—*March 1st.* John Minor Botts arrested at Richmond, Va., for treason to the Confederate States. Schooner *British Queen* captured while trying to run the blockade at Wilmington, N. C.—*2d.* Brunswick, Ga., captured by Union troops.—*6th.* President Lincoln asks Congress to declare that the United States ought to co-operate with any states which may adopt a gradual abolition of slavery, giving to such state pecuniary indem-

nity.—*8th.* Fort Clinch, St. Mary (Ga.), and Fernandina (Fla.) taken by Dupont's expedition.—*10th.* Confederate troops from Texas occupy Santa Fé, New Mexico.—*11th.* General McClellan relieved of the supreme command of the army, and made commander of the Army of the Potomac. Resolution recommending gradual emancipation adopted by the House of Representatives.—*13th.* Point Pleasant, Mo., captured by Pope.—*18th.* Name of Fort Calhoun, at the Rip Raps, Hampton Roads, changed to Fort Wool.—*21st.* Washington, N. C., occupied by Union troops. Departments of the "Gulf" and "South" created.—*26th.* Skirmish near Denver City, Col., and fifty Confederate cavalry captured.—*31st.* Baltimore and Ohio Railroad reopened, after being closed nearly a year. Confederate camp at Union City, Tenn., captured, with a large amount of spoils.—*April 1st.* General Banks drove the Confederates from Woodstock, Va. Battle at Putnam's Ferry, Ark., and Confederate stores captured.—*2d.* The emancipation and compensation resolution passed the U. S. Senate. Appalachicola, Fla., surrendered to Union troops.—*4th.* Departments of the Shenandoah and Rappahannock created. Pass Christian, on the Gulf coast, taken by National troops.—*8th.* National Tax Bill passed the House of Representatives.—*11th.* Bill for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia passed the House of Representatives.—*12th.* General Hunter declares all the slaves in Fort Pulaski and on Cockspur Island free. Engagement at Martinsburg, Va.—*15th.* Confederates cut the levee on the Arkansas side of the Mississippi, near Fort Wright, causing an immense destruction of property.—*16th.* President Lincoln signed the bill for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. Battle of Lee's Mills, near Yorktown.—*17th.* Skirmish on Edisto Island.—*19th.* Battle of Camden, or South Mills, N. C.—*21st.* Santa Fé evacuated by the Texans. Confederate Congress at Richmond broken up and dispersed.—*24th.* Destruction of the Dismal Swamp Canal completed.—*May 1st.* Skirmish at Pulaski, Tenn., and 200 Union troops captured.—*3d.* Skirmish near Monterey, Tenn., and Union victory. Skirmish near Farmington, Miss., and Union victory.—*4th.* British steamer *Circassian* captured near Havana, Cuba. Skirmish at Lebanon, Tenn.; the Confederates defeated, with the loss of 105 men, their guns and horses. The Confederates burn their gunboats on the York River. Battle of West Point, Va., and Union victory.—*8th.* Union cavalry surprised and captured near Corinth, Miss.—*9th.* Attack on Sewell's Point by the *Monitor*. Confederates evacuated Pensacola. Skirmish at Slater's Mills, Va. Bombardment of Fort Darling, on James River.—*10th.* Craney Island abandoned by the Confederates. General Butler seized \$800,000 in gold in the office of the Netherlands Consulate, New Orleans, when all the foreign consuls entered a protest.—*11th.* Pensacola occupied by Union troops; the navy-yard and public buildings, excepting the custom-house, had been burned by the Confederates.—*12th.* President Lincoln proclaimed that the ports of Beaufort, N. C.,

Port Royal, S. C., and New Orleans should be open to commerce after June 1.—13th. Natchez, Miss., surrendered to Union gunboats.—17th. Naval expedition up the Pamunky River, and Confederate vessels burned.—18th. Suffolk, seventeen miles below Norfolk, occupied by National troops.—19th. May, recorder and chief-of-police of New Orleans, arrested and sent to Fort Jackson.—22d. The United States Senate organized as a High Court of Impeachment for the trial of W. H. Humphreys, a United States district judge, for treason.—23d. Confederates defeated at Lewisburg, Va.—26th. The government, by proclamation, took possession of all railroads for the transportation of troops and munitions of war. Confiscation Bill passed the U. S. House of Representatives. Hanover Court-house, Va., captured by National troops.—29th. Skirmish at Pocotaligo, S. C.—June 2d. General Wool transferred to the Department of Maryland, and General Dix ordered to Fortress Monroe.—3d. National troops landed on James Island, S. C.—4th. Battle near Trentor's Creek, N. C. Skirmish on James Island, S. C.—5th. Artillery battle at New Bridge, near Richmond; Confederates defeated.—6th. Tax Bill passed United States Senate. Battle of Union Church, near Harrisonburg, Va.—14th. A severe battle on James Island, S. C.—17th. Battle between Union gunboats and Confederate batteries at St. Charles, on the White River, Ark., the batteries being carried.—18th. Confederate works at Cumberland Gap, Tenn., occupied by National troops.—19th. An act confiscating the slaves of Confederates passed the United States House of Representatives.—20th. Commodore Porter arrived before Vicksburg with ten mortar-boats. Free territory act signed by President Lincoln.—26th. High Court of Impeachment ordered Judge Humphreys to be removed from office and disqualified. Confederates destroy their gunboats on the Yazoo River.—27th. Vicksburg bombarded.—28th. The governors of eighteen loyal states petition the President of the United States to call out additional troops.—30th. Battle of Charles City Cross-roads.—July 1st. Defeat of Confederates at Booneville, Mo. Brunswick, Ga., established as a port of entry. Skirmish at Turkey Bend, on the James River. President Lincoln calls for 600,000 volunteers to put down the great insurrection.—2d. The President signed the Tax Bill, Pacific Railway Bill, and bill to prohibit polygamy in Utah.—6th. Engagement at Duval's Bluff.—7th. Battle of Bayou de Cachi, Ark.; the Confederates defeated. Engagement ten miles above Duval's Bluff; all the camp-equipage and provisions of the Confederates captured.—8th. Union expedition up Roanoke River started from Plymouth, N. C.—9th. Confederate batteries at Hamilton, on the Roanoke River, with steamers, schooners, and supplies, captured.—11th. General H. W. Halleck appointed commander of all the land forces of the Republic.—13th. National troops at Murfreesborough, Tenn., captured by Confederate cavalry.—14th. Battle of Fayetteville, Ark.; the Confederates defeated.—15th. Confederate "ram" *Arkansas* ran past the Union flotilla, and

reached the batteries at Vicksburg.—17th. Congress authorized the use of postage and other stamps as currency, to supply a deficiency of small change, and made it a misdemeanor for any individual to issue a fractional paper currency, or "shin-plasters." National troops defeated at Cynthiana, Ky.—20th. National cavalry struck a guerilla band between Mount Sterling and Owensville, Ky., and scattered them, taking their cannons and horses.—22d. The President issued an order for the seizure of supplies in all the states wherein insurrection prevailed; directed that persons of African descent should be employed as laborers, giving them wages; also that foreigners should not be required to take the oath of allegiance.—23d. General Pope ordered to arrest all disloyal citizens within the lines under his command. National troops victors in a sharp engagement near Carmel Church.—25th. The Confederates notified by the President of the provisions of the Confiscation Act.—27th. The steamer *Golden Gate*, from San Francisco with 230 passengers and \$1,354,000 of treasure, was burned at sea near Manzanilla, and the treasure and 206 of the passengers were lost.—28th. Skirmish at Bollinger's Mills, Mo.—29th. Confederates driven from Mount Sterling, Ky., by "Home Guards." Confederate guerillas defeated at Moore's Mills, near Fulton, Mo.—30th. Skirmish at Paris, Ky., when a part of a Pennsylvania regiment drove Morgan's guerillas from the town.—Aug. 1st. Retaliatory order issued by the Confederate government, and General Pope and his officers declared not to be entitled to the consideration of prisoners of war. Confederates attacked Newark, Mo., and captured 70 Union troops; the next day the Unionists recovered everything.—2d. Orange Court-house, Va., taken by Pope's troops. A draft of the militia to serve nine months was ordered by the President.—5th. Malvern Hills occupied by National troops.—6th. Battle near Kirksville, Mo.; the Union troops victorious.—8th. Battle near Fort Fillmore, N. M.; Unionists victorious. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*, in respect to all persons arrested under it, suspended; also for the arrest and imprisonment of persons who by act, speech, or writing discourage volunteer enlistments.—11th. Skirmishes near Williamsport, Tenn., and also at Kinderhook, Tenn.; Confederates defeated. Independence, Mo., surrendered to the Confederates.—12th. Gallatin, Tenn., surrendered to Morgan's guerillas. Battle at Yellow Creek, Clinton Co., Tenn.; Confederates defeated.—18th. Confederate Congress reassembled at Richmond.—19th. Department of the Ohio formed of the states of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, and Kentucky east of the Tennessee River, and including Cumberland Gap. Cavalry expedition to Charleston, Missouri.—20th. Clarksville, on the Cumberland, Tenn., surrendered to the Confederates. An attack on Fort Ridgely, Minn., by Sioux Indians was repulsed.—21st. Gallatin, Tenn., surrendered to the Confederates.—22d. Catlett's Station, Va., captured by Stuart's cavalry.—24th. Battle between Bloomfield and Cape Girardeau, Mo.; the Confederates were defeated.—25th. Skirmish at Waterloo Bridge, Va. Com-

bined military and naval expedition under General Curtis and Commander Davis returned to Helena, Ark., having captured a Confederate steamer (*Fair Play*) containing a large quantity of small-arms and ammunition, also four field-guns, and another laden with tents and baggage, and, proceeding up the Yazoo River, captured a Confederate battery of four guns, with a large quantity of powder, shot, shells, and grape.—27th. Skirmish near Rienza, Mo. Confederates routed by General Hooker at Kettle Run, near Manassas, Va.—28th. Battle near Centreville, Va., by Nationals under McDowell and Sigel, and Confederates under Jackson, when the latter were defeated with a loss of 1000 made prisoners and many arms. Skirmish near Woodbury, Tenn.; Confederates defeated.—29th. City Point, on the James River, shelled and destroyed by Union gunboats.—30th. Bukhannon, Va., entered and occupied by Confederates. Battle of Bolivar, Tenn.; Confederates routed.—31st. Skirmish at Weldon, Va.; Confederates defeated.—Sept. 1st. The Legislature of Kentucky, alarmed by Confederate raids, adjourned from Frankfort to Louisville. Battle at Britton's Lane, near Estanaula, Tenn.; Confederates defeated. Skirmish near Jackson, Tenn.; Confederates defeated.—2d. Major-general McClellan placed in command of the defences of, and troops for the defence of, Washington, D. C. Martial law declared in Cincinnati. Fighting between Fairfax Courthouse and Washington.—3d. Centreville, Va., evacuated by the Union forces.—4th. Confederate steamer *Oreto* ran the blockade into Mobile harbor.—6th. Confederate cavalry attacked the Union outposts at Martinsburg, Va., and were repulsed.—8th. General Pope relieved of the command of the Army of Virginia, and assigned to that of the Northwest. General Lee issued his celebrated proclamation to the people of Maryland. Indian fight at the Lower Agency in Minnesota, in which the Indians were defeated. Skirmish near Cochran's Cross Roads, Miss. Restrictions on travel rescinded, and arrests for disloyalty forbidden except by direction of the judge-advocate at Washington.—9th. Confederate cavalry attacked a Union force at Williamsburg, Va., and were repulsed.—10th. Governor Curtin, of Pennsylvania, issued an order calling on all able-bodied men in the state to organize immediately for its defence. Confederates attacked Union troops near Gauley, Va.; the latter burned all the government property and fled. Skirmish near Covington, Ky.—11th. Maysville, Ky., taken by the Confederates. Bloomfield, Mo., captured by the Confederates, and recaptured by the Unionists the next day.—12th. Eureka, Mo., captured by the Nationals.—13th. Confederates attacked Harper's Ferry, and the next night the National cavalry escaped from that post, and it was surrendered on the 15th.—17th. Cumberland Gap, Tenn., evacuated by the Union forces. Confederate soldiers captured at Glasgow, Ky.—18th. A day of fasting and prayer held by the Confederates. Prentiss, Miss., shelled and burned.—19th. Confederates evacuated Harper's Ferry. Confederates attacked Owensborough, Ky., and were repulsed.—21st. Sharp skirmish on the Vir-

ginia side of the Potomac near Shepherdstown, Va., and the Nationals forced back across the river with considerable loss. Cavalry fight near Lebanon Junction, Ky.—22d. President Lincoln's preliminary Proclamation of Emancipation for the slaves issued.—23d. Fight with the Sioux Indians in Minnesota, who attacked the National troops, when the barbarians were repulsed.—24th. Convention of the governors of the loyal states at Altoona, Penn. President Lincoln suspended the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* in respect to all persons arrested and imprisoned in any fort, camp, arsenal, military prison, or other place by any military authority, or by sentence of court-martial. Engagement at Donaldsonville, La.—25th. Commodore Wilkes's squadron arrived at Bermuda, and he was ordered to leave in twenty-four hours.—27th. Augusta, Ky., attacked by Confederates, who captured the garrison and destroyed the town.—29th. Major-general Nelson shot and killed at the Galt House, Louisville, Ky., by Brigadier-general Jefferson C. Davis in a personal dispute. General Buell ordered to turn over the command of his troops to General Thomas. Warrenton, Va., taken by the Nationals.—30th. Retaliatory resolutions introduced into the Confederate Congress on account of the Emancipation Proclamation.—Oct. 1st. General Halleck sent to McClellan, urging him to cross the Potomac and attack the Confederates. National soldiers crossed at Shepherdstown and drove the Confederates to Martinsburg. The Western gunboat fleet transferred from the War to the Navy Department. National naval and military expedition sailed from Hilton Head for St. John's River, Fla., opened fire on the Confederate fortifications at St. John's Bluff on the 2d, and reduced the works on the 3d.—3d. The Confederates drove in the Union pickets at Corinth, Miss., and on the 4th a severe battle was fought there. (See *Corinth, Battle of.*)—5th. Galveston, Tex., occupied by National troops.—6th. Battle of La Vergne, Tenn.; the Confederates were defeated.—7th. Expedition to destroy the salt-works on the coast of Florida. Confederates evacuate Lexington, Ky.—9th. Stuart's cavalry start on their famous expedition into Pennsylvania; reached Chambersburg on the 10th, and on the 11th destroyed much property there.—11th. General Wool arrived at Harrisburg and assumed command of the troops for the defence of the State of Pennsylvania. Battle between Harrodsburg and Danville, Ky., in which the Confederates were defeated.—13th. The Confederate Congress adjourned, to meet again early in January, 1863.—14th. In the state elections held in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana, the Republicans were defeated.—15th. Severe battle between Lexington and Richmond, in which 45,000 Confederates were repulsed by 18,000 Nationals. There was heavy loss on both sides.—18th. The guerilla chief Morgan dashed into Lexington, Ky., and took 125 prisoners.—20th. In the early hours of the morning a small Confederate force destroyed a National train of eighty-one wagons near Bardstown, Ky., and at daylight they captured another train in that town.—21st. Confederates near Nashville attack-

ed and dispersed.—22d. The Governor of Kentucky called on the people of Louisville to defend the menaced city.—24th. General Rosecrans succeeded General Buell in command of the army in Kentucky. Skirmish at Morgantown, Ky.—27th. Confederates attacked and defeated at Putnam's Ferry, Mo.—28th. Battle near Fayetteville, Ark., where the Confederates were defeated and chased to the Boston Mountains. Skirmish at Snicker's Gap, Va.—Nov. 1st. Artillery fight at Philomont, Va., lasting five hours. The Confederates pursued towards Bloomfield, where another skirmish ensued, lasting four hours.—4th. Major Reid Sanders, a Confederate agent, captured on the coast of Virginia while endeavoring to escape with Confederate despatches. National troops destroy salt-works at Kingsbury, Ga.—5th. The Confederates attacked Nashville and were repulsed. General Burnside superseded General McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac.—9th. Town of St. Mary, Ga., shelled and destroyed by Union gunboats.—10th. Great Union demonstration in Memphis.—15th. Army of the Potomac began its march from Warrenton towards Fredericksburg.—17th. Artillery engagement near Fredericksburg. Jefferson Davis ordered retaliation for the execution of ten Confederates in Missouri.—18th. Confederate cruiser *Alabama* escaped the *San Jacinto* at Martinique.—19th. First general convention of "The Protestant Episcopal Church of the Confederate States of America" met at Augusta, Ga.—25th. Confederate raid into Poolesville, Md. A body of 4000 Confederates attacked Newbern, but were forced to retreat in disorder.—27th. Nearly all the political prisoners released from forts and government prisons. Confederates defeated near Frankfort, Va.—28th. General Grant's army marched towards Holly Springs, Miss. Confederates crossed the Potomac and captured nearly two companies of Pennsylvania cavalry near Hartwood.—29th. General Stahl fights and routs a Confederate force near Berryville.—Dec. 2d. King George Court-house, Va., captured by National cavalry. Expedition went out from Suffolk, Va., and recaptured a Pittsburgh battery.—4th. General Banks and a part of his expedition sailed from New York for New Orleans.—5th. Skirmish near Coffeeville, Miss.—6th. Confederates repulsed at Cane Hill, Ark.—7th. California steamer *Ariel* captured by the *Alabama*.—9th. Concordia, on the Mississippi, burned by Union troops.—10th. National gunboats shell and destroy most of the town of Front Royal, Va.—11th. Skirmish on the Blackwater, Va., and National troops pushed back to Suffolk.—12th. National gunboat *Cairo* blown up by a torpedo on the Yazoo.—13th. National troops surprise and capture Confederates at Tusculum, Ala.—14th. General N. P. Banks succeeded General Butler in command of the Department of the Gulf. Plymouth, N. C., destroyed by Confederates.—15th. Confederate salt-works at Yellville, Ark., destroyed.—21st. A body of Union cavalry destroyed important railroad bridges in East Tennessee, with locomotives, and captured 500 prisoners and 700 stand of arms.—23d. Jefferson Davis, head of the Confederacy, issued a procla-

II.—4

mation directing retaliatory measures to be taken because of the course of General Butler in New Orleans, and dooming him and his officers to death by hanging when caught. He ordered that no commanding officer should be released or paroled before exchanged until General Butler should be punished. Butler's chief offence was his "Woman's Order" (which see).—24th. Heavy skirmish at Dumfries, Va., when the Confederates were repulsed.—27th. A company of Union cavalry were surprised and captured at Occoquan, Va.—31st. The bill admitting West Virginia as a state of the Union signed by the President. The *Monitor* sunk at sea south of Cape Hatteras.

1863.—Jan. 1st. General Sullivan fought Forrest near Lexington, Tenn. Emancipation jubilee of the negroes at Hilton Head, S. C.—2d. Gold at New York, 133 $\frac{1}{2}$ @ 133 $\frac{3}{4}$.—3d. Department of the East created, and General Wool assigned to its command.—4th. Confederates defeated at Moorefield, W. Va. The Confederate general Magruder declares the port of Galveston, Tex., opened to the commerce of the world. Clarksville, Tenn., surrenders to the Union forces.—5th. An "indignation meeting" of the opposition was held at Springfield, Ill., to protest against the President's Emancipation Proclamation.—8th. Confederates drive Union forces out of Springfield, Miss.—9th. Exchange of 20,000 prisoners effected.—10th. Cavalry skirmish at Catlett's Station. Bombardment of Galveston. The National gunboat *Hatteras* sunk by the *Alabama* on the coast of Texas.—11th. General Weitzel destroyed the Confederate gunboat *Cotton* on the Bayou Teché.—12th. Jefferson Davis recommends the Confederate Congress to adopt retaliatory measures against the operation of the Emancipation Proclamation.—13th. Peace resolutions introduced into the New Jersey Legislature. Several boats carrying wounded Union soldiers destroyed by the Confederates at Harpeth Shoals, on the Cumberland River. Confederate steamer *Oreto* (afterwards the *Florida*) runs the blockade at Mobile.—15th. National gunboat *Columbia*, stranded at Masonborough Inlet, N. C., burned by the Confederates. Mound City, Ark., burned by National troops.—17th. Confederate cruiser *Oreto* destroyed the brig *Estelle*. Congress resolved to issue \$100,000,000 in United States notes.—20th. General Hunter assumes command of the Department of the South.—22d. General Fitz-John Porter dismissed from the National service.—24th. General Burnside, at his own request, relieved from the command of the Army of the Potomac.—25th. First regiment of negro Union soldiers organized at Port Royal, S. C.—26th. Peace resolutions offered in the Confederate Congress by Mr. Foote. Engagement at Woodbury, Tenn.—27th. Fort McAlister, on the Ogeechee River, Ga., bombarded by the *Montauk*.—30th. Union gunboat *Isaac Smith* captured in Stono River, S. C.—31st. Blockading squadron off Charleston harbor attacked by Confederate iron-clad gunboats, and the harbor proclaimed opened by Beauregard and the Confederate Secretary of State. Skirmish near Nashville, Tenn., and the Confederates defeated.

—Feb. 1st. National troops occupy Franklin, Tenn.
 —2d. House of Representatives passed a bill providing for the employment of negro soldiers.
 —3d. Fort Donelson invested by Confederate troops, who were repulsed. Thanks of Congress to Commander John L. Worden, U. S. N.—
 4th. Skirmish near Lake Providence, La.—5th. Second attack on Fort Donelson by Confederates repulsed.—6th. The Emancipation Proclamation published in Louisiana. Workingmen meet at Tammany Hall, New York, and protest against introducing negro laborers into the Northern States.—7th. Mutiny of the One Hundredth Illinois Regiment of Volunteers. Confederates declare the blockade at Galveston and Sabine Pass opened.—8th. Circulation of the *Chicago Times* suppressed.—9th. A mob drive away colored laborers on the Erie Railway dock at Jersey city.—10th. First cargo of tea from Japan arrived at New York. Official denial that the blockade at Charleston had been raised.—11th. Secessionists attempt to assassinate General Banks on his way to the Opera House in New Orleans.—12th. National Currency Bill passes the Senate. The *Jacob Bell*, from China, with a cargo of tea worth \$1,000,000, captured and burned by the Confederate cruiser *Florida*.—14th. National cavalry defeated at Annandale, Va.—15th. Confederates defeated at Arkadelphia, Ark.—16th. Conscription Bill passed the United States Senate.—20th. National Currency Bill passed the House of Representatives.—21st. Joint resolution passed Congress for the expulsion of George E. Badger from the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, and appointing Louis Agassiz in his place.—23d. United States Senate authorized the suspension of the privilege of *habeas corpus*.—25th. English-Confederate steamer *Peterhoff* captured by the *Vanderbilt*. National Currency Act approved by the President.—26th. Cherokee National Council repeal the ordinance of secession.—28th. Confederate steamer *Nashville* destroyed by the *Montauk* in Ogeechee River.—March 4th. Palmyra, Mo., burned by Union gunboats.—6th. General Hunter ordered the drafting of negroes in the Department of the South. Confederates capture Franklin, Tenn.—8th. Brigadier-general Stoughton captured by Moseby's cavalry at Fairfax Court-house, Va. Twenty-three Confederate steamers captured on the Yazoo River.—11th. Governor Cannon, of Delaware, declared the national authority supreme.—18th. House of Representatives of New Jersey pass peace resolutions.—19th. Mount Sterling, Ky., taken by Confederates, and retaken by Nationals on the 23d. English-Confederate steamer *Georgia*, laden with arms, destroyed near Charleston.—25th. Impressment of private property in the Confederacy authorized.—31st. General Herron appointed to the command of the Army of the Frontier. Jacksonville, Fla., burned by Union colored troops and evacuated.—April 1st. Cavalry fight near Drainsville, Va.—2d. Farragut's fleet ravaged in Red River. Serious bread-riot in Richmond; the mob mostly women.—3d. Arrest of knights of the Golden Circle (which see) at Reading, Pa.—4th. Town of Palmyra, on the Cumberland, destroyed by National gunboats.—5th. Confederate vessels detained at Liverpool by order of the British government.—6th. President Lincoln and family visited the Army of the Potomac.—7th. Combined attack of iron-clad vessels on Fort Sumter; five out of seven National vessels disabled. Emperor of the French intimates his abandonment of the European intervention policy in our national affairs.—8th. Raid of Nationals through Loudon County, Va.—14th. Engagement at Kelly's Ford, on the Rappahannock.—20th. Great mass meeting at Union Square, New York, in commemoration of the uprising of the loyal people in 1861.—24th. National forces defeated at Beverly, Va. Confederates defeated on the Iron Mountain Railroad near St. Louis. National forces rout the Confederates at Tusculum, Ala.—26th. Destructive Union raid on Deer Creek, Miss. Confederates defeated at Rowlesburg, Va.—27th. Confederate "Texan Legion" captured near Franklin, Ky.—28th. Cavalry engagement at Sand Mountain, Ga.; Confederates defeated.—29th. Fairmount, Va., captured by Confederates.—30th. Fast-day in the United States. Artillery engagement at Chancellorsville, Va. Confederates defeated at Williamsburg, Va.—May 1st. Battle at Monticello, Ky.; Confederates defeated.—3d. Moseby's guerillas routed at Warrenton Junction.—4th. Admiral Porter takes possession of Fort de Russy, on Red River.—6th. Confederates put to flight near Tupelo, Miss. Battle near Clinton, Miss.—15th. Corbin and Grau hung at Sandusky for recruiting within the Union lines.—18th. Democratic convention in New York city expresses sympathy with Vallandigham. (See *Vallandigham, Clement L., Exiled.*)—22d, 23d. Battle of Gum Swamp, N. C.—28th. First negro regiment from the North left Boston.—30th. The French take possession of Puebla, Mexico.—June 1st. Democratic convention in Philadelphia sympathized with Vallandigham.—3d. Peace party (which see) meeting in New York, under the lead of Fernando Wood.—8th. General Forey, with the French army, enters the city of Mexico. Departments of Monongahela and Susquehanna created.—12th. Darien, Ga., destroyed by National forces. Governor Curtin, of Pennsylvania, calls out the militia and asks for troops from New York to repel threatened Confederate invasion. General Gillmore in command of the Department of the South.—14th. The consuls of England and Austria dismissed from the Confederacy.—15th. President Lincoln calls for 100,000 men to repel invasion.—19th. Confederate invasion of Indiana.—21st. Confederate cavalry defeated at Aldie Gap, Va.—28th. General Meade succeeded General Hooker in the command of the Army of the Potomac. Bridge over the Susquehanna burned. The authorities of the city of Philadelphia petition the President to relieve General McClellan of command.—30th. Martial law proclaimed in Baltimore.—July 1st. Battle at Carlisle, Penn.—10th. Martial law proclaimed at Louisville, Ky. Cavalry engagement on the Antietam battle-field.—11th. Conscription under the draft begins in New York city.—12th. Martial law proclaimed in Cincinnati.—

13th. Yazoo City, Miss., captured by the Nationals.—14th. Draft riots in Boston.—15th. Riots in Boston, Brooklyn, Jersey City, Staten Island, and other places.—23d. Engagement at Manassas Gap; 300 Confederates killed or wounded, and 90 captured.—30th. President Lincoln proclaims a retaliating policy in favor of negro soldiers. Defeat of Confederates at Winchester, Ky.—Aug. 1st. Heavy cavalry fight at Kelly's Ford, Va., and Confederates defeated.—3d. Governor Seymour, of New York, remonstrated against the enforcement of the draft, because of alleged unfair enrolment. On the 7th, President Lincoln replied and intimated that the draft should be carried out.—6th. National Thanksgiving-day observed.—12th. General Robert Toombs exposes the bankruptcy of the Confederacy.—15th. The Common Council of New York city voted \$3,000,000 for conscripts.—21st. National batteries opened on Charleston.—22d. Beauregard protests against shelling Charleston.—25th. Many regiments in the squares of New York city to enforce the draft; removed September 5.—28th. The Supervisors of New York county appropriate \$2,000,000 for the relief of conscripts.—Sept. 4th. Bread-riot at Mobile, Ala.—11th. One half of James Island, Charleston harbor, captured by National troops.—13th. Brilliant cavalry engagement at Culpeper Court-house, Va.—21st. Sharp cavalry fight and National victory at Madison Court-house, Va.—24th. Port of Alexandria, Va., officially declared to be open to trade.—Oct. 5th. Confederates under Bragg bombarded Chattanooga, Tenn., from Lookout Mountain.—7th. The British government seized the Confederate "rams" building in the Mersey, and forbid their departure.—10th. Confederates defeated at Blue Springs, East Tennessee.—17th. The President orders a levy of 300,000 men; and if not furnished by Jan. 1, 1864, ordered a draft for the deficiency.—30th. Union meeting at Little Rock, Ark.—31st. Battle of Shell Mound, Tenn.; Confederates defeated.—Nov. 1st. Plot to liberate Confederate prisoners in Ohio discovered.—2d. Landing of General Banks's army in Texas.—3d. Confederate cavalry defeated near Columbia, and at Colliersville, Tenn. Battle of Bayou Coteau, La.—4th. Banks takes possession of Brownsville on the Rio Grande.—9th. General Robert Toombs denounces the course of the Confederate government in a speech in Georgia.—11th. Lord Lyons, the British Minister, officially informed the United States government of a contemplated Confederate raid from Canada, to destroy Buffalo, and liberate Confederate prisoners on St. John's Island, near Sandusky. A fleet of French steamers arrived off Brazos, Tex.—15th. Corpus Christi Pass, Tex., captured by National troops.—18th. Mustang Island, Tex., captured by the Nationals.—19th. Gettysburg battle-field consecrated as a national cemetery for Union soldiers who fell in the July battles.—26th. National Thanksgiving-day observed.—Dec. 8th. President Lincoln issued a proclamation of amnesty. Congress thanked General Grant and his army, and ordered a gold medal to be struck in honor of the general.—12th. No-

tice given that the Confederate authorities refused to receive more supplies for the starving Union prisoners in Richmond, Va.

1864.—Jan. 11th. General Banks issued a proclamation for an election in Louisiana, Feb. 22d. A provisional free-state government inaugurated at Little Rock, Ark.—25th. Congress thanked Cornelius Vanderbilt for the gift to the government of the steamer *Vanderbilt*, worth \$800,000.—26th. The United States Circuit Court at Louisville, Ky., decided that guerillas were "common enemies," and that carriers could not recover at law goods stolen by such.—27th. Ladies' Loyal League, New York, sent a petition for general emancipation, bearing 100,000 signatures. Confederate cavalry defeated at Sevierville, East Tennessee. Three hundred Confederate salt-kettles destroyed at St. Andrew's Bay, Fla.—28th. Battle at Fair Garden, East Tennessee; Confederates defeated.—Feb. 1st. The President ordered a draft, on March 10, for 500,000 men, for three years or the war.—4th. Colonel Mulligan drove Early out of Moorefield, West Virginia.—13th. Governor Bramlette, of Kentucky, proclaims protection to slaves from claims by Confederate owners.—22d. Michael Hahn elected governor of Louisiana by the loyal vote.—Moseby defeats Union cavalry at Drainsville.—23d. Admiral Farragut began a six days' bombardment of Fort Powell, below Mobile.—March 2d. Ulysses S. Grant made lieutenant-general.—6th. Confederates hung twenty-three Union prisoners of war (one a drummer-boy aged fifteen) at Kinston, N. C.—7th. Vallandigham advises forcible resistance to United States authority.—8th. New York state voted by over 30,000 majority for the soldiers' voting law.—9th. Colored troops under Colonel Cole captured Suffolk, Va.—15th. President Lincoln calls for 200,000 men in addition to the 500,000 called for Feb. 1.—10th. Governor of Kentucky remonstrates against employing slaves in the army. Arkansas votes to become a free-labor state.—17th. General Grant assumes command of all the armies of the republic. Fort De Russy blown up by the National forces.—23th. Louisiana State Constitutional Convention met at New Orleans.—31st. Longstreet's army, after wintering in East Tennessee, retired to Virginia.—April 10th. Confederates seized and blew up Cape Lookout light-house, N. C.—13th. New York Senate pass the soldiers' voting bill by a unanimous vote.—16th. Ohio Superior Court decides the soldiers' voting law constitutional. Surprise and defeat of Confederates at Half Mountain, Ky., by Colonel Gallup.—17th. Women's bread-riot in Savannah, Ga.—21st. Nationals destroy the state salt-works near Wilmington, N. C., worth \$100,000.—25th. The offer of 85,000 one hundred days' men by the governors of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa accepted by the President.—May 1st. Ladies' National Covenant to disuse imported articles formed at Washington, D. C.—2d. Ohio National Guard, 38,000 strong, report for duty.—3d. Commodore Wilkes reprimanded and suspended from duty for three years, for disobedience and disrespect to his superior officer.—4th. Colonel Spear, Eleventh Pennsylvania Cavalry,

departed on a raid from Portsmouth, Va., captured a Confederate camp on the Weldon road, and destroyed \$500,000 worth of property at Jarratt's Station.—7th. To this date, 1 lieutenant-general, 5 major-generals, 25 brigadiers, 186 colonels, 146 lieutenant-colonels, 214 majors, 2497 captains, 5811 lieutenants, 10,563 non-commissioned officers, 121,156 privates of the Confederate army, and 5800 Confederate citizens had been made prisoners by National troops. General Crook defeated the Confederates at Cloyd's Mountain, West Virginia, and fought an artillery duel on the 10th.—15th. This was the first day of rest for the Army of the Potomac for twelve days.—16th. Sortie from Fort Darling upon General Butler's besieging force.—18th. General Howard defeats a Confederate force at Adairsville, Ga. Nationals defeat Confederates at Yellow Bayou, La., the latter led by Prince Polignac. A forged Presidential proclamation, calling for 400,000 more troops was published for the purpose of gold speculation. The perpetrators (Howard and Mallison) were sent to Fort Lafayette.—26th. Major-general Foster takes command of the Department of the South. Louisiana State Constitutional Convention adopts a clause abolishing slavery.—27th. Eight steamers and other shipping burned at New Orleans by incendiaries.—30th. McPherson had a sharp encounter at the railroad near Marietta, Ga., taking 400 prisoners, with a railroad train of sick and wounded Confederates.—June 1st. To this date, the Nationals had taken from the Confederates as naval prizes, 232 steamers, 627 schooners, 159 sloops, 29 barks, 32 brigs, 15 ships, and 133 yachts and small craft; in all, 1227 vessels, worth \$17,000,000.—2d. Heavy artillery firing and skirmishing at Bermuda Hundred. United States gunboat *Water Witch* surprised and captured in Ossabaw Sound, Ga.—6th. General Hunter occupied Staunton, Va.—9th. Blockade-runner *Pervency* run ashore by the supply steamer *Neuborn*, and taken; worth, with cargo, \$1,000,000.—13th. The House of Representatives repealed the Fugitive Slave law (which see).—17th. Near Atlanta, 600 Confederate conscripts fled to the Union lines.—22d. Battle of Culp's Farm, Ga.—24th. Maryland Constitutional Convention passed an emancipation clause.—25th. General Pillow, with 3000 Confederates, repulsed at Lafayette, Tenn.—27th. General Carr defeated the Confederates near St. Charles, Mo.—30th. Secretary Chase of the Treasury resigned his office.—July 1st. General Sherman captured 3000 prisoners near Marietta, Ga.—3d. General Sherman occupied Kennesaw Mountain at daylight.—4th. A national salute of double-shotted cannons fired into Petersburg, Va.—5th. The Confederates in Jackson flanked and driven out by General Slocum. General Bradley Johnson, with 3000 Confederate troops, crossed the Potomac into Maryland.—9th. Governor Brown, of Georgia, called out the reserve militia, from fifteen to fifty-five years of age. A mass meeting in Geneva, Switz., adopted resolutions of sympathy with the United States and approved the emancipation measure. President Lincoln, in a proclamation, put forth his plan for reorganizing the disorganized states.

—12th. Confederates approached within five miles of the Patent Office at Washington and were repulsed with heavy loss.—13th, 14th. General A. J. Smith defeated the Confederates under Forrest, Lee, and Walker, in five different engagements, in Mississippi, killing and wounding over 2000.—15th. Six steamers burned at St. Louis by incendiaries.—16th. Gold in New York rose to 284. General Rousseau burned four store-houses and their contents of provisions at Youngs-ville, Ala.—17th. General Slocum defeated the Confederates at Grand Gulf, Miss.—18th. Rousseau sent out raiders on the Atlanta and Montgomery railway, who destroyed a large section of it, defeated 1500 Confederates in a battle, and captured 400 conscripts. The President called for 300,000 volunteers within fifty days, the deficiency to be made up by drafts.—20th. General Asboth captured a Confederate camp for conscripts in Florida.—21st. Henderson, Ky., attacked by 700 guerillas.—22d. General Rousseau reached Sherman's lines near Atlanta, having in fifteen days traversed 450 miles, taken and paroled 2000 prisoners, killed and wounded 200, captured 800 horses and mules, and 800 negroes, destroyed 31 miles of railroad, 13 depots, some cars and engines, and a great quantity of cotton, provisions, and stores. Louisiana State Convention adopted a constitution abolishing slavery.—26th. A gunboat expedition on Grand Lake, La., destroyed many boats of the Confederates, and on the 27th destroyed saw-mills worth \$40,000.—29th. General Canby enrolled all citizens in the Department of the Gulf, and expelled the families of Confederate soldiers.—Aug. 1st. Confederates defeated by General Kelly at Cumberland, Md.—2d. General Banks enrolled into the service all the negroes in the Department of the Gulf between eighteen and forty years of age.—9th. An ordnance-boat, laden with ammunition, was blown up at City Point, James River, killing 50 persons, wounding 120, and destroying many buildings.—15th. Commodore Craven, on the *Niagara*, seized the Confederate cruiser *Georgia* near Lisbon.—18th. The Confederate cruiser *Tallahassee*, after great depredations on the sea, gets into Halifax, N. S.; but, having secured some coal, was ordered out of the harbor and ran the blockade into Wilmington.—23d. Nearly all the Fifth Illinois Volunteers captured near Duval's Bluff by Shelby.—29th. General Hunter superseded in command of the Department of Western Virginia by General Crook.—Sept. 7th. Confederates defeated at Reedyville, Tenn., by Colonel Jourdan, with about 250 Pennsylvania cavalry.—8th. The Confederate General Price crossed the Arkansas River at Dardanelles, on his way to Missouri.—14th. Governor Brown, by proclamation, withdrew the Georgia militia, 15,000 strong, from the Confederate army at Atlanta.—19th. Secessionist passengers seized the steamers *Island Queen* and *Parsons* on Lake Erie, with the intention of capturing the United States gunboat *Michigan*; but the latter captured the whole party; the *Queen* was sunk and the *Parsons* was abandoned. A Confederate force of 1500 captured a train worth \$1,000,000 at Cabin Creek, Kansas.—26th. The Confederate governor (Allen) of Louisiana

wrote to the Confederate Secretary of War that the time had arrived for them to "put into the army every able-bodied negro as a soldier."—29th. The United States steam-packet *Roadsnoke*, just after passing out of Havana, Cuba, admitted on board three boat-loads of men claiming to be passengers, who seized the vessel, put the passengers on board another vessel, went to Bermuda, burned the steamer there, and went ashore.—30th. The Confederate general Vaughan driven out of his works at Carroll Station, East Tennessee, by General Gillem.—Oct. 3d. John B. Meigs, Sheridan's chief-engineer in the Shenandoah valley, having been brutally murdered by some guerrillas, all the houses within a radius of five miles were burned in retaliation.—6th. A Richmond paper advocated the employment of slaves as soldiers.—7th. Commander Collins, in the gunboat *Wachusett*, ran down and captured in the harbor of Bahia, Brazil, the Confederate cruiser *Florida*.—10th. Maryland adopted a new constitution which abolished slavery.—12th. It was announced that all the regimental flags taken from the Nationals in the Department of Arkansas and the Gulf had been retaken while on their way to Richmond.—13th. Some of the negro Union soldiers, prisoners of war, having been set at work in the trenches by the Confederates, General Butler put eighty-seven Confederate prisoners of war at work, under the fire of Confederate shells, at Dutch Gap (which see).—17th. The governors of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Missouri held a conference at Augusta, Ga., and resolved to strengthen the Confederate army with white men and negroes.—18th. Some of the feminine nobility of England and Secession women opened a fair in Liverpool for the benefit of the Confederate cause.—22d. General Auger, about this time, put in practice an effective way of defending National army trains on the Manassas Gap railway from guerrillas, by placing in each train, in conspicuous positions, eminent Secessionists residing within the Union lines.—25th. General Pleasanton, in pursuit of Price in Missouri, attacked him near the Little Osage River; captured Generals Marmaduke and Cabell, and 1000 men, and sent the remainder flying southwards.—28th. General Gillem defeated the Confederates at Morristown, Tenn., taking 500 prisoners and 13 guns.—31st. Plymouth, N. C., taken by Commander Macomb.—Nov. 5th. Forrest, with artillery at Johnsonville, Tenn., destroyed three "tin-clad" gunboats and seven transports belonging to the Nationals.—8th. General George B. McClellan resigns his commission in the National army. A flag of truce fleet of eighteen steamers departed from Hampton Roads for the Savannah River to effect an exchange of 10,000 prisoners. The exchange began Nov. 12 by Colonel Mulford near Fort Pulaski.—13th. General Gillem defeated by General Breckinridge, near Bull's Gap, East Tennessee, who took all his artillery, trains, and baggage.—16th. Confederates surprised and captured Butler's picket-line at Bermuda Hundred.—19th. The President, by proclamation, raised the blockade at Norfolk, Va., and Pensacola and

Fernandina, Fla.—22d. Hood advances from near Florence, Ala., towards Nashville, with 40,000 Confederate troops.—24th. Thanksgiving-day observed in the Army of the Potomac, when 59,000 pounds of turkeys, sent from the North, were consumed. About 36,000 pounds were sent to Sheridan's army in the Shenandoah valley.—25th. An attempt was made by Confederate agents to burn the city of New York, by lighting fires in rooms hired by the incendiaries in fifteen of the principal hotels. General Dix, in the morning, ordered all persons from the insurgent states to register themselves at the provost-marshal's office, and declared the incendiaries to be spies, who, if caught, would be immediately executed.—29th. General Foster co-operated with General Sherman as he approached the sea from Atlanta.—Dec. 2d. The Pope declined to commit himself to the Confederate cause. Up to this time sixty-five blockade-running steamers had been taken or destroyed in attempts to reach Wilmington, N. C., the vessels and cargoes being worth \$13,000,000.—6th. Milroy defeated the Confederates near Murfreesborough, Tenn.—8th. Confederate plot to burn Detroit discovered.—15th. Rousseau, at Murfreesborough, defeated Forrest, who lost 1500 men.—17th. To keep out improper persons from Canada, the Secretary of State issued an order that all persons entering the United States from a foreign country must have passports, excepting emigrants coming direct from sea to our ports.—19th. The President issued a call for 300,000 volunteers, any deficiency to be made up by a draft on Feb. 5, 1865.—Colonel Mulford reached Fortress Monroe with the last of the 12,000 Union prisoners he was able to obtain by exchange.—21st. Admiral Farragut made Vice-admiral, in reward for his great achievements, that grade corresponding to General Grant's rank in the army.—27th. Completion of the destruction of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad from Corinth to below Okolona, by a raiding force sent out by General Dana.

1865.—Jan. 6th. A fleet of transports and 9000 troops, under General Terry, sailed from Fortress Monroe for an attack on Fort Fisher.—10th. Meeting in Philadelphia to give charitable aid to Confederates in Savannah. On the 14th two vessels left New York with supplies for the suffering citizens of Savannah.—14th. Dr. Gwynn, of California, a zealous Secessionist, said to have been made a duke by Emperor Maximilian of Mexico.—15th. Confederate post at Pocotaligo Bridge, S. C., taken by the Nationals, and the (railroad) bridge saved.—16th. Magazine in captured Fort Fisher exploded and killed or wounded about 300 National troops. Another vessel left New York laden with provisions for the suffering citizens of Savannah. The policy of Jefferson Davis unsparingly assailed in the Confederate Congress at Richmond.—17th. The "monitor" *Patapsco* blown up by a torpedo at Charleston and sunk, with seven officers and sixty-five men.—18th. Three fine blockade-runners went into the Cape Fear River, ignorant of the fall of Fort Fisher, and were captured.—23d. The main ship-channel at Savannah was

opened.—25th. Jefferson Davis proclaimed March 10 a day for a public fast.—26th. This day was observed as a festival in Louisiana, by proclamation of Governor Hahn, in honor of the emancipation acts in Missouri and Tennessee.—Feb. 1st. The Legislature of Illinois ratifies the emancipation amendment to the National Constitution; the first to do so. John S. Rock, a negro of pure blood, admitted to practice as a lawyer in the Supreme Court of the United States; the first.—2d. General Robert E. Lee made commander-in-chief of the Confederate forces.—4th. Lieutenant-commander Cushing, with fifty-one men, in four boats, destroyed cotton valued at \$15,000 at All-Saints, N. C.—5th. Harry Gilmer's camp broken up and himself captured at Moorefield, W. Va., by Lieutenant-colonel Whittaker, who marched over mountains and across streams filled with floating ice—one hundred and forty miles in forty-eight hours—with 300 picked cavalry for the purpose.—6th. A number of soldiers in Early's army send a petition to Jefferson Davis to stop the war.—7th. The Confederate Senate rejected the plan to raise 200,000 negro soldiers. Of 500 Confederate prisoners at Camp Chase, Ohio, ordered for exchange, 260 voted to remain prisoners, preferring their good treatment there.—13th. Superintendent Conway, in charge of free labor in Louisiana, reported that during the year 1864 14,000 freedmen had been supported by the national government, at a cost of \$113,500; and that 50,000 freedmen were at work under him, and 15,000 others under military rule.—16th. By permission of the Confederate authorities, vessels were allowed to take cotton from Savannah to New York to purchase blankets for Confederate prisoners; the first two vessels of the fleet arrived at New York with cargoes valued at \$6,000,000. Confederate iron-works in the Shenandoah valley destroyed by National troops.—17th. A Confederate paper-dollar worth two cents in Richmond this day.—18th. General Lee wrote a letter to a Confederate Congressman declaring that the white people could not carry on the war, and recommending the employment of negroes as soldiers.—21st. Generals Crook and Kelly seized in their beds at Cumberland, Md., and carried away prisoners by Confederate guerillas.—22d. The divisions of Terry and Cox enter Wilmington, N. C., evacuated by the Confederates.—24th. John Y. Beall, of Virginia, hanged as a spy at Fort Lafayette, N. Y. He was one of the pirates who tried to seize the *Michigan* on Lake Erie.—25th. General Joseph E. Johnston supersedes Beauregard in command of the Confederate forces in North Carolina.—March 1st. Admiral Dahlgren's flag-ship *Harvest Moon* blown up by a torpedo and sunk; only one life lost. New Jersey rejects the emancipation amendment to the national Constitution.—2d. The Confederates at Mobile fire twenty-four shots at a flag-of-truce steamer. A secret council of Confederate leaders in Europe ended at Paris this day.—8th. Battle near Jackson's Mills, N. C., in which the Confederates captured 1500 Nationals and three guns.—10th. Up to this day, Sherman's march through the Carolinas has resulted in the cap-

ture of fourteen cities, the destruction of hundreds of miles of railroad and thousands of bales of cotton, the taking of 85 guns, 4000 prisoners, and 25,000 animals, and the freeing of 15,000 white and black refugees; also the destruction of an immense quantity of machinery and other property.—18th. The Confederate Congress adjourned *sine die*. It was their final session. One of their latest acts was to authorize the raising of a negro military force.—25th. R. C. Kennedy hanged at Fort Lafayette for having been concerned in the attempt to burn the city of New York.—27th. General Steele encounters and defeats 800 Confederates at Mitchell's Fork.—28th. "Monitor" *Milwaukee* blown up and sunk by a torpedo in Mobile Bay; only one man injured. The "monitor" *Osage* blown up and sunk the next day by a torpedo in Mobile Bay. Of her crew, four were killed and six wounded. The *Milwaukee*, having sunk in shallow water, kept up her firing.—30th. The amount of cotton taken at Savannah reported at 38,500 bales, of which 6000 bales were Sea Island.—31st. The transport *General Lyon* burned off Cape Hatteras, and about 500 soldiers perished.—April 1st. Newbern, N. C., fired in several places by incendiaries; little harm done. Battle of Big Mulberry Creek, Ala.; Confederates defeated by Wilson.—2d. The Confederates at Richmond blow up their forts and "rams" preparatory to evacuating the city.—3d. Rejoicing throughout the loyal states because of the evacuation of Richmond by the Confederate troops and flight of the Confederate government. National troops enter Petersburg at three o'clock in the morning. This day a Richmond paper quoted flour at from \$900 to \$1000 per barrel (Confederate money); corn, \$100 per bushel; butter, \$20 per pound, etc.—4th. President Lincoln sent a despatch dated "Jefferson Davis's late Residence in Richmond," and held a reception in that mansion.—8th. The last of the state prisoners in Fort Lafayette discharged. First review of Union troops in Richmond took place.—9th. Secretary Stanton ordered a salute of two hundred guns at West Point, and at each United States post, arsenal, and department and army headquarters, for Lee's surrender.—10th. The American consul at Havana hoisted the American flag, when the Confederate sympathizers there threatened to mob him, but were prevented by the authorities.—11th. A proclamation was issued to the effect that hereafter all foreign vessels in American ports were to have exactly the same treatment that ours have in foreign ports. Latham, the Superintendent of the Grand Trunk Railway, who tore a Union flag from a train on the 10th, was made to parade through Portland, Me., in United States soldiers' uniform, with a United States flag in his hands; to salute it; and to make patriotic speeches. The flag was left nailed to his house.—13th. An order from the War Department announced that it would stop all drafting and recruiting in the loyal states, curtail military expenses, and discontinue restrictions on commerce and trade as soon as possible. Raleigh, N. C., occupied by National cavalry.—14th. The colored men of

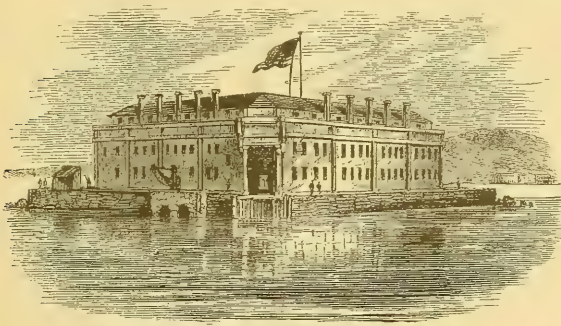
eastern Tennessee presented a petition in the State Senate for equality before the law and the elective franchise. Four National vessels—two gunboats, a tug, and a transport—blown up by torpedoes in Mobile Bay.—15th. General Saxton called a mass meeting at Charleston, and William

regulation of a mint, but it was not put into full operation until January, 1795. During the interval of about three years its operations were chiefly experimental, and hence the variety of silver and copper coins which appeared between 1792 and 1795, now so much sought after by coin-collectors. The most noted of these is the "Washington cent," or "Liberty-cap cent," so called because it has the profile of Washington on one side and a liberty-cap on the other. The subject of a device for the national coin caused much and sometimes warm debate in Congress. The bill for the establishment of the mint originated in the Senate, and provided for an eagle on one side of the gold and silver coins. To this there was no objection. The bill proposed for the reverse a representation of the head of the President of the United States for the time being, with his name and order of succession to the

Presidency and the date of the coinage. To this it was objected that a President might not always be satisfactory to the people, who would be disturbed by the effigy of an unpopular or unworthy one. Besides, the head of the President might be viewed as a stamp of royalty on our coins, and would wound the feelings of many. The House, after much debate, did not agree with the Senate, and the bill was sent back. Then it was proposed to substitute a head or figure of Liberty. This was finally agreed to, but an attempt was afterwards made to substitute the head of Columbus. At last the eagle, in the place of the head of Liberty, was chosen for the golden coins. David Rittenhouse, of Philadelphia, had been chosen the first director of the mint. At that city (being the seat of government) it was established, and was never moved from it. It was the sole mint until 1835, when Congress created three branches. The dies used in coinage in all the mints in the United States are made under the supervision of the engraver of the mint at Philadelphia. (See *Coinage in the United States*.)

Minty, ROBERT H. G., was born in Mayo, Ireland, Dec. 4, 1831; served in the British army from 1849 to 1853; went to Michigan; and was made lieutenant-colonel of Michigan cavalry in 1861. He became distinguished in battles in the West and South, notably at Stone River, Chickamunga, and in the Atlanta campaign, raiding with Kilpatrick in Georgia. He was made brigadier-general of volunteer cavalry in 1864.

Minute-men. Late in November, 1774, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts authorized the enrolment of twelve thousand men in the province, who should be prepared to take the field at a minute's warning. Already there had been local organizations of this kind all over the province. Out of these an enthusiastic army was soon formed. Fathers and sons, encouraged by mothers, wives, and sisters, received lessons together in the art of war. Dea-



PORT LAFAYETTE.*

Lloyd Garrison addressed them.—18th. The Confederate prisoners at Point Lookout, 22,000 in number, express, by resolutions, their abhorrence of the assassination of President Lincoln.—22d. General Hancock reported that nearly all of the command of Moseby, the guerilla chief, had surrendered, and some of his men were hunting for him to obtain the \$2000 reward offered for him. [In 1878 Moseby was appointed United States Consul-general in China.]—26th. Booth, the murderer of President Lincoln, found in a barn belonging to one Garnett, in Virginia, three miles from Port Royal, with Herrold, an accomplice, and refused to surrender. The barn was set on fire, and Booth, while trying to shoot one of his pursuers, was mortally wounded by a shot in the head, fired by Sergeant Corbett, and died in about four hours.—27th. Edward Ingersoll, a reputable citizen of Philadelphia, a sympathizer with the insurgents, having made a disloyal speech in New York, was required by citizens of Philadelphia to apologize for it. He drew a pistol, when he was knocked down and beaten, and afterwards imprisoned for carrying concealed weapons and for assault and battery with intent to kill. General Howard issued an order to the citizens along the line of march of Sherman's army to the capital to the effect that they were to keep at home; that foraging was stopped; that supplies were to be bought; and all marauders punished.—28th. The steamer *Sultana*, with 2106 persons on board, mostly United States soldiers, blew up, took fire, and was burned at Memphis. Only about 700 of the people were saved.—29th. President Johnson removed all restrictions on commerce not foreign in all territory east of the Mississippi, with specified exceptions.

Mint of the United States. An act was passed April 2, 1792, for the establishment and

* Fort Lafayette was built in the narrow strait between Long Island and Staten Island, known as "The Narrows," at the entrance to the harbor of New York. During the Civil War it was used as a state prison for persons disaffected towards the national government.

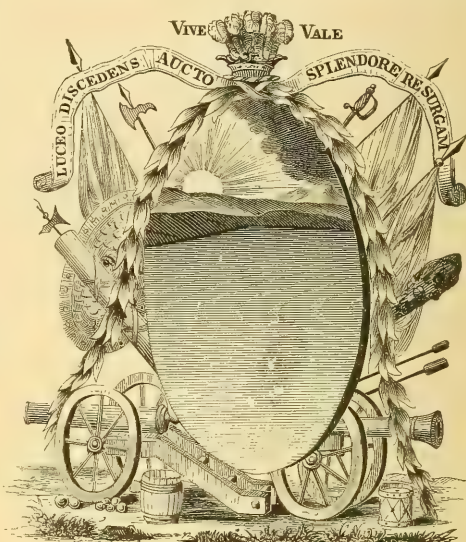
cons of churches, and even pastors, became captains of companies, and magistrates led the people in their preparations for immediate action. This army of twelve thousand men in Massachusetts were, from the conditions of their enlistment, called "Minute-men." There were similar organizations in other colonies, especially in Virginia.

Miranda, FRANCISCO, was born in Caracas, S. A., in 1750; died in a dungeon in Cadiz, Spain, in 1816. At the age of twenty he travelled extensively on foot in the English-American colonies. He visited the United States in 1783. He also made long journeys on foot in Continental Europe and Great Britain. He was a born agitator and revolutionist, and tried to free Spanish-American colonies from the Spanish yoke, presenting his projects to various European courts. In the French Revolution he acquired a high reputation as a military leader, especially as an engineer and tactician, and became a general of division. Twice he was expelled from France as a dangerous intriguer. Early in this century he was engaged in revolutionary projects in South America; and, aided by citizens of Great Britain and the United States, he was moving successfully towards the establishment of a consular government in Caracas (of which his grandfather had been governor), when internal dissensions ruined his scheme. He escaped to Cartagena, when Bolivar delivered him to the Spaniards, who confined him in a dungeon in Cadiz the remainder of his days.

Miranda's Expedition. Francisco Miranda, a native of South America, became a resident of France at about the time of the establishment of the republic, when he took an active part in public affairs. Being suspected of intrigues, he was expelled from France three or four times; and about the beginning of the year 1806 he was in the United States for the purpose of fitting out an expedition having for its object the revolutionizing of the Spanish province of Caracas, which now constitutes the Republic of Venezuela. At that time there was much irritation of feeling between the United States and Spain, and the government officers averted their eyes from Miranda's doings. His preparations for the expedition were made at New York, while he resided at Washington city, and was on intimate social relations with President Jefferson and Secretary Madison. He chartered the ship *Leander* at New York, and she sailed from that port (February, 1806) with arms and about two hundred and fifty men. He was joined by other vessels. The expedition reached Caracas in safety, and, with the help of the English in that quarter, Miranda took possession of two or three towns on the coast. The people would not listen to his offers of liberty. The Spaniards captured two transports, with about sixty Americans, and the expedition ended in failure about three months after the *Leander* left New York.

Mischianza, THE. Sir Henry Clinton succeeded Sir William Howe as commander-in-chief of the British army in America. Before

Howe's departure from Philadelphia (May 24, 1778) he and his brother, the admiral, were honored by a grand complimentary entertainment, "the most splendid," the accomplished Major André wrote, "ever given by an army to their commander." It was given at the Wharton Mansion and lawns on the present Fifth Street. André was the chief inventor of the pageant, which was called, in the Italian tongue, *mischianza*, a medley, and the ticket of admission was



MISCHIANZA TICKET.

designed by him. It began with a grand regatta on the Delaware, in the presence of thousands of spectators, and accompanied by martial music and the flutter of banners. This over, the scene changed to a tournament on Wharton's lawn, in which young ladies of Tory families in Philadelphia joined in a spectacle imitating the noted military pastimes of the Middle Ages. There were "Knights" and "Ladies," a "Queen of Beauty," and all the paraphernalia of a scene of ancient chivalry. Then there was a grand ball and supper in a temporary hall, decorated by the skilful hand of André, with painted scenery, and with evergreens, lustrous mirrors, and a host of chandeliers. The entertainment was concluded by a grand display of fireworks. It was an appropriate closing of a round of dissipation in which the British army had indulged in Philadelphia for six months, where profligacy among the officers became so conspicuous that many of the Tory families who had welcomed the invaders had prayed for their departure.

Missionaries' Ridge (or Chattanooga), BATTLE OF. General W. T. Sherman was lying, with his corps, along the line of the Big Black River, in Mississippi, when General Grant called him (Sept. 22, 1863) and a greater portion of his command to Chattanooga. Sherman fought his way eastward. He crossed the Tennessee River to the north side, at Eastport (Nov. 1),

under cover of gunboats, and, pushing on, reported to Grant in person on Nov. 15. Sherman's corps was now in command of General Frank Blair, and, on the afternoon of Nov. 23, it was ready to cross the Tennessee above Chattanooga, on a pontoon-bridge which it had stealthily brought with them, at the moment when General Thomas was moving the centre of the Nationals towards the Confederates on Missionaries' Ridge, to ascertain whether Bragg was preparing to flee or to fight. He was ready for the latter act. When Thomas moved, the heavy guns at Fort Wood, Chattanooga, played upon Missionaries' Ridge and upon Orchard Knob, a lower hill a considerable distance in advance of the former. Wood's division, of Granger's corps, led the left, and Sheridan's the right. General Palmer supported Granger's right, Johnson's division remained in the trenches, and Howard's corps was in reserve. The Nationals soon drove the Confederates from Orchard Knob by a vigorous charge, carrying the rifle-pits on that eminence and taking 200 prisoners. Wood immediately intrenched; Bragg moved up and took position on the left, and Bridge's (Illinois) battery was placed in position on the crest. Bragg had been fatally outgeneralled. To get Sherman's troops across the Tennessee without discovery, Hooker was ordered to divert the attention of the Confederates by an attack on Bragg's left on Lookout Mountain. (See *Lookout Mountain*.) The troops had all crossed before noon of the 24th, and proceeded to attack the Confederates on the northern end of Missionaries' Ridge, and secured an important point. The night of the 24th was spent in important preparations for battle the next day. Bragg drew all his troops across Chattanooga Creek and concentrated them on Missionaries' Ridge on the morning of the 25th. Hooker moved down to the Chattanooga valley from Lookout Mountain, and, in the afternoon, drove the Confederates out of Ross's Gap, capturing a large quantity of artillery, small-arms, ammunition, wagons, and stores. He then attempted to clear the Ridge of Confederates, but found them strongly fortified behind the intrenchments cast up there by Thomas at the time of the battle of Chickamauga (which see). Osterhaus was leading the Nationals parallel with the Ridge on its eastern side, while Cruft was ordered to move along its crest, and Geary, with the batteries, marched up the valley on the western side. This dangerous movement in the valley Bragg's skirmishers attempted to meet, but were driven back upon their main line by a part of Cruft's forces. Meanwhile, the remainder of Cruft's column formed in battle line, and, moving at a charging pace, steadily pushed the Confederates back, their front line, under General Stewart, retreating, while fighting, upon the second line, under General Bate, while Geary and Osterhaus were pouring murderous fires upon their flanks. So the half-running fight continued until near sunset, when the Confederates broke into confusion and fled, and full 2000 of them were made prisoners. Hooker's victory in that part

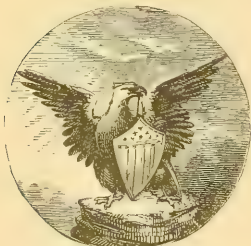
of the field was complete at twilight. Meanwhile, Sherman had been busy clearing the Ridge at the other extremity of the battle line, where Hardee was in command. His order of battle was similar to that of Hooker, and his troops were roused at sunrise. The ground to be traversed was very difficult; instead of a continuous ridge, it was a chain of hills, each wooded and fortified. General Corse led the way. Having gained the second crest from his point of departure, Corse, in moving forward, had a severe hand-to-hand struggle for an hour, but could not carry the works, nor could the Confederates repulse him. At the same time, General Morgan L. Smith and Colonel Loomis were advancing on both sides of the Ridge, fighting their way to the Confederate flanks. Up to three o'clock P.M. Sherman had not been able to gain much advantage. General Grant, from his post on Orchard Knob, had been watching all these movements. Early in the afternoon he ordered General Thomas to advance with the National centre. The divisions of Wood, Baird, Sheridan, and Johnson moved steadily forward. They created such a panic among the occupants of the rifle-pits at the base of the Ridge that they fled in great haste towards the crest. The Nationals stopped but for a moment to re-form, when, by an irresistible impulse, the troops, without orders from their commanders, began to follow the fugitives. The men of Willich's and Hazen's brigade had commenced running forward for security under the Ridge, but as they reached it they commenced its ascent. Hazen then gave the order "Forward!" and sent his staff-officers to urge everybody forward up the declivity. The fire they passed through was dreadful, but the men, without preserving lines, formed into groups wherever the ground gave cover; and each group, led by a color, steadily made its way up. Their colors were often shot down, but they were at once seized and borne along. The men pressed vigorously on, in the face of a terrible storm of grape and canister shot from about thirty guns on the summit, and murderous volleys of musketry from the well-filled rifle-pits on the crest. The Nationals did not waver for a moment, but pressed forward, when Lieutenant-colonel Langdon, with Ohio volunteers, sprang forward and made a lodgment on the hill-top, within five hundred yards of Bragg's headquarters. With shouts the remainder of the Nationals pushed upwards, and very speedily the whole battle line of the Confederates on Missionaries' Ridge was in their possession, with all the Confederate cannons and ammunition. Sherman soon drove the Confederates from the front, and the battle ceased at that end of the line. The divisions of Wood and Baird were obstinately resisted until dark, when, at the edge of the evening, the Confederates fled. General Breckinridge barely escaped capture. Grant reported the Union loss in the series of struggles which ended in victory at Missionaries' Ridge at 5286, of whom 757 were killed and 330 missing. Bragg's loss was about 3000 in killed and wounded and 6000 made pris-

oners. The Nationals captured 40 pieces of artillery and 7000 small-arms.

Missions to the Indians. The first act of the Legislature of Massachusetts for carrying the Gospel to the Indians passed in 1645, and it recommended the ministers to consult on the best means of effecting the design. By their advice, it is probable, the first Indian mission was organized. On the 28th of October, that year, the apostle Eliot (see *Eliot, John*) began his systematic labors among the Indians. His first regular services were at Nonantum, four or five miles from Roxbury. When he approached the village, with three other persons, several Indians, led by a grave and wise one, gave him a welcome and conducted him to a large wigwam, where a number of barbarians were assembled to hear the new doctrine. Eliot had given them notice of his coming. After a short prayer in English, he preached for an hour in the Indian tongue, and was well understood by his auditors, some of them listening with tears.

Mississippi. The first Europeans who traversed this region were De Soto (which see) and his companions. They made no settlements. La Salle discovered the river in 1682, and took formal possession of the country it watered in the name of his king. (See *La Salle, Robert Cavalier de*.) In 1716 the French erected a fort on the site of Natchez. The colonies planted there grew slowly until New Orleans was founded, when many settlers were attracted to the Mississippi River; but hostile Indians suppressed rapid growth, and it was not until after the creation of the Territory of Mississippi (April 7, 1798) that the population became numerous. The boundaries of the territory at first included all of Alabama north of the thirty-first parallel. In 1817 Mississippi was admitted into the Union as a state. A new constitution was adopted in

1832. In November, 1860, the Legislature, in extraordinary session, provided for an election of delegates to a convention to be held on Jan. 7, 1861, to consider the subject of secession. That convention passed an ordinance of secession on the 9th, and, on March



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30, ratified the Constitution of the Confederate States. (See *Mississippi Ordinance of Secession*.) The northern portion of the state was the theatre of military operations in 1862 (see *Corinth* and *Iuka Springs*), but the most important military operations were in 1863, in movements connected with the siege and capture of Vicksburg (which see). On June 13, 1865, President Johnson appointed a provisional governor (W. L. Sharkey), who ordered an election of delegates to a convention which met Aug. 14. By that convention the constitution of the state was so amended as

to abolish slavery (Aug. 21, 1865), and the ordinance of secession was repealed. In October Benjamin G. Humphreys was elected governor of Mississippi, and congressmen were also chosen. The latter were not admitted to seats, for Congress had its own plan for reorganizing the Union. By that plan Mississippi and Arkansas constituted one military district, and military rule took the place of civil government. Early in January, 1868, a convention assembled to adopt a constitution, and remained in session until May 18. General Ames was appointed governor (June 16, 1868), in place of Governor Humphreys, and, at an election held June 22, the constitution was rejected. On April 10, 1869, Congress authorized the President to submit the constitution again to a vote of the people, with such clauses separate as he might deem proper. The constitution was almost unanimously ratified at an election in November. Objectionable clauses, such as those disfranchising and disqualifying persons who had taken part against the government in the Civil War, being voted upon separately, were rejected. A Republican governor (James L. Alcorn) was elected. In January, 1870, the Legislature ratified the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the national Constitution. By act of Congress (Feb. 23, 1870) Mississippi was readmitted into the Union, and on March 10 Governor Alcorn was inaugurated, and the civil authority assumed rightful control. Population in 1890, 1,289,600.

Mississippi Company, THE. Anthony Crozat (which see), after large outlay and small returns, for five years, was glad to resign his patent. Other speculators were ready to take it up. John Law, a gambler, who had established a bank in Paris, under royal authority, established (1717) an association which he called the "Mississippi Company," or West India Company, based on a scheme of colonizing and drawing profits from the French possessions in North America. It soon became known as the "Company of the Indies." The company undertook to introduce into Louisiana 600 white settlers and half as many negroes. It extended its capital to 624 shares, of 500 livres (\$92.50) each, and offered to lend the King of France 1,600,000,000 livres, at three per cent. An extraordinary fever of stock-gambling ensued. Shares of the company rose to forty times their par value. A crash came in 1720, and Law became a fugitive. The Mississippi bubble burst. Law had received twelve square miles of land on the Arkansas River, which he attempted to settle with 1500 Germans. They came, but, on the bankruptcy of the company, finding themselves abandoned, went down to New Orleans, received allotments on both sides of the river, and settled there on cottage farms, raising vegetables for the supply of the town and the soldiers. So was begun the settlement of the rich tract known as "The German Coast."

Mississippi Ordinance of Secession. Elections for a state convention were held Dec. 20, 1860. The convention met at Jackson, the state capital, on July 7, 1861. The politicians in the

state, though a unit for secession, were divided into "Secessionists" and "Co-operationists," the latter favoring delay, so as to have the co-operation of the other states. These counselled waiting for an overt act of wrong on the part of the national government. But the hotspurs denounced this advice as cowardly in thought and disastrous in practice, and a local poet put submissive words into their mouths, calculated to stir the passions of the people. He said:

"We are waiting till Abe Lincoln grasps the *purse* and grasps the *sword*,
And is sending down upon us all his abolition horde;
Waiting till our friends are murdered and our towns and cities sacked,
And 'poor Sambo' gets his freedom—waiting for the 'overt act.'
Waiting till our fields of cotton, cane, and rice, and waving grain,
All are desolate and lonely 'neath King Cuffee's stupid reign;
Till our sisters, wives, and daughters are compelled to his embrace;
Yes, we're waiting, only waiting, for this horrible disgrace!"

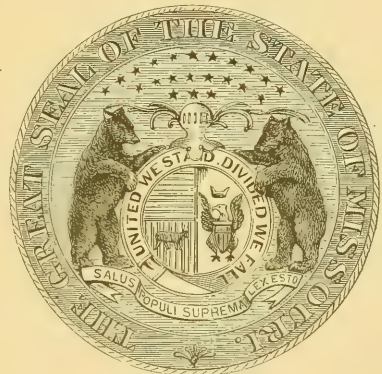
When the convention met again only about one third of their number were found to be "Co-operationists." These tried to postpone action, but they were voted down by decided majorities. Delegates from South Carolina and Alabama, who were present, were invited to take seats in the convention. The leaders in the secession movement having prepared an ordinance, the committee appointed to report one was not long at the task. It was reported on the 8th, and many of the "Co-operationists" were so intimidated by threats, that, on the final vote the next day, only fifteen had the courage to vote No. It received eighty-four affirmative votes, and it was afterwards declared to be unanimous. Like the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession (see *South Carolina Secession Convention*), the Mississippi ordinance repealed all laws connecting that state with the other states of the Union, and declared it to be an independent sovereignty. They acknowledged the "sovereignty" of South Carolina. They assumed the right to dictate the terms on which the Mississippi should be navigated, in the portion that washed the borders of their commonwealth, and a company of artillerists, calling themselves the "Quitman Battery," hastened to Vicksburg and planted cannons on a bluff there. This was the beginning of the fortifications at Vicksburg.

Mississippi River. Old writers spell its Indian name *Miché-sepé*, meaning "Great Water," or "Father of Waters." It was first discovered by Europeans with De Soto, in June, 1541, not far from the site of Helena, Ark., it is supposed. De Soto died on its banks in May or June, 1542. (See *De Soto, Fernando*.) In 1673 Joliet and Marquette descended the river to a point within three days' journey of its mouth. Father Hennepin explored it from the mouth of the Illinois River up to the Falls of St. Anthony in 1680, and in 1682 La Salle descended it to the Gulf of Mexico, and took possession of the country drained by it and its tributaries in the name of the French king, and named the great stream River Colbert. (See *La Salle, Robert Cavalier de*.) In 1699 Iberville built Fort Biloxi near its

mouth, and in 1703 the first settlement of Europeans in that region was made at St. Peter's, on the Yazoo branch. New Orleans was laid out in 1708, and the building of levees was commenced there.

Mississippi Valley on the East. The French, in pursuance of their policy for spreading their dominions in America, had always concealed from the English all knowledge of the country beyond the Appalachian range of mountains. In 1714 Colonel Alexander Spotswood, Lieutenant-governor of Virginia, resolved to acquire some knowledge of that mysterious region, and he went in person, with a few attendants, over those lofty ranges to the headwaters of the Tennessee and Kentucky rivers. He made the first certain discovery of a passage through those everlasting hills; but the country was very little known to Europeans until the middle of the eighteenth century.

Missouri was a part of what was originally known as "Upper Louisiana." By the grant of Louis XIV. to Crozat (which see), Sept. 14, 1712, "all the country drained by the waters emptying, directly or indirectly, into the Mississippi River, is included in the boundaries of Louisiana. In northern Louisiana were included Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska. Below the Missouri the settlements were more



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rapid. In 1720 the discovery of lead-mines within its present borders drew adventurers there. Its oldest town, St. Genevieve, was founded in 1755, and, by the treaty of Paris (which see), in 1763, that whole region passed into the possession of the English. Already many of the Canadian French had settled on the borders of the Mississippi. Lands were liberally granted to the colonists by the English. Emigrants from Spain flocked in. In 1775 St. Louis, which had been first a fur-trading establishment (see *Fur-trade, The American*), contained 800 inhabitants, and St. Genevieve about 460. In the region of Missouri there were soon stirring events; for Spain, taking sides with the Americans, made war on the English, and that country became master of Lower Louisiana and Florida. In 1780 the British from the lakes attacked St. Louis, but the timely arrival of George Rogers Clarke in Illinois saved it

from capture. (See *Clarke, George Rogers*.) After the war Spain retained Louisiana, and the country on the east bank of the Mississippi became the property of the United States. American settlers crossed the Mississippi, and collisions with the Spanish authorities ensued. Diplomacy settled the disputes, and the navigation of the Mississippi was made free to both parties. The purchase of Louisiana made a final settlement. (See *Louisiana*.) It was divided into the "Territory of Orleans" and the "District of Louisiana." The latter was admitted into the Union as the State of Louisiana in 1812. The name of the District of Louisiana was changed to Missouri, and at that time the population was full 22,000. In 1817 it had increased to 60,000, and application was made to Congress for permission to frame a state constitution. It was framed, and application was made for the admission of Missouri as a state. Then came the struggle between the friends and foes of the slave-labor system, which ended in the famous compromise (see *Missouri Compromise*), in accordance with the provisions of which Missouri was admitted to the Union, Aug. 10, 1821. From that time the material prosperity of the state rapidly increased. It was checked somewhat by the Civil War (1861-65). Popular feeling in Missouri was opposed to secession, but the state authorities favored it. Civil war was begun in that state by the governor (C. F. Jackson), who, on June 12, 1861, issued a call for the active service of 50,000 of the state militia, "for the purpose of repelling invasion, and for the protection of the lives, liberty, and property of the citizens." It was simply a call for revolt against the authority of the United States. From that time until the close of the Civil War some part of the state, particularly the southern portion, was the scene of military movements—of skirmishes and battles. A state convention, authorized by the Legislature, had assembled at St. Louis, March 4, 1861, to consider the subject of secession, and maintained its organization until the summer of 1863, when it passed an ordinance providing for the emancipation of all slaves in the state in 1870. (See *President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation*.) On Jan. 6, 1865, another convention assembled at St. Louis and framed a new constitution, which was ratified by a popular vote in June following. During the war Missouri furnished to the National army 108,773 troops. In 1869 the Legislature of Missouri ratified the Fifteenth Amendment to the national Constitution. Population in 1890, 2,677,080.

Missouri Compromise. In 1817 the inhabitants of the Territory of Missouri petitioned Congress for admission into the Union as a state. A bill was introduced into Congress (Feb. 13, 1819) for that purpose, when James Tallmadge, Jr., of New York, moved to insert a clause prohibiting any further introduction of slaves within its domains, and granting freedom to the children of those already there, on their attaining the age of twenty-five years. This motion brought the slavery question again before Congress most conspicuously. After a three days'

vehement debate, it was carried, 87 to 76. As a companion to the Missouri bill, another to organize the Territory of Arkansas was introduced (Feb. 16). When it was taken up, John W. Taylor, of New York, moved to add a provision that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude should hereafter be introduced into any part of the territories of the United States north of 36° 30' north latitude, the northern boundary of the proposed new Territory of Arkansas. Arthur Livermore, of New Hampshire, who had been zealous for the Missouri restrictions, conceived that this proposition had been made "in the true spirit of compromise," but thought the line of division not sufficiently favorable to freedom. General W. H. Harrison agreed to the necessity of some such partition, but he proposed a line due west from the mouth of the Des Moines River, thus giving up to slavery the State of Missouri and all territory south of that latitude. This partition policy was warmly opposed by a large number of members of Congress from the North and the South, declaring themselves hostile to any compromise whatever. Slavery was either right or wrong, and there could be no compromise. Taylor withdrew his motion. The proposition for a compromise which was finally agreed to was originated by a Northern member, and not by Henry Clay, of Kentucky, as is generally supposed. This Missouri bill caused one of the most exciting debates on the slavery question ever before known in the national Legislature. Extreme doctrines and foolish threats were uttered on both sides. Southern members threatened a dissolution of the Union. There was much adroit management by the party leaders, who used great dexterity in trying to avoid a compromise—for one party insisted upon Missouri entering, if at all, as a free-labor state, and the other party insisted that it should enter as a slave-labor state. But compromise seemed to be the only door through which Missouri might enter; and, by adroit management, a compromise bill was carried (March 2, 1820) by a vote of 134 against 42. John Randolph denounced it as "a dirty bargain," and the eighteen Northern men who voted for it as "dough-faces." Monroe hesitated to sign the bill. There was an almost solid North against admitting Missouri as a slave-labor state. He consulted his cabinet concerning its constitutionality. The matter was allowed to go over until the next session, and it occupied much time during that session. At length Henry Clay moved a joint-committee (February, 1821) to consider whether or not it was expedient to admit Missouri into the Union; and if not, what provision adapted to her actual condition ought to be made. The motion prevailed—101 to 55—all of the Southern members, excepting Randolph and two or three followers, voting for it. The committee was appointed, and soon reported. The closing decision on the Missouri question was finally reached by the adoption of a compromise (Feb. 27, 1821) substantially as proposed by Taylor of New York in 1819—namely, that in all territory north of 36° 30' north latitude (outside the boundary of the State of Missouri) slavery

should not exist, but should be forever prohibited in the region north of that line. But Missouri was admitted as a slave-labor state. In the course of the later debates there was much angry feeling displayed, and unwise men, North and South, uttered the cry of disunion. A member from Georgia said, prophetically, in the course of the debate: "A fire has been kindled which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, and which only seas of blood can extinguish." The "seas of blood" shed in the late Civil War did alone extinguish it.

Missouri Compromise Act, SIGNING OF THE. President Monroe hesitated about signing the Missouri Compromise Act, because of doubts about the interpretation of a phrase and its constitutionality. He submitted two questions to his cabinet—"Has Congress the power to prohibit slavery in a territory?" and "Was the term 'forever,' in the prohibitive clause in the bill, to be understood as referring only to the territorial condition of the district to which it related, or was it an attempt to extend the prohibition of slavery to such states as might be erected therefrom?" The cabinet was unanimous in the affirmative on the first question. On the second question, Adams (John Quincy, Secretary of State) thought the term meant *forever*, and not to be limited to the existence of the territorial condition of the district. Others limited it to the territorial condition—a territorial "forever"—and not interfering with the right of any state formed from it to establish or prohibit slavery. Calhoun wished not to have this question mooted, and at his suggestion the second question was modified into the mere inquiry, Is the provision, as it stands in the bill, constitutional or not? This was essentially a different question. To it all could answer yes, and did so answer in writing. It was a deceptive show of unanimity of opinion in the cabinet. This writing was ordered to be deposited in the archives of state, but it afterwards mysteriously disappeared. The act was signed by the President, but with a different understanding from that which had been adopted by Congress. The transaction has upon the face of it the appearance of a trick to induce all parties to acquiesce in the measure.

Missouri Convention, THE (1861), assembled at Jefferson City, Feb. 28. On the second day of the session it adjourned to St. Louis, where it reassembled, March 4, with Sterling Price as president, and Samuel A. Lowe as secretary. Price professed to be a Unionist, and so obtained his election. He soon afterwards became one of the most active Confederate military leaders in that region. Luther J. Glenn, an accredited commissioner from Georgia, was allowed to address the convention on the first day of the session at St. Louis. He strongly urged Missouri to join the "Southern Confederacy;" but it was found that the atmosphere of St. Louis, in and out of the convention, was not congenial to the nourishment of such seditious doctrines. The population of that city was made up largely of New-Englanders and Ger-

mans, who were loyal; while emigrants from slave-labor states, especially Virginia, composed the great body of the Secessionists. Glenn's remarks were greeted with hisses by spectators at the convention. The convention itself officially assured him that his views were not acceptable to that body. The proceedings of that convention throughout were marked by great dignity and propriety. The report of a Committee on Federal Relations, submitted to the convention on March 9, deplored the offensive language used towards the slave-labor states and the institution of slavery by the anti-slavery speakers and writers in the free-labor states; but declared that "heretofore there has been no complaint against the actions of the Federal government, in any of its departments, as designed to violate the rights of the Southern States." The committee concluded that, while the possession of the government by a sectional party might lead to dangerous sectional strife, the history of the country taught that there was not much to be feared from political parties in power. The report closed with seven resolutions evincing attachment to the Union; declaring the Crittenden Compromise (which see) to be a proper basis for an adjustment; that a convention of the states to propose amendments to the Constitution would be useful in restoring peace and quiet to the country; that an attempt to "coerce the submission of the seceding states, or the employment of military force by the seceding states to assail the government of the United States," would inevitably lead to civil war; and earnestly entreated the national government and the Secessionists to "stay the arms of military power." The convention substantially adopted this report, March 19; and an amendment was agreed to recommending the withdrawal of the national troops from the forts within the borders of the seceding states where there is danger of collision between the state and national troops. After appointing delegates to a border state convention, and giving power to a committee to call another session when it might seem necessary, the convention adjourned to the third Monday in December.

Missouri, LAST INVASION OF (1864). Emboldened by the failure of the Red River expedition (which see), the Confederates, by raiding bands, awed the Unionists in Arkansas into inactivity, and gave General Price an opportunity, early in the fall of 1864, to invade Missouri again, this time chiefly for a political purpose. Secret societies in sympathy with the "Knights of the Golden Circle" (which see) had been formed in Missouri and neighboring Southern States, whose object was to give aid to the Confederate cause and assist in the election of General McClellan, who, through the influence of the Peace faction, had been nominated for the office of President of the United States by the Democratic party. Price had been promised twenty thousand recruits if he should enter Missouri with a respectable military force. He and General Shelby crossed the Missouri border early in September with twenty thousand fol-

lowers, and pushed on to Pilot Knob, half-way to St. Louis. But the promised recruits did not appear. The vigilant Rosecrans, in command of the Department of Missouri, had discovered the plans of the disloyalists, and, by some arrests, had so frightened the remainder that they prudently remained in concealment. Price was disappointed; and he soon perceived that a web of great peril was gathering around him. General Ewing, with a brigade of National troops, struck him an astounding blow at Pilot Knob. Soon afterwards these and other troops under General A. J. Smith and General Mower sent Price flying westward towards Kansas, closely pursued. This chase was enlivened by several skirmishes, and late in November Price was a fugitive in western Arkansas with a broken and dispirited army. This was the last invasion of Missouri by the Confederates. In the expulsion of Price from Missouri General Pleasanton bore a conspicuous part. The total loss of the Nationals during the invasion was three hundred and forty-six killed and wounded. Price left Missouri much weaker than when he entered it.

Missouri, POSITION OF, IN 1861. The inhabitants of this state, lying west of the Mississippi, had been much agitated by the political events in Kansas. (See *Kansas, Civil War in*.) They had pretty well learned the merits of the question at issue, and when they were called upon to act they did so intelligently. They knew the value of the Union; and the great body of the people deprecated the teachings of the disloyal politicians, and determined to stand by the national government. Claiborne F. Jackson, a co-worker with the Secessionists, and an enemy to the Union, was inaugurated Governor of Missouri, Jan. 4, 1861. In his message to the Legislature, he recommended the people to stand by their sister slave-labor states in whatever course they might pursue. He recommended the calling of a convention. This the Legislature authorized (Jan. 16), but decreed that its action on the subject of secession should be submitted to the people before it should be valid. The election resulted in a large Union majority. The convention assembled at Jefferson City, Feb. 28. Its action was chiefly on the side of the Union. It declared substantially, like Kentucky, that the State of Missouri would stand by the national government on certain conditions. The Legislature of Missouri was in session at the same time. As the governor could not mould the action of the convention to his views, he labored to that end with the Legislature. Determined to give the Secessionists control of the strong Union city of St. Louis, the chief depository of fire-arms within the state, he procured an act for the establishment of a metropolitan police in that city, under five commissioners to be appointed by the governor. This was the first and an important step towards the adoption of revolutionary measures which involved Missouri in the horrors of civil war and anarchy for a time.

Missouri, PREPARATIONS FOR WAR IN (1861).

The capture of the Secessionist troops at St. Louis (see *Arsenal at St. Louis*) produced consternation among the Secessionists at Jefferson City, where the Missouri Legislature was in session. A bill was immediately passed by which the governor was authorized to receive a loan of \$500,000 from the banks and to issue \$1,000,000 in state bonds for war purposes. He was also authorized to purchase arms, and the whole military power of the state was placed under his control. Meanwhile General Harney had issued a proclamation denouncing the bill as an indirect secession ordinance, and null; yet, anxious for peace, he was ready to pursue a conciliatory policy. He entered into a compact (May 21) with Sterling Price, a general of the state militia, which had for its object the securing of the neutrality of Missouri in the impending conflict. Price, in the name of the governor, pledged the power of the state to the maintenance of order. Harney, in the name of his government, agreed to make no military movements so long as that order was preserved. The loyal people were alarmed, for they well knew the governor would violate his pledge. The national government did not sanction the compact. General Harney was relieved of his command, and on May 29 Lyon, who had been commissioned (May 16) a brigadier-general, was put in his place and made commander of the Department of Missouri. The purse and sword of Missouri were in the hands of the governor, and he defied the national government. He determined to wield the power of the state in favor of the Southern Confederacy. Finally General Lyon and others held a conference (June 11) with Governor Jackson. He demanded as a vital condition of pacification the disbanding of the "Home Guards"—loyal citizens—throughout the state, and that no National troops should be allowed to set foot on the soil of Missouri. Lyon refused compliance, and on the following day the governor raised the standard of revolt. He issued a proclamation calling into active service fifty thousand of the state militia "for the purpose of repelling invasion, and for the protection of the lives, liberty, and property of the citizens," telling the people their primary allegiance was to the State of Missouri. He ordered two important railway bridges between St. Louis and Jefferson City to be burned and the telegraph wires to be cut. So Governor Jackson inaugurated civil war in Missouri.

Missouri Proclaimed a Member of the Confederacy. Thomas C. Reynolds, Lieutenant-governor of Missouri, issued a proclamation at New Madrid (July 31, 1861), as acting chief-magistrate in the "temporary absence," he said, "of Governor Jackson," in which he declared the absolute severance of Missouri from the Union. "Disregarding forms," he said, "and looking to realities, I view any ordinance for the separation from the North and union with the Confederate States as a mere outward ceremony to give notice to others of an act already consummated in the hearts of the people; consequently, no authority of the United States will hereafter be permitted in Missouri." This short

way of transferring the allegiance of the people of a state from one power to another was followed by the announcement, in the same proclamation, that they were placed under the military rule of the Confederacy, and that, by invitation of Governor Jackson, General G. J. Pillow, of Tennessee, had already entered Missouri with troops. The fugitive governor (Jackson) had been to Richmond to prepare the way for the admission of Missouri into the Confederacy. From New Madrid he proclaimed (Aug. 5, 1861) that Missouri was "a sovereign, free, and independent republic." On the 20th of the same month the Confederate Congress at Richmond passed an act to "aid the State of Missouri in repelling invasion by the United States, and to authorize the admission of said state as a member of the Confederate States of America." Measures were speedily adopted for the consummation of the alliance, and during a greater portion of the war men claiming to represent the people of Missouri occupied seats in the Confederate Congress at Richmond. The old Legislature of Missouri met at Neosho, Oct. 21, and on the 28th passed an Ordinance of Secession. An act to provide for the defence of the State of Missouri was adopted Nov. 1, in which provision was made for the issue of what were called "Defence Bonds" to the amount of \$10,000,000, payable in three, five, and seven years.

Missouri Purged. Strengthened by the successes of Pope (see *Blackwater, Battle at the*), General Halleck, in command of the Department of Missouri, prepared to put forth more vigorous efforts to purge that state of insurgents and to effectually suppress the insurrection. On Dec. 3, 1861, he declared martial law in St. Louis, and afterwards extended it to all railroads and their vicinities. Meanwhile Price, being promised reinforcements from Arkansas, moved back to Springfield, where he concentrated about twelve thousand men, and prepared to spend the winter there. Halleck sent General S. R. Curtis to drive him out of the state. Curtis was assisted by Generals Davis, Sigel, Asboth, and Prentiss. They moved in three columns. Early in February, 1862, Price fled into Kansas, whither he was pursued by Curtis; and Halleck wrote to his government, late in February, that he had "purged Missouri," and that the flag of the Union was "waving in triumph over the soil of Arkansas." In accomplishing this work no less than sixty battles—most of them skirmishes—had been fought on Missouri soil, beginning with Booneville, at the middle of June, 1861, and ending at the middle of February, 1862. These conflicts resulted in the loss, to both parties, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, of about eleven thousand men.

Missouri River, THE. Recent investigations seem to make it certain that the Mississippi River, from its confluence with the Missouri, should be called the Missouri; and that the Mississippi proper, above that confluence, is a branch of the Missouri. Above their confluence the Mississippi drains 169,000 square miles, and the Missouri drains 518,000 square miles.

From that point to Lake Itasca the length of the Mississippi is 1330 miles; while that of the Missouri, from its sources in Madison, Red Rock, and Gallatin lakes, is about 3047 miles. At the confluence of the rivers the Mississippi has a mean discharge of 105,000 cubic feet of water a second, and the Missouri 120,000 cubic feet of water a second. Above that confluence the Missouri is navigable to Fort Benton, Montana, by good-sized steamboats, a distance of 2682 miles, or more than twice the length of the Mississippi from Lake Itasca to its confluence with the Missouri. Reckoning the Mississippi below the confluence as the Missouri makes the latter, to the Gulf—4347 miles—the longest river in the world.

Missouri Union Convention. This convention, which had been held in February, 1861, and adjourned, reassembled at Jefferson City, the capital of the state, on July 22, and proceeded to reorganize civil government for Missouri, which had been broken up by the flight of the governor and other officers and the dispersion of the Legislature, many of whom were now insurgent soldiers. By a vote of fifty-six to twenty-five the convention declared the various state offices vacant; also that the seats of the members of the General Assembly were vacant; and they proceeded to fill the executive offices to carry on a provisional government, and appointed the first Monday in November as the time for the people to elect all the state officers and a new Assembly. The convention issued an address to the people, in which they set forth the dangers with which the commonwealth was menaced by the acts of the Secessionists, and exposed the treasonable acts of the governor and his associates. H. R. Gamble was appointed Provisional Governor; W. P. Hall, Lieutenant-governor; and M. Oliver, Secretary of State. The new provisional government, by discreet action, secured the confidence and support of the majority of the people of Missouri.

Mitchel, ORMSBY MCKNIGHT, LL.D., was born in Union County, Ky., Aug. 28, 1810; died



ORMSBY M. MITCHEL.

at Beaufort, S. C., Oct. 30, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1829, and was assistant pro-

fessor of mathematics there until 1831. He became a lawyer, and for ten years (1834-44) he was professor of mathematics, philosophy, and astronomy in Cincinnati College. When an observatory was established at Cincinnati he became its director. Soon afterwards he became engineer of a railroad, and from 1859 to 1861 he was director of the Dudley Observatory at Albany, N. Y. Professor Mitchell was a very popular lecturer on astronomy, but the breaking-out of the Civil War turned his extraordinary energies into another field of effort. In August, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers and ordered to the Department of the Ohio. He made a most successful march southward from Nashville, taking possession of an important region along the line of the Charleston and Memphis Railroad; and his successes promised liberation for East Tennessee, when he was restrained by the excessive caution of his chief commander, General Buell. For these exploits Mitchell was made major-general in April, 1862. (See *Mitchell's Expedition*.) In September he was made commander of the Department of the South, with his headquarters at Hilton Head, where he was working with his usual energy in preparations for a vigorous campaign, when he perished by yellow fever.

Mitchell, MARIA, an American astronomer, and a member of the Society of Friends, was born at Nantucket, Aug. 1, 1818. She inherited from her father, William Mitchell (who died at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y., in April, 1869, aged seventy-five years), a fondness for astronomical studies, and became a valuable assistant to him in the study of astronomy when she was quite young. Examining nebulae and searching for comets, her industry and efforts were rewarded when, on Oct. 1, 1847, at the age of twenty-nine years, she discovered a telescopic comet, for which she received a gold medal from the King of Denmark. She was afterwards employed in making observations connected with the coast survey, and for many years assisted in the compilation of the *Nautical Almanac*. In the spring of 1865 she was appointed professor of astronomy and superintendent of the observatory at Vassar College (the first institution of the kind for the higher education of women established on the earth), and entered upon her duties in September. She resigned in 1888. Professor Mitchell was a member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, being the first woman admitted to that body. She received the honorary degrees of Ph.D. and LL.D. Died June 28, 1889.

Mitchell's Expedition. The Confederate forces under General A. S. Johnston, when they passed through Nashville (see *Nashville, Evacuation of*), pushed on to Murfreesborough, and there, taking a southwesterly course, joined the forces under Beauregard at Corinth, in northern Mississippi. General Ormsby M. Mitchell was sent by General Buell, with a part of his force, in the direction of Huntsville, Ala., to seize and hold the Memphis and Charleston Railway at that place. He performed this task with most wonderful vigor.

With engines and cars captured at Bowling Green he entered Nashville, and pushed on southward. He reached the southern boundary of Tennessee on April 10, crossed the state-line the same day, and entered northern Alabama. He had passed through a very hostile region, but now saw signs of loyalty. Pushing on to Huntsville, before dawn, April 11, while the unsuspecting inhabitants were soundly slumbering, he surprised and captured the place. He did not tarry long there. Finding himself in possession of an ample supply of rolling-stock, he speedily organized two expeditions to operate along the line of the railway each way from Huntsville. Colonel Sill led the expedition eastward to Stevenson, and Colonel Turchin the other westward to Tuscumbia. On April 16 Mitchell said to his soldiers: "You have struck blow after blow with a rapidity unparalleled. Stevenson fell sixty miles to the east of Huntsville; Decatur and Tuscumbia have been in like manner seized, and are now occupied. In three days you have extended your front of operations more than one hundred miles, and your morning-gun at Tuscumbia may now be heard by your comrades on the battle-field made glorious by their victory before Corinth." (See *Corinth, Battle of*.)

Mitchill, SAMUEL LATHAM, M.D., LL.D., was born at North Hempstead, L. I., Aug. 20, 1764; died in New York city, Sept. 7, 1831. He studied medicine with Dr. Bard (which see), but turned his attention to law, and began a public career by serving as commissioner (1788) to treat with the Iroquois (which see) in New York State for the purchase of their lands. In 1790 he was in the Legislature, and at the age of twenty-eight became professor of chemistry, natural history, and philosophy in Columbia College. Dr. Mitchill was ever ready to labor for the enlargement of the bounds of human knowledge and to advance the interests of mankind. He was one of the founders of the Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Manufactures, and the Useful Arts, and his scientific labors made him famous at home and abroad when he was little past thirty years of age. In 1797 he assisted in establishing the *Medical Repository*, a magazine which he edited sixteen years. He was a member of the Lower House of Congress from 1801 to 1804 and a United States Senator from 1804 to 1809. From 1808 to 1820 he was professor of natural history in the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons; of botany and materia medica from 1820 to 1826, and was vice-president of the Rutgers Medical School. With Drs. Hosack and Williamson he founded the New York Literary and Philosophical Society. Dr. Mitchill possessed a very retentive memory, and acquired vast stores of learning. He believed in Fulton's ability to establish navigation by steam, promoted his interests in the Legislature, and was one of the friends who accompanied him on his experimental voyage from New York to Albany in September, 1807.

Mob in Baltimore (1861). (See *Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore*.)

Mobile Bay, NAVAL BATTLE IN. After the destruction of the *Alabama* (which see) it was determined to seal up the ports of Mobile and Wilmington against English blockade-runners. These were the only ports then open to them. Admiral Farragut was sent for that purpose to the entrance of Mobile Bay, full thirty miles below the city of Mobile, with a fleet of eighteen vessels, four of them iron-clad, while a co-operating land force 5000 strong, under General Gordon Granger, was sent from New Orleans to Dauphin Island. Farragut entered the bay Aug. 5, 1864. That entrance is divided into two passages by Dauphin Island. On the eastern side of this island was Fort Gaines, commanding the main entrance; and southeasterly from it was Fort Morgan, a still stronger work, with a light-house near it. These forts the Confederates had well armed and manned, and within the bay lay a Confederate flotilla under Admiral Buchanan. (See *Monitor and Merrimac*.) His flag-ship was the *Tennessee*, a powerful "ram," and it was accompanied by three ordinary gunboats. Farragut lashed his wooden ships together in couples, his own flag-ship, the *Hartford*, being tethered to the *Metacomet*. Wishing to have a general oversight of the battle, he ascended the rigging, when Captain Drayton, fearing he might be dislodged by a sudden shock, sent up a man with a line which he passed around the admiral and made it fast. In this position he went into the battle, boldly sailing in between the forts, and delivering terrific broadsides of grape-shot, first upon Fort Morgan. The "monitor" *Tecumseh*, which led the National vessels, was struck by the explosion of a torpedo directly under her turret, carrying down with her Commander Craven and nearly all of his officers and crew—only 17 of 130 were saved. Farragut ordered the *Hartford* to push on and the others to follow, unmindful of torpedoes. The forts were silenced by the storm of grape-shot poured upon them, but as the National fleet entered the bay the Confederate vessels opened upon them. The "ram" *Tennessee* rushed at the *Hartford*, but missed her. The fire of the three gunboats was concentrated on the flag-ship. The fight was short. One of the Confederate gunboats was captured, and the other two sought safety under the cannons of the fort. Under cover of night one of them escaped to Mobile. Believing the battle over at dusk, Farragut had anchored his vessels, when, at nearly nine o'clock, the "ram" *Tennessee* came rushing at the *Hartford* under a full head of steam. The other National vessels were ordered to close upon her. A tremendous fight with the monster at short range occurred, and very soon the *Tennessee*, badly injured, surrendered. Her commander (Buchanan) was severely wounded. The Confederate squadron was destroyed. The forts were assailed by land and water the next day, and the three were surrendered, the last (Fort Morgan) on the morning of Aug. 23. With this victory the government came into possession of 104 guns and 1464 men, and it effectually closed the port of Mobile to blockade-runners. This victory, and that at Atlanta soon afterwards, together with the

hearty response given by the people of the free-labor states to the call of the President (July 18, 1864) for 300,000 men, gave assurance that the Civil War was nearly ended.

Mobile, CAPTURE OF (1865). General Joseph E. Johnston said Mobile was the best-fortified place in the Confederacy. It was garrisoned by about 15,000 men, including troops on the east side of the bay and 1000 negro laborers subject to the command of the engineers. The department was then (1865) in command of General Richard Taylor, son of President Taylor. For several months after the harbor of Mobile was sealed (see *Mobile Bay, Naval Battle in*) there was comparative quiet in that region; but when Sherman had finished his triumphal march from Atlanta to the sea (which see) the government determined to repossess Alabama, beginning with a movement against Mobile, and by other operations in the interior. General E. R. S. Canby, commanding the West Mississippi Army, was charged with the conduct of the expedition against Mobile, and the co-operating force was that of General J. H. Wilson, the eminent cavalry leader, under the direction of General Thomas. Early in 1865 General A. J. Smith's corps joined Canby at New Orleans (Feb. 21). That corps went to Dauphin Island, at the entrance to Mobile Bay, where a siege-train was organized, consisting of ten batteries. Kuiper's cavalry, attached to the corps, marched overland from New Orleans. Everything was in readiness for an attack on Mobile by the middle of March, with from 25,000 to 30,000 troops, including cavalry; and the West Gulf Squadron, under Admiral Thatcher, was ready to co-operate. It was so strongly fortified by three lines of works on its land side that it was determined to flank the post by a movement of the main army up the eastern side of the bay. The Thirteenth Corps began a march on the 17th from Fort Morgan over a swampy region in heavy rain, and the Sixteenth Corps crossed the bay from Fort Gaines and joined the other. At the same time a feint was made on Mobile to attract attention from this movement. General Steele, with Hawkins's division of negro troops and some cavalry, had been marching from Pensacola to Blakely, ten miles north of Mobile, to induce the belief that Montgomery was Canby's real objective point. On March 25 this force encountered and defeated 800 Alabama cavalry under General Clanton. The Confederates lost about 200 men killed and wounded, and 275 made prisoners. Steele found very little opposition afterwards until he reached the front of Blakely. The Nationals on the east side of the bay pushed on to Spanish Fort, seven miles east of Mobile. It was invested (March 27), but its garrison of nearly 3000 of Hood's late army (see *Nashville, Battle at*), with its neighbors, made it a stout antagonist, willing to give blow for blow. Warmer and warmer waxed the fight on that day, and before sunset a tremendous artillery duel was in progress, in which gunboats of both parties joined, and kept it up all night. Then a siege was formally begun (March 28). The Nationals finally brought to bear upon the

fort sixteen mortars, twenty heavy guns, and six field-pieces. Towards sunset, April 8, Canby began a general assault by a consecutive fire from all his heavy guns, his field-pieces, and his gunboats. An Iowa regiment, encountering some Texas sharpshooters, charged upon and overpowered them. Sweeping along the rear of the intrenchments, they captured 300 yards of them, with 350 prisoners and three battle-flags. This exploit made the Confederates evacuate the fort, and by two o'clock the next morning it was in possession of the Nationals. The garrison, excepting 600 made prisoners, escaped. It had expected assistance from Forrest, but Wilson was keeping him away. (See *Wilson's Raid*.) The spoils were thirty heavy guns and a large quantity of munitions of war. Forts Huger and Tracy were also captured, April 11. The key to Mobile was now in the hands of the Nationals. Torpedoes were fished up, and the National squadron approached the city. The army moved on Blakeley, and on April 9 the works there were attacked and carried. (See *Blakely, Battle of*.) Meanwhile the Thirteenth Corps had been taken across the bay to attack Mobile. But the army found no enemy to fight, for General D. H. Maury, in command there, had ordered the evacuation of the city; and on the 11th, after sinking two powerful "rams," he fled up the Alabama River with 9000 men on gunboats and transports. On the 12th General Granger and Rear-admiral Thatcher demanded the surrender of the city. This was formally done the same evening by the civil authorities, and on the following day Veatch's division entered the city and hoisted the national flag on the public buildings. Generals Granger and Canby entered the city soon afterwards. The "repossession" of Mobile cost the national government 2000 men and much treasure. Seven vessels-of-war had been destroyed by torpedoes. During this campaign of about three weeks the army and navy captured about 5000 men, nearly 400 cannons, and a vast amount of public property. The value of ammunition and commissary stores found in Mobile was valued at \$2,000,000. Wilson's raid in the interior had kept reinforcements from being sent to Mobile. (See *Wilson's Raid*.)

Mobile, SEIZURE OF (1812). Under the act of cession of Louisiana from France the United States claimed all of West Florida, including Mobile. A large portion of that territory had been annexed to the Territory of Mississippi, and in the winter and spring of 1812, when war had been determined upon, the importance to the United States of possessing Mobile was very apparent. In March, General Wilkinson, in command of the United States troops in the Southwest, was ordered to take possession of it. Wilkinson sent Commodore Shaw, with gunboats, to occupy Mobile Bay and cut off communication with Pensacola. Lieutenant-colonel Bowyer, then with troops at Fort Stoddard, was ordered to be prepared to march on Mobile at a moment's notice for the purpose of investing the fort there. Wilkinson left Mobile March 29, on the sloop *Alligator*, and, after a perilous voy-

age, reached Petit Coquille, when he sent a courier with orders to Bowyer to march immediately. Wilkinson's troops arrived in Mobile Bay April 12, landed the next morning, and at noon six hundred men appeared before Fort Charlotte, commanded by Captain Cayetano Perez, and demanded its surrender. On the 15th the Spaniards evacuated the fort and retired to Pensacola, and the Americans took possession. Placing nine cannons in battery on Mobile Point, Wilkinson marched to the Perdido. There he began the erection of a fort, but the place was soon abandoned, and another was begun and finished on Mobile Point, and called Fort Bowyer, in honor of the brave lieutenant-colonel of that name. Such was the beginning of a movement which resulted in the acquisition of all Florida by the Americans.

Mobilians, or Floridians. These composed a large number of tribes, and were next to the Algonquins in the extent of their domain and power when Europeans discovered them. They were superior to most of the Algonquins in the attainments which lead to civilization; and they were evidently related to the inhabitants of Central and South America. The domain of the Mobilians extended along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River, more than six hundred miles. It stretched northward along the Atlantic coast to the mouth of the Cape Fear River, and up the Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio, comprising a large portion of the present cotton-states. A greater portion of Georgia, the whole of Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, and parts of South Carolina, Tennessee, and Kentucky were included in their territory. The nation was divided into three grand confederacies—viz., Muscoghees, or Creeks, Choctaws, and Chickasaws. See *Creek Confederacy*, *Choctaws*, and *Chickasaws*.

Model North Carolina Tory, A. David Fanning was one of the most brutal of the loyalist leaders in North Carolina, and was a favorite of the British commanders. (See *Scotch Spy*.) He was at the head of about one thousand desperate men in 1782, and maintained a reign of terror in central North Carolina for a long time. His letters to the British commanders reveal his infamy. In March, 1782, he wrote: "My men being all properly equipped, on the 12th assembled together to give the rebels a small scourge, which we set out for." Then he details some of his operations. They broke into the house of Andrew Balfour, of Randolph County, N. C., a member of the Legislature, and in the presence of his sister and daughter shot him through the body and neck. On their way to the house of another victim they "burned several rebels' houses," he reported. The man they were after escaped from his house with three balls through his shirt, when they desolated his whole plantation. When they reached the house of "another rebel officer," "I told him," says Fanning, "if he would come out of the house I would give him his parole." The officer too well knew the character of the man to believe his promise, and refused. "With that," wrote Fanning, "I

ordered the house to be set on fire. As soon as he saw the flames increasing he called out to me to spare his house for his wife's and children's sake, and he would walk out with his arms in his hands. When he came out he said 'Here I am;' with that he received two balls through his body." After this infamous act he proceeded to "destroy all the rebel property on the settlement for forty miles." On April 18, while on his way towards Chatham, he learned that there was a wedding-party assembled. "We surrounded the house," Fanning wrote, "and drove all out one by one. I found one concealed up stairs. Having my pistols in my hands, I discharged them both at his breast. He fell and that night expired." Such was the man to whom the British gave the commission of colonel of the loyal militia in Randolph and Chatham counties, N. C., with authority to give commissions to subalterns and captains as brutal as himself. Notwithstanding his confession in his letters of high crimes, he was recommended by the British officer of American claims as a proper person to be put upon the half-pay list; and that reward, for such services as are here recorded, he enjoyed in Nova Scotia for forty-two years. He died in 1825. (See *Fanning, David*.)

Modocs. These Indians were originally a part of the Klamath nation. Their name means "enemies," and was given to them by others. Such is the case with almost all existing tribes, their real names being obscured or lost by the substitution of nicknames. The Modocs were first found on the south shore of Lake Klamath, in California, when both sexes were decently clothed in skins. In their wars they held captives as slaves, and traded in them. The early emigrants to California encountered them as hostiles, and they massacred many white people. In 1852 Ben Wright, who sought revenge, invited a band of Modocs to a peaceful feast, when he and his men murdered forty-one out of forty-six Indians who were there. The Modocs never forgave the outrage, and war with them was kept up at intervals until 1864, when, by a treaty, they ceded their lands to the United States, and agreed to go on a reservation. The treaty was not ratified by the government until 1870, nor the reservation set apart until 1871. The Modocs meanwhile had gone upon the Klamath reservation, but it was so sterile that they could not live there. They were cheated by the government and harassed by the Klamaths, who were anciently their enemies, and some went to another reservation. Unfortunately some Klamaths were put with them, and trouble continued, when two Modoc bands left the reservation. A clan known as Captain Jack's band were uneasy and turbulent. Their tribe complained of them, and in the spring of 1872 they were ordered back to the Klamath reservation. They refused to go, and late in November (1872) United States troops and citizens of Oregon attacked their two camps on opposite sides of a river. The people were repulsed with loss, and the united Modocs, retreating, massacred some white settlers on the way, and took refuge in the Lava Beds, a volcanic region difficult for a

foe to enter if moderately defended. In June, 1873, General Wheaton attempted to drive the Modocs from their stronghold, but could not penetrate within three miles of them, after the loss of several men. General Gillem made an equally unsuccessful attempt to dislodge them. In the meantime the government had appointed a commission of inquiry, and clothed it with power to adjust all difficulties. It met the Modocs in conference on the 11th of April, 1873, when the Indians killed General Cauby and Dr. Thomas, two of the commissioners, and wounded Mr. Meacham, another commissioner. After this foul act of treachery, operations against the Modocs were pressed with vigor. A long and stubborn resistance ensued, but finally Captain Jack and his band were compelled to surrender. The chief and three of his prominent associates were tried by a military commission and executed at Fort Klamath, Oct. 3, 1873. The remainder were placed on the Quapaw reservation, in the Indian Territory. Jack's band numbered one hundred and forty-eight; those left at the Klamath agency, and who took no part in hostilities, numbered about one hundred.

Mohawk Valley, THE. The valley of the Mohawk River, extending from near the middle of the State of New York to the Hudson River, is one of the most interesting historical regions in the Republic. Within it, according to tradition, was formed the powerful Iroquois Confederacy, the members of which have been called "The Romans of the Western World." (See *Iroquois Confederacy*.) French missionaries spread through the valley a knowledge of the Christian religion, and a hundred years before the old war for independence it was the scene of sharp conflicts between the natives and intruding Europeans. Within its borders, before that time, its chief inhabitant (William Johnson) received the honors of knighthood, and ruled not only over a vast private manorial domain, but also over Indian tribes of the Confederacy as their official superintendent. When the Revolution broke out his family were the leaders of the adherents to the crown in the northern regions of New York; and his son, Sir John, who inherited his title and his possessions, with a large number of Scotch retainers and other white people, organized a corps of loyalists called "Johnson Greens," which, with Indians under Brant, his kinsman by marriage, carried on a most distressing warfare against the patriots, and gave the region the name of the "Dark and Bloody Ground" (which see). Later, the Erie Canal, the most gigantic single work of internal improvement in our country, was dug the whole length of the valley, and became the aqueous highway for a vast commerce between the Western States and the Atlantic Ocean.

Mohawks. These were the most celebrated of the Five Nations. (See *Iroquois Confederacy*.) Their proper name was Agmegne, and they called themselves, as a tribe, She-bears. That animal was their totemic symbol. The neighboring tribes called them Mahaqua, which name the

English pronounced Mohawk. Champlain and his followers, French and Indians from Canada, fought them in northern New York in 1609. At Norman's Kill, below the site of Albany, the Dutch made a treaty with them in 1698, which was lasting; and the English, also, after the conquest of New Netherland, gained their friendship. The French Jesuits gained many converts among them, and three villages of Roman Catholics on the St. Lawrence were largely filled with the Mohawks. They served the English against the Canadians in the French and Indian War (which see), and in the old war for American independence, influenced by Sir William Johnson and his brother-in-law Brant, they made savage war on the patriots, causing the valleys in central New York to be called the "Dark and Bloody Ground" (which see). After that struggle, the greater portion of them removed to Grand River, fifty or sixty miles west of the Niagara River, where they still are. Many of them are Christians, and have a church there, with a communion-service presented by Queen Anne. The Common Prayer-book has been translated into their language, one edition by Eleazar Williams, the "Lost Prince." Tradition says that at the formation of the Confederacy Hi-a-wat-ha (which see) said, "You, the Mohawks, sitting under the shadow of the 'Great Tree,' whose roots sink deep into the earth, and whose branches spread over a vast country, shall be the first nation, because you are warlike and mighty." The Confederacy being called "the long house," the Mohawks were denominated the "Eastern Door."

Mohawks, FRENCH EXPEDITION AGAINST THE (1661). The Mohawks in eastern New York made frequent incursions into Canada. Finally, in 1661, M. de Tracy, French Viceroy of New France, although over seventy years of age, led a military expedition against the Mohawks. He was accompanied by M. de Courcelles, Governor of Canada. A regiment had lately been sent to Canada from France. With twenty-eight companies of foot, and all the militia of the colony of Quebec, he marched seven hundred miles into the Mohawk country in the dead of winter, easily crossing the swamps and streams on bridges of ice, and burrowing in the snow at night. The Mohawks, on the approach of the French, retired deeper into the forest with their women and children, and all the invaders accomplished was to burn several villages and murder some sachems.

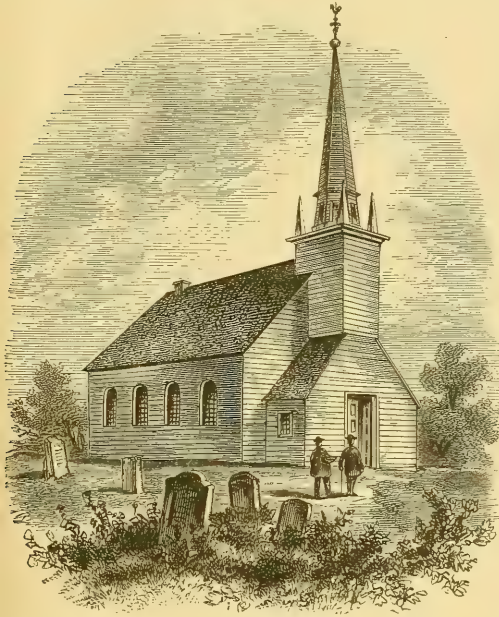
Mohawks, THE, AND THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH. The treacherous Mohawks had been coquetting with the French a long time, now offering friendship, now attacking them, until the spring of 1667, when the exasperated Canadians resolved to chastise them for their perfidy. Tracy, a bold leader, set out in person at the head of twelve hundred white soldiers and one hundred Indian allies, passed down Lake Champlain in boats and canoes, and in October marched through the Mohawk country, burning the villages and setting up the arms of France at conspicuous places. On his return to Quebec, Tra-

cy sent back prisoners with terms of peace for the Mohawks to consider. The English, made anxious by these events, tried to persuade the Mohawks to remain faithful to them; but the latter, remembering how well the French could fight, and also the fearful sight of their burning villages, their women and children hiding in the woods, and their dead warriors, would not listen to the appeals of the English. When the warm weather came, deputations from the Mohawks and Oneidas appeared in Quebec and promised submission. The Indians brought their families with them to attest their sincerity, and a treaty was made by which the Mohawks promised allegiance to the French monarch. They also consented to listen to the teachings of the Jesuit missionaries. This treaty left the whole northern frontier exposed to incursions by the French and Indians.

Mohawks, THE, ATTACKED BY THE FRENCH (1693). Count Frontenac, Governor of Canada, unable to effect a treaty of peace with the Five Nations, meditated a blow on the powerful Mohawks. In midwinter, 1693, he collected an army of about seven hundred French and Indians, well supplied with everything for a campaign at that season. They left Montreal Jan. 15, and after severe hardships reached the Mohawk valley early in February, and captured three castles. At the third castle they found some Indians engaged in a war-dance. There a severe conflict ensued, in which the French lost about thirty men. In the expedition they captured about three hundred Indians in the English interest, and were making their way back to Canada when they were pursued by Colonel Schuyler and several skirmishes ensued. In the Scarron (Schroon) valley the pursuit ended. The French had desired to kill their prisoners to facilitate their retreat, but their Indian allies would not consent. Of these Schuyler recaptured about fifty. The Mohawks called Colonel Schuyler "Great Swift Hero," because of his promptness in coming to their relief. The Mohawks, discouraged by their heavy loss, were disposed to make a treaty of peace with the French, but Schuyler prevented it. (See *Schuyler, Peter*.)

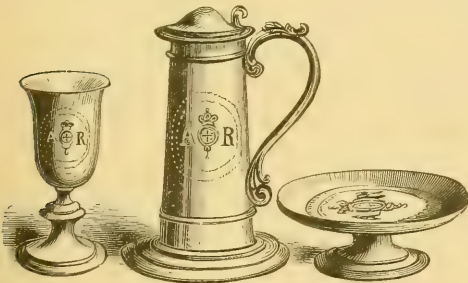
Mohawks, THE, ON GRAND RIVER, CANADA. The governors of Canada during the American war for independence promised those of the Six Nations who joined the British in that war that they should be well provided for at its close. In the treaty of peace (1783) no such promise was kept. At that time the Mohawks, with Brant at their head, were temporarily residing on the American side of the Niagara River below Lewiston. The Senecas offered them a home in the Genesee valley, but Brant and his followers had resolved not to reside within the United States. He went to Quebec to claim from Governor Haldimand a fulfilment of his and Carleton's promises. The Mohawks chose a large tract of land comprising two hundred square miles on the Ouise or Grand River, or six miles on each side of that stream from its source to its mouth. It is chiefly a beautiful and fertile region. Of all

that splendid domain, the Mohawks now retain only a comparatively small tract in the vicinity of Brantford, on the Grand River. In 1830 they surrendered to the government the town-plot of Brantford, when it was surveyed and sold to actual settlers. On their present reservation is a church built of wood in 1783, a plain, unpretend-



MOHAWK CHURCH.

ing structure. It is furnished with a silver communion-service which Queen Anne presented to the Mohawks in 1712. Upon each piece is engraved the royal arms of England and the monogram of the queen, "A. R."—Anne Regina—with the following inscription: "The Gift of her Majesty, Anne, by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and of her Plantations



COMMUNION PLATE.

in North America, Queen, to her Indian Chapel of the Mohawks."

Mohegans (or Mohicans). This was an Algonquin family found by the Dutch on the Hudson River above the Highlands. The name was also given to several independent tribes on Long Island, and in the country between the Lenni-

Lenapes or Delawares (see *Delawares*) and the New England Indians. Of this family the Pequods, who inhabited eastern Connecticut, were the most powerful, and exercised authority over thirteen cantons on Long Island. They received the Dutch kindly, and gave them lands on which they erected Fort Orange, now Albany. They were then at war with the Mohawks, and when furiously attacked by the latter the Mohegans fled to the valley of the Connecticut, whither a part of the nation had gone before, and settled on the Thames. This portion was the Pequods. A part of them, led by Uncas, seceded, and these "rebels" aided the English in their war with the Pequods in 1637. The bulk of the nation finally returned to the Hudson, and kept up a communication with the French in Canada, who called them Loups (wolves), which is the meaning of Mohegan. When the English and French began their great struggle for the mastery in America (about 1690), the Hudson Mohegans made peace with the Mohawks and joined the English, but were soon reduced to two hundred warriors, and the Connecticut Mohegans to about one hundred and fifty. Some of the latter were collected at Stockbridge, Mass.; and from 1740 to 1744 the Moravians had a flourishing mission among them at Shekomoco, in Dutchess County, N. Y. Some of these went to Pennsylvania under the care of the Moravians. In the Revolution they joined the Americans, and were found in the ranks at Bunker's Hill, White Plains, and other fields. After the war, some of the Mohegans emigrated to Oneida, under the Rev. Samson Occum, a native preacher, and others, and before 1830 they had emigrated to Green Bay, Wis., where they abandoned their tribal relations and became citizens. They have almost given up their own language for the English, and are nearly extinct. Those who remained in Connecticut took up their abode near Norwich, at a place known as Mohegan Plains, and also near the village of Kent, in western Connecticut. At the latter place they have intermingled with other races, until now, among less than a hundred, not one of pure blood remains. The last surviving Pequot of pure blood was Ennice Mauwee, who died near Kent in 1860, aged about one hundred years. The last lineal descendant of Uncas, the "rebel," was buried at Norwich in 1827. The tribe in Connecticut is extinct.

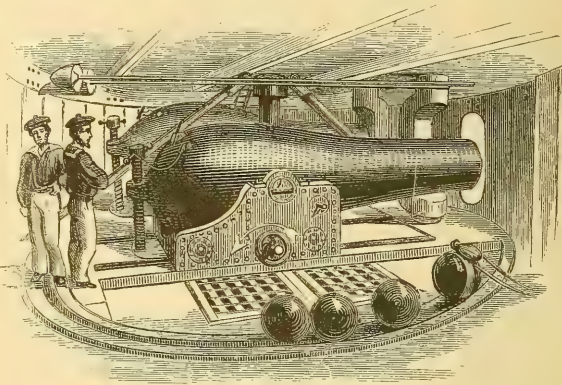
Monarchies in Danger. When it became known in England (Aug. 19, 1768) that Massachusetts had refused to rescind its Circular Letter (which see) by a large majority, the governments of Europe were amazed at the audacity of the Americans. Chief-justice Mansfield, of England, was of opinion that all the members of the Massachusetts Assembly ought to be sent for to give an account of their conduct, and that all the rigors of the law should be exercised against those who should persist in refusing to submit to Parliament. "When rebellion begins," he said, "the laws cease, and they can invoke none in their favor." He insisted that the Americans must first be reduced to absolute submission before inquiry should be made into their real or pretended grievances. Every court in

Enrope became interested in the quarrel. The Spanish minister at the French court expressed the wish that Great Britain might master her colonies, "lest the Spanish colonies should also catch the flame." The British ministry saw the danger of a dismemberment of the empire, but did not have wisdom sufficient to arrest it by justice. "Depend upon it," said Hillsborough to the agent of Connecticut, "Parliament will not suffer its authority to be trampled upon. We wish to avoid severities towards you, but if you refuse obedience to our laws, the whole fleet and army of England shall enforce it."

Monckton, ROBERT, Governor of New York in 1762, was born in England; died May 3, 1782. He was son of the first Viscount Galway, and began his military life in Flanders in 1742. In 1754 he was governor of Annapolis (Port Royal), Nova Scotia; assisted in the reduction of the French power in that peninsula, and was lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia in 1756. He commanded a battalion at the siege of Louisburg in 1758, and the next year he was second in command under General Wolfe at the capture of Quebec, where he acted as brigadier-general and was severely wounded. In 1761 he was made major-general, and the next year was governor of New York. He commanded the expedition against Martinique in 1762; was a member of Parliament in 1768; made lieutenant-general in 1770, and was offered the command of the British forces in America in 1775, but he declined to draw his sword against British subjects.

Monitor and Merrimac. At the moment when the Confederates evacuated Manassas (which see), a strange naval battle occurred in Hampton Roads. The insurgents had raised the sunken *Merrimac* in the Gosport Navy-yard and converted it into an iron-clad ram, which they called the *Virginia*, commanded by Captain Buchanan, late of the United States Navy. She had gone down to Hampton Roads and destroyed (March 8, 1862) the wooden sailing frigates *Congress* and *Cumberland*, at the mouth of the James River, and it was expected she would annihilate other transports there the next morning. Anxiously the army and navy officers of that vicinity passed the night of the 8th, for there appeared no competent human agency near to avert the threatened disaster. Meanwhile another vessel of novel form and aspect had been constructed at Greenpoint, L. I., under the direction of the eminent engineer Captain J. Ericsson. It was a dwarf in appearance by the side of the *Merrimac*. It presented to the eye, when afloat, a simple platform, sharp at both ends, and bearing in its centre a round Martello tower twenty feet in diameter and ten feet in height, made, as was the rest of the vessel, of heavy iron. It presented a bomb-proof fort, in which were mounted two 11-inch Dahlgren cannons. The hull of this vessel was only eight feet six inches in depth, with a flat

bottom, and was one hundred and twenty-four feet in length, and thirty-four feet in greatest width at top. On this hull rested another, five feet in height, that extended over the lower one three feet seven inches all around, excepting at the ends, where it projected twenty-five feet, by which protection was afforded the anchor, propeller, and rudder. The whole was built of three-inch iron, and was very buoyant. Its exposed parts were guarded by a wall of white-oak, thirty inches in thickness, on which was

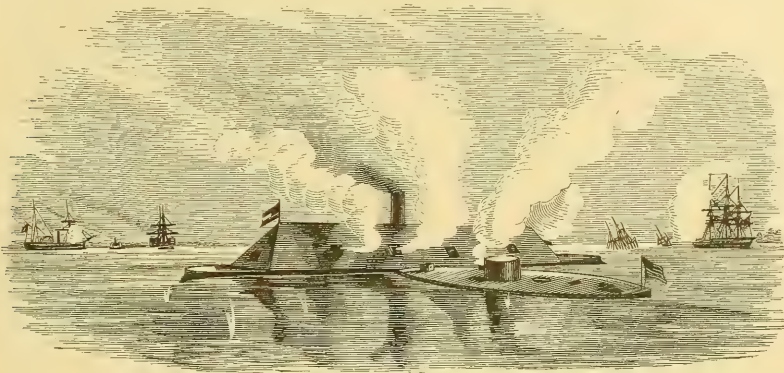


INTERIOR OF THE MONITOR'S TURRET.

laid iron armor six inches in thickness. A shot to strike the lower hull would have to pass through twenty-five feet of water, and then strike an inclined plane of iron at an angle of about 10°. The deck was well armed also. Such was the strange craft that entered Hampton Roads from the sea, under the command of Lieutenant John L. Worden, unheralded and unknown, at a little past midnight (March 9), on its trial trip. It had been named *Monitor*. It had been towed to the Roads by steamers, outriding a tremendous gale. Worden reported to the flag-officer of the fleet in the Roads, and was ordered to aid the *Minnesota* in the expected encounter with the *Merrimac* in the morning. It was a bright Sabbath morning. Before sunrise the dreaded *Merrimac* and her company came down from Norfolk. The stern guns of the *Minnesota* opened upon the formidable iron-clad, when the little *Monitor*, which the Confederates called in derision a "cheese-box," ran out and placed herself by the side of the huge monster. She was like a pigmy by the side of a giant. Suddenly her mysterious citadel began to revolve, and from it her guns hurled ponderous shot in quick succession. The *Merrimac* answered by heavy broadsides, and so they struggled for some time without injuring each other. Then the *Monitor* withdrew a little to seek a vulnerable part of her antagonist, while the *Merrimac* pounded her awfully, sometimes sending upon her masses of iron weighing two hundred pounds at a velocity of two hundred feet in a second. These struck her deck and tower without harming them, and conical bolts that struck the latter glanced off as pebbles would fly from solid granite. The *Merrimac* drew off

and attacked the *Minnesota*. Seeing the latter in great peril, the *Monitor* ran between them. A most severe duel ensued. The *Merrimac* was so much disabled that she fled up to Norfolk, and did not again invite her little antagonist to com-

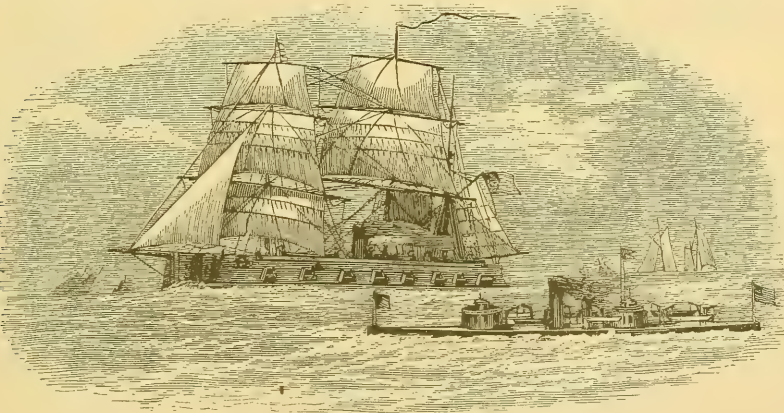
General Lincoln endeavored to keep an open communication with the country, across the Cooper River, so as to receive reinforcements, and, if necessary, to make a retreat. To close that communication Sir Henry Clinton detach-



BATTLE BETWEEN THE MONITOR AND MERRIMAC, IN HAMPTON ROADS.

bat. Worden was severely injured by concussion in the tower of the *Monitor*, and for a few days his life was in peril. This class of vessels was multiplied in the National navy, and did good service. A comparison of the appearance of the two vessels may be made in looking at the engraving of the *New Ironsides* and *Monitor*.

ed Lieutenant-colonel Webster, with 1400 men. The advanced guard, composed of Tarleton's legion and Ferguson's corps, surprised the American cavalry (about 300 men), with militia attached to them, under the command of General Isaac Huger, who were stationed at Biggin's Bridge, near Monk's Corner. The Americans



THE NEW IRONSIDES AND MONITOR.

The *New Ironsides* was a powerful vessel built in Philadelphia. It had a wooden hull covered with iron plates four inches in thickness. Her aggregate weight of guns was 234,000 pounds, two of them 200-pound Parrott guns. She had two horizontal steam-engines, and was furnished with sails. At her bow was a formidable wrought-iron ram or beak. She was accidentally set on fire and destroyed at her moorings at League Island, below Philadelphia, Dec. 15, 1866.

**Monk's Corner, SURPRISE OF AMERICAN CAV-
ALRY AT.** While the British were besieging Charleston in 1780 (see *Siege of Charleston*),

were attacked just at dawn (April 14) and were scattered. Twenty-five of the Americans were killed; the remainder fled to the swamps. Tarleton secured nearly 300 horses, and, after closing Lincoln's communications with the country, he returned to the British camp in triumph.

Monmouth Court-house, BATTLE OF. Just before the dawn (June 18, 1778) the British began their evacuation of Philadelphia. They crossed the Delaware to Gloucester Point, and that evening encamped around Haddonfield, a few miles southeast from Camden, N. J. The news of this evacuation reached Washington, at Valley Forge, before morning. He immediately

sent General Maxwell, with his brigade, to co-operate with the New Jersey militia under General Dickinson, in retarding the march of the British, who, when they crossed the river, were 17,000 strong, in effective men. They marched in two divisions, one under Cornwallis and the other led by Knyphausen. General Arnold, whose wounds kept him from the field, entered Philadelphia with a detachment before the rear-guard of the British had left it. The remainder of the army, under the immediate command of Washington, crossed the Delaware above Trenton and pursued. General Charles Lee, who had been exchanged, was now with the army, and persistently opposed all interference with Clinton's march across New Jersey, and found fault with everything. (See *Treason of General Lee*.) Clinton had intended to march to New Brunswick and embark his army on Raritan Bay for New York; but, finding Washington in his path, he turned, at Allentown, towards Monmouth Court-house, to make his way to Sandy Hook, and thence to New York by water. Washington followed him in a parallel line, prepared to strike him whenever an opportunity should offer, while Clinton wished to avoid a battle, for he was encumbered with baggage-wagons and a host of camp-followers, making his line twelve miles in length. He encamped near the court-house in Freehold, Monmouth Co., N. J., on the 27th of June, and

tardily obeyed that he allowed his antagonist ample time to prepare for battle. When Lee did move, he seemed to have no plan, and by his orders and counter-orders so perplexed his generals that they sent a request to Washington to appear on the field with the main army immediately. And while Wayne was attacking with vigor, with a sure prospect of victory, Lee ordered him to make only a feint. At that moment Clinton changed front, and sent a large force, horse and foot, to attack Wayne. Lafayette, believing there was now a good opportunity to gain the rear of the British, rode quickly up to Lee and asked permission to attempt the movement. He at first refused, but, seeing the earnestness of the marquis, he yielded a little, and ordered him to wheel his column by the right and attack Clinton's left. At the same time he weakened Wayne's detachment by taking three regiments from it to support the right. Then, being apparently disconcerted by a movement of the British, he ordered his right to fall back; and Generals Scott and Maxwell, who were then about to attack, were ordered to retreat. At the same time Lafayette received a similar order, a general retreat began, and the British pursued. In this flight and pursuit Lee showed no disposition to check either party, and the retreat became a disorderly flight. Washington was then pressing forward to the support of Lee, when he was met by the astounding intelligence that the advance division was in full retreat. Lee had sent him no word of this disastrous movement. The fugitives, falling back upon the main army, might endanger the whole. Washington's indignation was fearfully aroused, and when he met Lee, at the head of the second retreating column, he rode up to him, and, in a tone of withering reproof, he exclaimed, "Sir, I desire to know what is the reason and whence comes this disorder and confusion?" Lee replied sharply, "You know the attack was contrary to my advice and opinion." The chief replied in a tone that indicated the depth of his indignation, "You should not have undertaken the command unless you intended to carry it out." There was no time for altercation, and, wheeling his horse, he hastened to Ramsay and Stewart, in the rear, and soon rallied a greater portion of their regiments, and ordered Oswald to take post on an eminence near, with two cannons. These pieces, skilfully handled, soon checked the enemy. Washington's presence inspired the troops with courage, and ten minutes after he appeared the retreat was ended. The troops, lately a fugitive mob, were soon in orderly battle array on an eminence on which General Lord Stirling placed some batteries. The line, then, was commanded on the right by General Greene and on the left by Stirling. The two armies now confronted each other. The British, about 7000 strong, were upon a narrow road, bounded by morasses. Their cavalry attempted to turn the American left flank, but were repulsed and disappointed. The regiments of foot came up, when a severe battle occurred with musketry and caunons. The American artillery, under the general direction

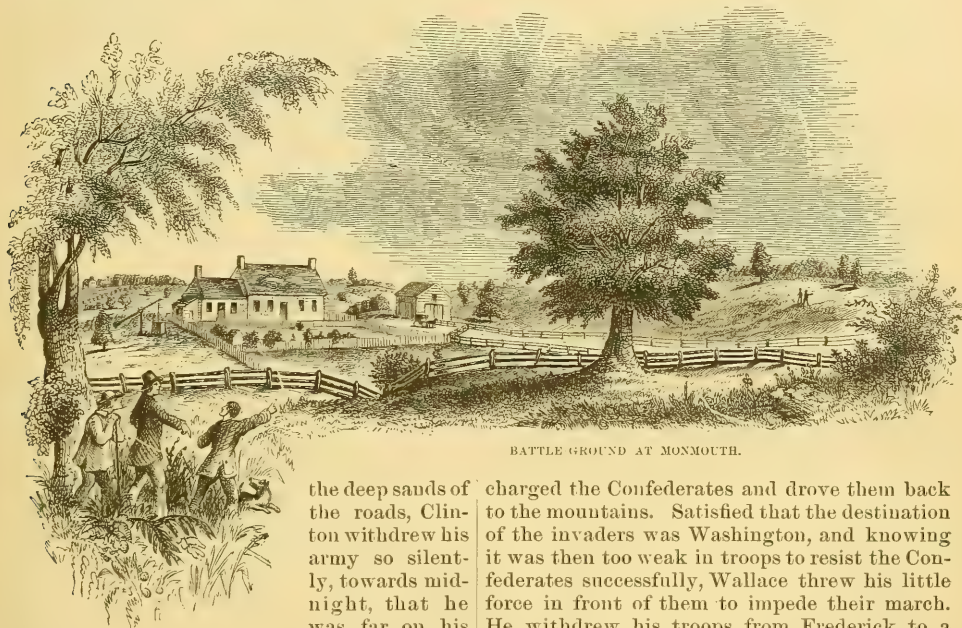


OLD MONMOUTH COURT-HOUSE.

there Washington resolved to strike him if he should move the next morning, for it was important to prevent his reaching the advantageous position of Middletown Heights. General Lee was now in command of the advanced corps. Washington ordered him to form a plan of attack, but he omitted to do so, or to give any orders to Wayne, Lafayette, or Maxwell, who called upon him. And when, the next morning (June 28)—a hot Sabbath—Washington was told Clinton was about to move, and ordered Lee to fall upon the British rear, unless there should be grave reasons for not doing so, that officer so

of Knox, did great execution. For a while the result seemed doubtful, when General Wayne came up with a body of troops and gave victory to the Americans. Colonel Monckton, perceiving that the fate of the conflict depended upon driving Wayne away or capturing him, led his troops to a bayonet charge. So terrible was Wayne's storm of bullets upon them that almost every British officer was slain. Their brave leader was among the killed, as he was pressing forward, waving his sword and shouting to his men. His veterans then retreated, and fell back to the heights occupied by Lee in the morning. The battle ended at twilight, when the wearied armies rested on their weapons, prepared for another conflict at dawn. Through

Baltimore. Already General Grant had been informed of the invasion, and had sent General Wright, with the Sixth Corps, to protect the capital. General E. B. Tyler was at Frederick with about 1000 troops, and Wallace gathered there, on the 6th, all the available troops in his department that could be spared from the duties of watching the railways leading into Baltimore from the North. He sent Colonel Clendennia to search for positive information, with 400 men and a section of artillery, and at Middletown he encountered 1000 Confederates under Bradley Johnson, a Marylander, who pushed him steadily back towards Frederick. There was a sharp fight near Frederick that day (July 7, 1864), and, at six o'clock, Gilpin's regiment



BATTLE GROUND AT MONMOUTH.

the deep sands of the roads, Clinton withdrew his army so silently, towards midnight, that he was far on his way towards

charged the Confederates and drove them back to the mountains. Satisfied that the destination of the invaders was Washington, and knowing it was then too weak in troops to resist the Confederates successfully, Wallace threw his little force in front of them to impede their march. He withdrew his troops from Frederick to a chosen position on the left bank of the Monocacy, and on the 9th fought the invaders desperately for eight hours. Wallace had been joined by the brigade of Ricketts, the advance of the oncoming Sixth Corps. Although finally defeated, this little band of Nationals had kept the invading host at bay long enough to allow the remainder of the Sixth Corps to reach Washington. Wallace's troops had thus gained a real victory that saved the capital. So declared the Secretary of War and the Lieutenant-general. The check to the Confederates, altogether, was over thirty hours. The number of National troops engaged in the battle was about 5500; the Confederates numbered about 20,000. The Nationals lost 1959 men, of whom 98 were killed, 579 wounded, and 1282 missing.

Sandy Hook when the American sentinels discovered his flight in the morning (June 29). Washington did not pursue, and the British escaped to New York. They had lost 1000 men by desertion while crossing New Jersey, and they left four officers and 245 non-commissioned officers and privates on the field, taking with them many of the wounded. They lost fifty-nine by the terrible heat of the day. More than fifty Americans died from the same cause. The loss of the Americans was 228, killed, wounded, and missing. Many of the latter afterwards returned to the army. Washington marched northward, crossed the Hudson River, and encamped in Westchester County, N. Y., until late in the autumn.

Monocacy, BATTLE OF. On July 5, 1864, General Lew. Wallace, in command of the Middle Department, with his headquarters at Baltimore, received information that General Jubal A. Early, with 15,000 or 20,000 Confederates, who had invaded Maryland, was marching on

Monopoly of Colonial Trade. In 1663 Parliament passed an act for securing the monopoly of the trade of the English-American colonies for the benefit of the English shipping interest, then a powerful factor in politics. It prohibited the importation into any of the English

colonies of any commodities of the growth, production, and manufacture of Europe, unless they were shipped from the British islands in English-built vessels.

Monroe Doctrine, THE. There appearing a disposition on the part of the great powers of Europe to assist Spain in efforts to regain her American colonial possessions, the independence of which the government of the United States had formally acknowledged (see *Spanish-American Governments*), President Monroe called special attention to the matter in his seventh annual message (Dec. 2, 1823), in which he said: "We owe it to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those [great European] powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered, and shall not interfere; but with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great considerations and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States." This was an assurance that moral support should be given by the United States to the other American republics in preventing any future colonization on the shores of the two American continents by European powers. This is called "the Monroe Doctrine." Congress, by resolution (Dec. 23, 1823), made inquiries of the President for information relative "to the determination of any sovereign, or combination of sovereigns, to assist Spain in the subjugation of her late colonies on the American continent." "The Monroe Doctrine" has ever since been recognized as a part of the settled policy of the Republic. When, at the breaking-out of the American Civil War, the Emperor of the French, believing the ruin of the United States government to be certain, attempted to plant a monarchy in Mexico, on our southern border, and actually placed his dupe, Maximilian, on a throne there by the force of military power, the government of the United States warned him to desist, or his troops would be expelled by force. When he saw, at the conclusion of the Civil War, that the Republic of the West was stronger than ever, he hastened to withdraw the French troops, and, with perfidy unparalleled in the history of dynasties, he left poor Maximilian helpless before the exasperated people of the Republic of Mexico, whose political power he had usurped.

Monroe, JAMES, fifth President of the United States; was born in Westmoreland County, Va., April 28, 1759; died in New York city, July 4, 1831. He graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1776. He immediately joined the patriot army as a cadet in Mercer's regi-

ment, and was in the engagements at Harlem Plains, White Plains, and Trenton. He was wounded in the latter engagement, and was promoted to a captaincy for his bravery. In



JAMES MONROE.

1777-78 he was aid to Lord Stirling, and was distinguished at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. After the latter battle he left the army, studied law under Jefferson, and again took up arms when Virginia was invaded by Cornwallis. In 1780 he visited the Southern army under De Kalb as military commissioner from Virginia, and was a member of the Virginia Assembly in 1782. He soon became a member of the Executive Council, a delegate in Congress, and in his state convention in 1788 he opposed the ratification of the national Constitution. From 1790 to 1794 he was United States Senator. In May of the latter year he was appointed minister to France, though an opponent of Washington's administration, but was recalled, in 1796, because of his opposition to Jay's treaty (which see). In defence of his conduct, he published the whole diplomatic correspondence with his government while he was in Paris. From 1799 to 1802 he was governor of Virginia, and in 1802 was sent as envoy to France. The next year he was United States minister at the court of St. James. In 1805 he was associated with C. C. Pinckney in a negotiation with Spain, and, with William Pinkney, he negotiated a treaty with England in 1807, which Jefferson rejected because it did not provide against impressments. Serving in his state Assembly, he was again elected governor of Virginia in 1811, and was Madison's Secretary of State during a large portion of that President's administration. From September, 1814, to March, 1815, he performed the duties of Secretary of War. Elected President of the United States in 1816, he served eight years. During his administration he rec-

ognized the independence of several of the South American states, and promulgated the "Monroe Doctrine" (which see). He retired to private life in 1825, and in 1831, after the death of his wife, he left Virginia and made his residence with his son-in-law (Samuel L. Gouverneur) in the city of New York, where he died.

Monroe, JAMES, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES. Before the close of Madison's administration the Federal party had so much declined in strength that a nomination for office by the Democratic party was equivalent to an election. On the 16th of March, 1816, a Congressional Democratic caucus (which see) was held, at which the names of James Monroe and William H. Crawford were presented for nomination. There were many who did not like Monroe who were ready to press the nomination of Crawford, and, had he been inclined for a struggle, he might have received the votes of the caucus. There had been much intriguing before the caucus. At that gathering Henry Clay and John Taylor, of New York, moved that Congressional caucus nominations for the presidency were inexpedient and ought not to be continued. These motions having failed, Monroe received sixty-five votes to fifty-four for Crawford. Daniel D. Tompkins received eighty-five votes of the caucus for Vice-President to thirty for Governor Snyder. At the election in the autumn the Monroe electors received a large majority of the votes of the people. The elections, by the system of Congressional caucuses (as now by national conventions), had been sunk into ciphers. It was found, when the votes of the electoral colleges were counted, that Monroe had received the votes of all the states excepting Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Delaware, which gave Rufus King thirty-four electoral votes. Three Federal electors chosen in Maryland and one in Delaware did not vote at all. Monroe received 183 of the 221 votes, and Tompkins the same number for Vice-President. Monroe was inaugurated March 4, 1817, and entered upon the duties of his office under the most favorable circumstances. His inaugural address was liberal in its tone and gave general satisfaction; and the beginning of his administration was regarded as the dawning of an "era of good feeling."

Monroe, JAMES, RECEPTION OF, IN FRANCE. When Genet was recalled, the French government desired the United States to recall Gouverneur Morris, who had succeeded Jefferson as minister to France. The President yielded, for reasons of policy, and sent (May, 1794) in his place James Monroe. He was received in the most theatrical manner, as he was properly regarded as the representative of the ultra sympathizers with the French revolutionists in America. At a public reception in the National Convention he read an address which so pleased his audience that an enthusiastic member of the convention replied in a grandiloquent manner, closing his oration with these words: "To-day, the sovereign people themselves, by the organ of their faithful representatives, receive you;

and you see the tenderness, the effusion of soul, that accompanies this touching and simple ceremony. I am impatient to give you the fraternal embrace, which I am ordered to give in the name of the French people. Come and receive it in the name of the American people, and let this spectacle complete the annihilation of an impious coalition of tyrants." Then Monroe, according to precedent, stepped forward and received and returned the "fraternal" and "national" embrace and kiss of the representative of the French people. Having opposed Jay's treaty at the French republican court, he was recalled in 1796.

Monroe, RE-ELECTION OF PRESIDENT (1820). So faithfully had President Monroe adhered to the promises of his inaugural address, that he was not only renominated, with Tompkins as Vice-President, but was elected by an almost unanimous vote in the electoral college. Only one elector voted against Monroe, and but fourteen against Tompkins. That re-election was at the commencement of a new political era. The reannexation of Florida to the United States, the recognized extension of the domain of the Republic to the Pacific Ocean, and the partition of those new acquisitions between freedom and slavery marked a new departure. All the old landmarks of party had been uprooted by embargoes and the war; and, by the question of the United States Bank (which see), internal improvements, and the tariff, had been almost completely swept away.

Monroe's Cabinet Ministers. President Monroe had been urged by General Jackson, with whom he was on terms of great intimacy, to disregard former party divisions in the formation of his cabinet, and to use his influence and power to destroy party spirit by appointing the best men to office without regard to their political preferences. He preferred to follow the example of Jefferson and Madison, and appoint only those of his own political faith. He chose John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, for Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury; and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, for Secretary of War. These were all aspirants for the Presidential chair. B. W. Crowninshield was continued Secretary of the Navy, to which office Madison had appointed him in December, 1814, and Richard Rush continued in the office of Attorney-General until succeeded, Nov. 13, 1817, by William Wirt. Return J. Meigs was continued Postmaster-general, to which office Madison had appointed him in 1817.

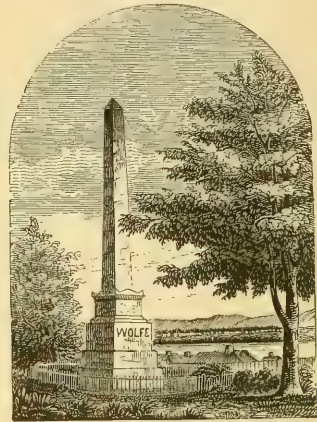
Monroe's Eastern and Northern Tour. Determined to know more of the country and the people, President Monroe, sixty days after he was seated in the Presidential chair, left the capital for an extended tour in New England and the Northern States. He was clad in the undress uniform worn by the officers of the Revolution—a blue coat of domestic manufacture, light waistcoat and breeches, high top-boots known as "Wellingtons," and a cocked hat. He journeyed to far eastern New England, and

then, turning westward, traversed the sparsely settled country towards the northern border of the Union to Vermont, crossed Lake Champlain to Plattsburg, and thence through the forests northward to the St. Lawrence River, where he embarked for Lake Ontario. He halted at Sackett's Harbor, Fort Niagara, and Buffalo; and from the latter place sailed over Lake Erie to Detroit. From that then remote region he journeyed through the woods of Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, and reached Washington after an absence of more than three months. He was everywhere cordially received, for his inaugural address commended him to the kindness and courtesy of all political parties. The President became acquainted with leading men of all parties on this journey, and the tour was in every way beneficial.

Montana lies on the border of the British-American domain, between Dakota and Idaho. By act of Congress (May, 1864) Montana was taken from the eastern portion of Idaho and organized as a territory, with Virginia City as its capital. Helena, in the midst of rich placer gold mines, became its capital and remains the seat of the State government. The territory was created a state and admitted to the Union in 1889. It is rich in gold, silver, and copper lodes. Lead, iron, and coal abound in some parts; and it is considered one of the best stock countries on the continent, every kind of domestic animal doing well there. Herds and flocks winter well on the grass. Population in 1890, 131,769.

Montcalm de St. Véran, LOUIS JOSEPH, Marquis de, born at the Château Candiac, near Nismes, France, Feb. 28, 1712; died at Quebec, Sept. 14, 1759. Well educated, he entered the French army at the age of fourteen years, distinguished himself in Germany in the War of the Austrian Succession (see *King George's War*), and gained the rank of colonel for his conduct in the disastrous battle of Piacenza, in Italy, in 1746. In 1756 he was appointed to the command of the troops in Canada, where, in the three campaigns which he conducted, he displayed skill, courage, and humanity. (See *Oswego*, *Fort William Henry*, *Ticonderoga*, and *Quebec*.) Weakly seconded by his government, he did not accomplish what he might have done. He prepared, with all the means at his command, for the struggle for the supremacy of French dominion in America, in 1759, in which he lost his life. He had resolved, he said, "to find his grave under the ruins of the colony," and such was his fate. The English had spared not to make the campaign a decisive one. The final struggle occurred at Quebec, and there, on the 13th of September, 1759, he was mortally wounded, and died the next day. Wolfe, the commander of the English, was mortally wounded at the same time. (See *Quebec, Capture of*.) When Montcalm was told that his death was near, he calmly replied, "So much the better; I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." A fine monument stands on Cape Diamond, at Quebec, erected to the memory of both Montcalm and Wolfe. The

skull of Montcalm, with a military coat-collar of blue velvet embroidered with gold lace, is preserved in the Ursuline convent at Quebec.



WOLFE AND MONTCALM'S MONUMENT.

Monterey, SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF. After General Taylor had entered Mexico at Matamorras (which see), he remained there until September, waiting for further instructions from his government and reinforcements for his army. Early in September the first division of his army, under General W. J. Worth, moved towards Monterey, the capital of New Leon, which was strongly fortified, and then defended by General Ampudia with about 9000 Mexican troops. Taylor soon joined Worth, and they encamped within three miles of the city, on the 19th of September, with about 7000 men, and on the morning of the 21st attacked the stronghold. Joined by other divisions of the army the assault became general on the 23d, and the conflict in the streets was dreadful. The Mexicans fired volleys of musketry from the windows of the strong storehouses upon the invaders, and the carnage was terrible. Finally, on the fourth day of the siege, Ampudia asked for a truce. It was granted, and he prepared to evacuate the city. Taylor demanded absolute surrender, which was made on the 24th, when General Worth's division was quartered in the city, and General Taylor, granting an armistice for eight weeks if permitted by his government, encamped with the remainder of his forces at Walnut Springs, a few miles from Monterey. In the siege of that city, the Americans lost over 500 men. The Mexican loss was about double that number. (See *Mexico, War with*.)

Montezuma, the last Aztec emperor of Mexico, was born about 1470. Because of his merits as a warrior and priest, he was elected emperor in 1502. He was in the act of sweeping the stairs of the great temple-teocalli at Mexico when his elevation was announced to him. His sumptuous style of living, and great public expenses, caused a grievous imposition of taxes. This, with his haughty deportment, made many of his subjects discontented. His empire was invaded by Cortez in 1519, when he gave the

audacious Spaniard, at first, great advantages, by a temporizing policy. Cortez seized him and held him as a hostage. He would not accept Christianity in exchange for his own religion, but he formally recognized the supremacy of the crown of Spain, to whom he sent an immense quantity of gold as tribute. While Cortez was about to assail a force sent against him by Velasquez (which see), the Mexicans revolted against the Spaniards. Cortez either persuaded or compelled Montezuma to address his turbulent subjects and try to appease the rising tumult; but the latter, having lost respect for their emperor, assailed and wounded him with missiles. From the injuries thus received he died in June, 1520.

Montgomery, JOHN, Governor of New York, 1728-31. He was a native of Ayrshire, Scotland, and died in New York, July 1, 1731. Montgomery was officially attached to the person of George II. before he came to America, and had served in Parliament several years.

Montgomery, JOHN B., was a native of New Jersey, and entered the United States navy as midshipman in 1812. He passed through the various grades of office until, in July, 1862, he was made commodore, and in July, 1866, he was created rear-admiral on the retired list. He served on Lake Ontario under Chauncey, and was in the *Niagara* with Perry at the battle on Lake Erie (which see), and received a sword and thanks from Congress for his gallantry. He was with Decatur in the Mediterranean in 1815. In command of the sloop *Portsmouth*, in the Pacific squadron (1845-48), he took possession of California. In 1861 he was in command of the Pacific squadron.

Montgomery, RICHARD, born at Convoy House, near Raphoe, Ireland, Dec. 2, 1736; killed at Quebec, Dec. 31, 1775. His father was a member of Parliament for Lifford. Richard was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and entered

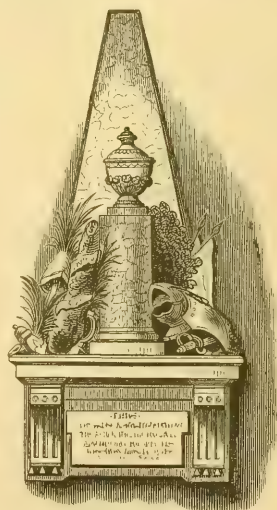


RICHARD MONTGOMERY.

the army at the age of eighteen. Fighting under Wolfe at the siege of Louisburg (1756), he won the approval of that commander. After its

surrender his regiment formed a part of Amherst's force, sent to reduce the French forts on Lake Champlain, in 1759. Montgomery became adjutant of his regiment in 1760, and was under Colonel Haviland in his march upon Montreal when that city was surrendered. In 1762, Montgomery was promoted to captain, and served in the campaign against Havana in the same year. After that he resided in this country a while, but revisited England. In 1772 he sold his commission and came to America, and the following year he bought an estate at Rhinebeck, on the Hudson, and married a daughter of R. R. Livingston. He was chosen representative in the Colonial Assembly, and was a member of the Provincial Convention in 1775. In June following he was appointed by the Continental Congress one of the eight brigadiers for the Continental army. Appointed second in command, under Schuyler, in the Northern Department, he became acting commander-in-chief because of his superior's protracted illness. He entered Canada early in September, with a considerable army, captured St. John, on the Sorel or Richelieu River, Nov. 3, took Montreal on the 13th, and pushed on towards Quebec, and stood before its walls with some troops under Arnold Dec. 4. On the 9th the Continental Congress made him a major-general. He invested Quebec and continued the siege until Dec. 31, when he attempted to take the city by storm. In that effort he was slain in the evening twilight by grape-shot from a masked battery. His death was regarded as a great public calamity, and on the floor of the British Parliament he was eulogized by Burke, Chatham, and Barré; Even Lord North spoke of him as "brave, humane, and generous;" but added, "still he was

only a brave, humane, and generous rebel; curse on his virtues, they've undone his country." To this remark Fox retorted: "The term 'rebel' is no certain mark of disgrace. All the great assertors of liberty, the saviors of their country, the benefactors of mankind in all ages, have been called 'rebels.' We owe the constitution which enables us to sit in this House to a rebellion." Montgomery was buried at Quebec. In 1818 his remains were removed to the city of New York, at the expense of the state, and they were deposited near the monument which the United States had erected to his memory in the front of St. Paul's Church, Broadway, New York.

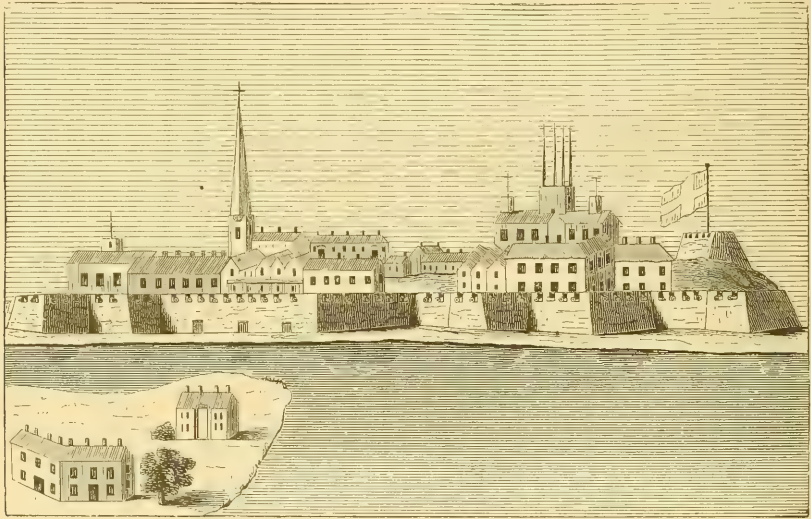


MONTGOMERY'S MONUMENT.

Montreal, CAPTURE OF (1775). When the Republicans invaded Canada, General Carleton was in command of a few troops at Montreal. With about 800 men he marched to the relief of the garrison at St. John, after he heard of the capture of Chambly. He crossed the St. Lawrence in small boats, and when about to land at Longneil was attacked by Colonel Seth Warner and about 300 Green Mountain Boys, and driven back in great confusion. The news of this repulse caused the speedy surrender of St. John, when Montgomery pressed on towards Montreal. Carleton, knowing the weakness of the fort, at once retreated on board a vessel of a small fleet lying in the river, and attempted

pulsed by Frontenac (August, 1690). The remainder of the troops did not proceed farther than Lake George, where they were stopped by a deficiency of provisions and the prevalence of the small-pox. Mutual recriminations followed, and Leisler actually caused Winthrop's arrest. The latter charged the failure to Milborne, who, it was alleged, had failed to furnish needed provisions and transportation. (See *Quebec, Expedition against, in 1690.*)

Montreal, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1711). Within a fortnight after Colonel Nicholson had given notice of the intended expedition against Canada, New York and the New England colonies were busy in preparations for the movement.



VIEW OF MONTREAL AND ITS WALLS IN 1760. (From an old French print.)

to flee to Quebec with the garrison. Montgomery entered Montreal without opposition, and sent a force under Colonel Easton to intercept the intending fugitives. He hastened to the mouth of the Sorel with troops, cannons, and armed gondolas. The British fleet could not pass, and Prescott, several other officers, members of the Canadian Council, and 126 private soldiers, with all the vessels, were surrendered. Carleton escaped. Then Montgomery wrote to the Congress, "until Quebec is taken Canada is unconquered." Leaving Wooster in command at Montreal, Montgomery pushed on towards Quebec.

Montreal, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1690). Sir William Phipps having been successful in an expedition against Port Royal, Acadia, a plan for the conquest of Canada was speedily arranged. A fleet under Phipps proceeded against Quebec, and colonial land forces were placed under the supreme command of Fitz-John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut. Milborne, son-in-law of Leisler, undertook, as commissary, to provide and forward subsistence for the march. Colonel Schuyler with a party of Mohawks, the van of the expedition, pushed forward towards the St. Lawrence, but was re-

Massachusetts issued bills of credit amounting to about \$200,000 to guarantee bills drawn on the imperial treasury; New York issued bills to the amount of \$50,000 to defray the expenses of her share of the enterprise; and Pennsylvania, under the name of a present to the queen, contributed \$10,000 towards the expedition. About 1800 troops—the quotas of Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey—assembled at Albany with the intention of attacking Montreal simultaneously with the appearance of the fleet from Boston before Quebec. Nicholson was in general command; and at Albany he was joined by 500 warriors of the Five Nations and 1000 palatines, chiefly from the Mohawk valley, making the whole force about 4000 strong. Nicholson was assisted by Colonels Schuyler, Whiting, and Ingoldsby, and on the 28th of August they began their march for Canada. At Lake George Nicholson heard of the miscarriage of the naval expedition, and returned to Albany, abandoning the enterprise. (See *Quebec, Expedition against, in 1711.*)

Montreal, MASSACRE AT. On July 12, 1689, about twelve hundred of the Five Nations (see *Iroquois Confederacy*) invaded the island of Montreal, burned all the plantations, and murdered

men, women, and children. This event threw the whole French colony into consternation. It was reported that one thousand of the French were slain during the invasion, besides twenty-six carried into captivity and burned alive. It was this massacre that the French sought to avenge the next year, when Frontenac sent into the Mohawk country the mongrel party that destroyed Schenectady, and two others which attacked Salmon Falls and Casco, in Maine.

Monument on Bull's Run Battle-ground.

About four years after the battle of Bull's Run, National soldiers erected on the spot where the hottest of the contest occurred a substantial monument of stone in commemoration of their compatriots who fell there. It is made of ordinary sandstone. It is in the form of a cone, rising from a broad pedestal, and surmounted by a 100-pounder conical bomb-shell. At each corner of the pedestal there is a block of sandstone, each bearing a spherical shell. Its total height is twenty-seven feet. On one side of the monument are the words, "IN MEMORY OF THE PATRIOTS WHO FELL AT BULL'S RUN, JULY 21, 1861." On another side, "ERECTED JUNE 10, 1865." A hymn, written for the occasion by Rev. John Pierrepont (then eighty years of age), was sung at the dedication.

Moors, BENJAMIN, was born at Haverhill, Mass., April 1, 1758; died at Plattsburg, N. Y., Feb. 20, 1838. He was in the Continental army; was at the surrender of Burgoyne; and served as lieutenant in Hazen's regiment to the end of the war. In 1783 he settled in the wilderness on the western shore of Lake Champlain, near the present Plattsburg. He was eight years in the New York Legislature, and, as major-general of militia, commanded that body of soldiers in the battle of Plattsburg (which see) in 1814.

Moore, JACOB BAILEY, was born at Andover, N. H., Oct. 31, 1797; died at Bellows' Falls, Vt., Sept. 1, 1853. He learned the printer's art at Concord, N. H.; married a sister of Isaac Hill, proprietor of the *New Hampshire Patriot*; became his business partner; and afterwards established the *New Hampshire Statesman*. He was a member of the State Legislature in 1828. He and Mr. Farmer published, from 1822 to 1824, three volumes of *Historical Collections of New Hampshire*, of great value; and this was one of the first publications in this country devoted to local history. He pursued journalism in New York (whither he went in 1839) for a while, when he was appointed to a position in the General Post-office; and from 1845 to 1848 he was Librarian of the New York Historical Society. Mr. Moore was the first postmaster in California, serving in San Francisco from 1848 to 1852.

Moore, SIR HENRY, Governor of New York, was born in Jamaica, W. I., in 1713. He was made governor of that island in 1756; and for his services in suppressing a slave insurrection there he was rewarded with the title of baronet. He was Governor of New York from 1764 until his death, Sept. 11, 1769. He arrived in

New York in November, 1765, in the midst of the Stamp Act (which see) excitement.

Moore's Creek Bridge, BATTLE AT. In January, 1776, Sir Henry Clinton sailed from Boston on secret service. Suspecting his destination to be New York, Washington sent General Lee thither. His presence probably deterred Clinton from landing, after a conference with Governor Tryon, and he proceeded to the coast of North Carolina to assist Governor Martin in the recovery of his power in that province. (See *Martin, Governor, Flight of*, 1776.) Martin, aware of his approach, and anticipating an armament from Ireland, kept up a continual intercourse from his "floating palace" on the Cape Fear with the Scotch Highlanders (who had settled in large numbers in that province) and other Tories. He commissioned Donald McDonald brigadier-general. He was a veteran, who had fought for the Young Pretender at the battle of Culloden (1745). Under him, as captain, was Allan McDonald. These two men had great influence over the Scotch Highlanders. They enlisted for the royal cause about 1500 men, and marched from the vicinity of Fayetteville for the coast to join the governor and his friends on the Cape Fear. Colonel James Moore, on hearing of this movement, marched with more than 1000 men to intercept McDonald. At the same time minute-men of the Neuse region, under Colonels Caswell and Lillington, were gathering to oppose the loyalists, and on the evening of Feb. 26 were encamped at a bridge near the mouth of Moore's Creek, in Hanover County. There McDonald, chased by Colonel Moore, came upon the minute-men. He was sick, and the force was commanded by Lieutenant-colonel McLeod. A sharp battle ensued the next morning, when McLeod was killed. The Scotchmen were routed and dispersed, and about 850 of them were made prisoners, among them the two McDonalds. The loyalists lost seventy men, killed and wounded. The republicans had only two wounded, one mortally. Captain Allan McDonald was the husband of Flora McDonald, who assisted the defeated Young Pretender in his flight from Scotland. She was in North Carolina at this time, and was an influential loyalist. The defeat of McDonald disconcerted the plans of Clinton and Martin.

Moravian Town is a little village in the township of Oxford, Canada West, on the bank of the River Thames, near which General Harrison defeated General Proctor in battle on Oct. 5, 1813. The settlers were Indians who had been converted to Christianity by the Moravians, who fled to Canada from the Muskingum, in Ohio, in 1792. (See *Christian Indians, Massacre of*.) By an order of the Provincial Council in 1793, about fifty thousand acres of land were granted for their use, on which they proceeded to build a church and a village. Rev. John Scott, of Bethlehem, ministered there for some time. At the time of the battle this Christian Indian village had about one hundred houses, mostly well built, a school-house and chapel, and very fine gardens.

Moravians in America. The church of

evangelical Christians known as Moravians, or United Brethren, has a most remarkable history. Its germs appear as early as the ninth century, when Christianity was introduced into Bohemia and Moravia; but it does not appear distinct in history until 1457, when a separate church was formed. The members of that church always manifested the spirit afterwards called "Protestantism," and, like the primitive church, held the Bible to be the only rule of faith and practice. They have an episcopacy, and the episcopal succession from 1457 to 1874 embraces 174 bishops. Their episcopate is not diocesan, but their bishops are bishops of the whole United Brethren. When, in 1621, Ferdinand II. of Austria began the persecution of all Protestants, 50,000 of his subjects emigrated to other lands. The church in Bohemia and Moravia was almost extinguished, and its faith—a hidden seed—was preserved by a few families for a hundred years, when it was renewed with strength. In 1722 two Moravian families found a refuge on the estate of Count Zinzendorf, of Saxony, then an officer in the Saxon court, and a lover of pure and simple worship. In five years three hundred Moravians gathered there. Zinzendorf became a bishop, and afterwards he spent his life and fortune in missionary work. (See *Zinzendorf*.) Churches were established on the Continent, in Great Britain, and in North America; and in 1749 the British Parliament passed acts to encourage their settlement in the English-American colonies. The Trustees of Georgia granted five hundred acres of land to Count Zinzendorf for the purpose, and also gave Bishop Spangenberg one hundred and fifty acres embraced in a part of the site of Savannah. A number of Moravians settled in Georgia in 1735. Others followed the next year, led by Bishop David Nitschmann; and on Feb. 28, 1736, the first Moravian church in America was organized, under the pastorship of Anthony Seiffert, who was ordained in the presence of John Wesley. In Georgia their labors were mostly among the Indians and negroes. As they could not conscientiously take up arms to defend Georgia against the Spaniards at St. Augustine (see *Georgia, Invasion of, by Spaniards*), they abandoned their settlement and went to Pennsylvania with Whitefield. Bishops Nitschmann and Spangenberg returned to Europe. Whitefield had purchased lands at the forks of the Delaware, and invited the Moravians to settle upon them; but doctrinal differences produced a rupture between them and Whitefield, and he ordered them to leave his domain forthwith. (See *Whitefield, George*.) Bishop Nitschmann came back, and founded a settlement on the Lehigh, the first house being completed in 1741. When, on Christmas-day, Count Zinzendorf visited the settlement, he called it "Bethlehem." That is the mother-church in America. Their labors among the Indians were extended far and wide, and their principal station in the West was at Gnadenhütten—"tents of grace"—in Ohio, where many Indian converts were gathered, and where nearly one hundred of them were massacred by white people in March, 1782, un-

der the false impression that they were British spies or were concerned in some Indian outrages in Pennsylvania. The first Indian congregation gathered by the Moravians was in the town of Pine Plains, Dutchess Co., N. Y., at a place called She-kom-e-ko. A mission was established there by Christian Henry Rauch in August, 1740. The next year a sickly young German from Bethlehem, named Gottlob Büttner, joined Rauch in his work. He preached fervently, and many converts were the fruits of the mission of Rauch and Büttner. Count Zinzendorf and his daughter visited the mission in 1742. Here Büttner died in 1745, and over his grave the Moravians placed a handsome monument in 1859. In 1745 the mission was broken up. The Moravian Church is divided into three provinces—namely, Continental, British, and American. The American province is divided into two districts—Northern and Southern—the respective centres being at Bethlehem, Northampton Co., Penn., and Salem, Forsyth Co., N. C. There were in 1875, in the American province, 75 churches, 8315 communicants, and 14,731 souls attached to the society. There are five church boarding-schools, at which full 600 pupils are educated annually; and at Bethlehem is a college and theological seminary. At first the social and political exclusiveness of the Moravians prevented a rapid increase in their numbers; but within forty or fifty years there have been great changes in this respect, as well as in the constitution of the church, whose grand centre is at Herrnhütten, in Saxony, the village built on Count Zinzendorf's estate. The Moravians use a liturgy, and their ritual is similar to that of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

Morgan, DANIEL, was born in Hunterdon County, N. J., in 1736; died at Winchester, Va., July 6, 1802. At the age of seventeen he was a waggoner in Braddock's army, and the next year



DANIEL MORGAN.

he received five hundred lashes for knocking down a British lieutenant who had insulted him. That officer afterwards made a public apology.

Morgan became an ensign in the militia in 1758; and while carrying despatches he was severely wounded by Indians, but escaped. After the French and Indian War (which see) he was a brawler and fighter and a dissipated gambler for a time; but he reformed, accumulated property, and commanded a company in Dunmore's expedition against the Indians in 1774. (See *Dunmore's War*.) In less than a week after he heard of the affair at Lexington he had enrolled ninety-six men, the nucleus of his famous rifle-corps, and marched them to Boston. He accompanied Arnold in his march to Quebec in 1775, commanding three companies of riflemen (see *Arnold's Expedition*); and in the siege of that city he was made prisoner. As colonel of a rifle regiment, he bore a conspicuous part in the capture of Burgoyne and his army in 1777. After serving in Pennsylvania, he joined the remnant of the defeated army of Gates at Hillsborough, N. C.; and on Oct. 1 he was placed in command of a legionary corps, with the rank of brigadier-general. He served under Greene; gained a victory in battle at the Cowpens (for which Congress gave him thanks and a gold medal); and was in Greene's retreat (which see). He led troops that suppressed the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), and was a member of Congress from 1795 to 1799. He made Winchester his residence in 1800.

Morgan, EDWIN DENNISON, was born at Washington, Berkshire Co., Mass., Feb. 8, 1811. At the age of seventeen years he became a clerk in a grocery establishment in Hartford, Conn., and at twenty was a partner in the business. He



EDWIN D. MORGAN.

was active, industrious, and enterprising; and six years later (1836) he removed to New York, where he became a very successful merchant and amassed a large fortune. Mr. Morgan took an active interest in the political movements of his time, and in 1849 was elected to a seat in the Senate of the State of New York, which position he occupied until 1853. The Republican party, formed in 1856, had no more efficient and wise adviser and worker than Mr. Morgan, and he was made chairman of the Republican State Committee. In 1859 he was elected Governor of the State of New York,

and was re-elected in 1861. Governor Morgan was one of the most energetic of the "war governors." During the Civil War, his brain, his hand, and his fortune were at the service of his country. His administration was marked by a great decrease in the public debt of the state and an increase in the revenue from the canals. Such impetus did his zeal, patriotism, and energy give to the business of raising troops for the war that the state sent about 220,000 men to the field. From 1863 to 1869 Mr. Morgan was United States Senator, when he retired from public life. In 1867 Williams College conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D. He died Feb. 14, 1883.

Morgan, GEORGE W., was born in Washington County, Penn., Sept. 20, 1820. In the Texan war for independence he was a captain. He studied two years at West Point (1841-43), and began the practice of law in Ohio in 1845. He engaged in the war against Mexico as colonel of an Ohio volunteer regiment, and for his gallantry won the brevet of brigadier-general. From 1856 to 1858 he was consul at Marseilles; was resident minister at Lisbon from 1858 to 1861; and in November of the latter year was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He was in command of a division in the Army of the Ohio in 1862. He served under Rosecrans, and commanded a division under Sherman at Vicksburg in 1863. That year he resigned. He was a member of Congress from 1868 to 1872.

Morgan in Kentucky. The most famous of the guerilla chiefs in the Mississippi valley was John Morgan, an Alabamian, about thirty-six years of age, six feet in height, well made, and perfectly self-possessed. He led mounted troops, which were called Confederate cavalry, but much of their service consisted of the business of a roving band searching for plunder. His first noted exploit was his invasion of Kentucky from East Tennessee (July, 1861), with twelve hundred followers, under a conviction that vast numbers of young men would flock to his standard and he would become the "liberator" of that commonwealth. Dispersing a small National force at Tompkinsville, Monroe Co., he issued a flaming proclamation to the people of Kentucky. He was preparing the way for Bragg's invasion (which see) of that state. Soon recruits joined Morgan, and he roamed about the state, plundering and destroying. At Lebanon he fought a Union force, routed them, and took several prisoners. His raid was so rapid that it created intense excitement. Louisville was alarmed. He pressed on towards the Ohio, destroying a long railway bridge (July 14) between Cynthiana and Paris, and laying waste a railway track. On July 17 he had a sharp fight with the Home Guards at Cynthiana, who were dispersed. He hoped to plunder the rich city of Cincinnati. His approach inspired the inhabitants with terror; but a pursuing cavalry force under Green Clay Smith, of Kentucky, caused him to retreat southward in the direction of Richmond. (See *Richmond, Battle at*.) On his retreat his raiders

stole horses and robbed stores without inquiring whether the property belonged to friend or foe.

Morgan, JAMES D., was born at Berlin, Mass., Nov. 19, 1810. He had felt bitter experience at sea in very early life. He was in the mercantile business in Quincy, Ill., when the war against Mexico began, and was captain of a company of Illinois volunteers in that war. In 1861 he was colonel of an Illinois regiment, and was made a brigadier-general in July, 1862. He commanded a brigade at Nashville late in that year, and was in command of a division in the Fourteenth Corps in Sherman's Atlanta campaign.

Morgan, JOHN, M.D., F.R.S., born in Philadelphia, Penn., in 1735; died there, Oct. 15, 1789. Graduating at the Philadelphia College in 1757, he studied medicine and served as a surgeon of Pennsylvania troops in the French and Indian



JOHN MORGAN.

War, when he went to England. He attended the lectures of the celebrated Dr. Hunter; and after spending two years in Edinburgh, and receiving the degree of M.D., he travelled on the Continent. On his return to London (1765) he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, also of the College of Physicians in Edinburgh and London. Returning to Philadelphia the same year, he was elected to a professorship in the college there, in which he founded a medical school. When the treason of Church was discovered, Dr. Morgan was appointed, by the Continental Congress (Oct. 17, 1775), director-general of the Army General Hospital, in which capacity he served until 1777. Dr. Morgan was one of the founders of the American Philosophical Society.

Morgan, JOHN H., Confederate officer, was born at Huntsville, Ala., June 1, 1826; killed at Greenville, Tenn., Sept. 4, 1864. He settled near Lexington, Ky., in 1830, with his parents; served under Taylor in the war with Mexico; and in 1861, at the head of the Lexington Rifles, he joined Buckner of the Kentucky State Guard (which see). At the battle of Shiloh he commanded a squadron of cavalry, and soon afterwards began his regular partisan warfare by raids

in Kentucky, during which he destroyed many millions of dollars' worth of military stores, railways, and railway trains, and spread such alarm throughout the state that every important town was garrisoned. Accompanied by a telegraph operator, he continually gained important information by stealth, and confused his adversaries. In 1863 he made a bold raid north of the Ohio (see *Morgan's Last Raid*); but he and nearly all his men were captured or dispersed. He was killed in a garden at Greenville, in attempting to escape from a house surrounded by National troops.

Morgan, WILLIAM, was born in Culpepper County, Va., in 1775; died by violence, Sept. 19, 1826. He had been in the battle of New Orleans; and in 1821 was a brewer in Toronto, Canada. He was a resident, in 1826, of Batavia, N. Y., where he was seized, carried to Fort Niagara, and murdered, because he was about to publish an exposure of the work of Freemasons. This outrage created intense excitement and a new political party. (See *Anti-Masonic Party*.)

Morgan's Last Raid. When Longstreet left Knoxville, Tenn., late in 1863, he lingered awhile between there and the Virginia border. He had been pursued by cavalry, and near Bean's Station he had a sharp skirmish (Dec. 14, 1863), when the Nationals were pushed back with a loss of 200 men; Longstreet's loss was greater. Longstreet finally retired to Virginia, leaving Colonel John H. Morgan, the noted guerilla chief, in East Tennessee. General John G. Foster was there, in command of the Army of the Ohio; and on Dec. 29, General S. D. Sturgis, with the National advance at Knoxville, between Mossy Creek and New Market met and fought Morgan and Armstrong, who led about 6000 Confederates. The latter were defeated. On Jan. 16, 1864, Sturgis was attacked by Morgan and Armstrong at Dandridge, the capital of Jefferson County. After a severe encounter, Sturgis fell back to Strawberry Plains, where his soldiers suffered intensely from the extreme cold. Morgan lingered in East Tennessee until May, and late in that month, with comparatively few followers, he went over the mountains into Kentucky, and raided rapidly through the eastern counties of that state, plundering as they sped on in the richest part of that commonwealth. They captured several small places, dashed into Lexington, burning the railway station and other property there, and hurried towards Frankfort. General Burbridge, who, when he heard of Morgan's passage of the mountains, had started in pursuit, struck him a severe blow near Cynthiana, by which 300 of the raiders were killed or wounded, 400 made prisoners, and 1000 horses captured. Burbridge lost about 150 men. This staggering blow made Morgan reel back into East Tennessee. Early in September he was at Greenville with his shattered brigade. Morgan and his staff were at the house of Mrs. Williams in that town. It was surrounded by troops under General Gillem, and Morgan, attempting to escape, was shot dead in the garden of Mrs. Williams.

Morgan's Raid in Indiana and Ohio. The famous Confed. officer, John H. Morgan, raided through Kentucky and crossed the Ohio River in June and July, 1863. His object was fourfold—namely, for the purpose of plunder for himself and followers; to prepare the way for Buckner to dash into Kentucky from Tennessee and seize Louisville and, with Morgan, to capture Cincinnati; to form the nucleus of an armed counter-revolution in the Northwest, where the “Knights of the Golden Circle,” or the “Sons of Liberty” of the Peace faction, were numerous; and to prevent reinforcements from being sent to Meade from that region. Already about eighty Kentuckians had crossed the Ohio (June 19) into Indiana to test the temper of the people. They were captured. Morgan started (June 27) with thirty-five hundred well-mounted men and six guns, crossing the Cumberland River at Burkesville, and, pushing on, encountered some loyal cavalry at Columbia (July 3), fought them three hours, partly sacked the town, and proceeded to destroy a bridge over the Green River, when he was driven away, after a desperate fight of several hours, by two hundred Michigan troops under Colonel Moore, well intrenched. Morgan lost two hundred and fifty killed and wounded; Moore lost twenty-nine. He rushed into Lebanon, captured a small Union force there, set fire to the place, and lost his brother—killed in the fight. He reached the Ohio, forty miles below Louisville, July 7. His ranks were swelled as he went plundering through Kentucky, and he crossed the Ohio with four thousand men and ten guns. He captured two steamers, with which he crossed. He was closely pursued by some troops under General Hobson, and others went up the Ohio in steamboats to intercept him. He plundered Corydon, in Indiana, murdered citizens, and stole three hundred horses. On he went, robbing mill and factory owners by demanding one thousand dollars as a condition for the safety of their property. In like manner he went from village to village until the 12th, when, at a railway near Vernon, he encountered Colonel Lowe with twelve hundred militiamen. Morgan was now assured that Indiana was aroused, and that there was a great uprising of the loyal people against him. The victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg inspired the people. Governor Morton called on the citizens to turn out and expel the invaders. Within forty-eight hours sixty-five thousand citizens had tendered their services, and were hastening towards the rendezvous. Only members of the Peace faction (which see) refused to respond. Morgan was alarmed. He stole fresh horses for the race before Hobson, his persistent pursuer. He passed swiftly north of Cincinnati through the southern counties, and struck the river a little above Pomeroy. The people of Ohio, also, were aroused. General Judah went up the Ohio, from Cincinnati, in steamboats, to head him off; and the people were gathering from different points. At Bufington Ford he attempted to cross the river and escape into Virginia; but there the head of Hobson's column, under General Shackleford,

struck his rear, General Judah struck his flank, and two armed vessels in the stream opened upon his front. Hemmed in, about eight hundred of his men surrendered, and the remainder, leaving all their plunder behind them, followed their leader up the river, and again attempted to cross to Belleville by swimming their horses. About three hundred crossed, but the remainder were driven back by a gunboat, when Morgan fled inland to McArthur, fighting militia, burning bridges, and plundering. At last he was obliged to surrender to General Shackleford (July 26, 1863). That was at New Lisbon, the capital of Columbiana County. Morgan and some of his officers were confined in the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus, from which he and six of them escaped in November, and joined the Confederate forces in northern Georgia. The race between the troops of Morgan and his pursuers had continued three weeks, without cessation, at the rate of thirty-five miles a day. Morgan afterwards received an ovation at Richmond as a great hero.

Mormon Exodus. The inhabitants of Illinois determined to drive the Mormons from their borders. Armed mobs attacked the smaller settlements, and also Nauvoo, their city. At length a special revelation commanded their departure for the western wilderness; and in February, 1846, sixteen hundred men, women, and children crossed the Mississippi River on the ice, and, travelling with ox-teams and on foot, penetrated the Indian country and rested at Council Bluffs, on the Missouri River. Other bands continued to emigrate; and, finally, in September, 1846, the last lingering Mormons at Nauvoo were driven out at the point of the bayonet by sixteen hundred troops, and these homeless exiles traversed the wilderness of Missouri westward. Led by Brigham Young, the Mormon host—men, women, and children—crossed the Mississippi and reached the Missouri River, beyond the boundaries of the state, at the opening of the next summer. There they were met by a requisition for five hundred men for the army in Mexico, which was complied with. The remainder stayed, turned up the virgin soil, and planted there. Leaving a few to cultivate and gather for wanderers who might come after them, the host moved on. Order reigned. To them the voice of their Seer (Brigham Young) was the voice of God. Every ten wagons were under the command of a captain, who obeyed a captain of fifty, and he, in turn, obeyed a centurion, or captain of one hundred. Discipline everywhere prevailed. They formed *Tabernacle Camps*, where a portion of them stopped to sow and reap, spin and weave, and perform necessary mechanical work. They had singing and dancing; they made short marches and encamped in military order every night; they forded swift-flowing streams and bridged the deeper floods. Many were swept away by miasmatic fevers; and when winter fell upon them in the vast plains, inhabited by Indians, they suffered much, though more kindly treated by the barbarians than they had been by their own race. They made caves in the sand-hills; and in the spring

of 1847 they marked out the site of a city upon a great prairie, on the bank of the Missouri River, where the Omahas dwelt. There more than seven hundred houses were built, a tabernacle was raised, mills and workshops were constructed, and a newspaper (*The Frontier Guardian*) was established. The city was called *Kane*, in honor of Colonel Kane (brother of the Arctic explorer), who gave them much aid in their exodus. During the summer and early autumn bountiful harvests were gathered. From Kane they sent out missionaries to Oregon and California, and even to the Sandwich Islands, while others went forward deeper into the wilderness to spy out a "promised land" for "an everlasting habitation." They chose the Great Salt Lake valley, enclosed within lofty and rugged mountains, fertile, isolated, and healthful; and thitherward, in the early summer of 1847, a chosen band of one hundred and forty-three men, with seventy wagons drawn by horses, accompanied by their wives and children and the members of the High Council (see *Mormonism*), proceeded as pioneers to take possession of the country. They passed up the north fork of the Platte River to Fort Laramie, crossed that stream, followed its course along the banks of the Black Hills to South Pass, which they penetrated. Along the rivers, through deep cañons, over the lofty Utah Mountains, they toiled on until, on the evening of July 20, they saw, from the summits of the Wasatch Mountains, the placid Salt Lake glittering in the beams of the setting sun. It was like the vision of the Hebrew lawgiver on Mount Pisgah. It was a scene of wondrous interest. Stretched out before them was the Land of Promise where they hoped never to be molested by "Gentiles," or the arm of "Gentile" government. The pilgrims entered the valley on July 21, and on the 24th the President and High Council arrived. They chose the site for a city on a gentle slope, on the banks of a stream which they called Jordan, connecting the more southern Utah Lake with the Great Salt Lake. They built a fort, planted seed, and with solemn ceremonies the land was consecrated to the Lord. In the early autumn great swarms of black bugs came and began to devour their crops, when large flocks of beautiful white birds, such as they had never seen before, came every morning from the hills and destroyed the "black Philistines." They saved a part of their crop, yet famine came; but soon deliverance appeared also. A large party from Missouri came with abundance of food. In the spring of 1848 fields were seeded, crops were raised, and the blessings of plenty ensued. The inhabitants of Kane pressed forward to the new Canaan; other Saints followed; and the New Jerusalem was laid out within an area of four square miles, and called *Salt Lake City*.

Mormon Temple at Nauvoo. Upon a rich delta formed by the Des Moines and Mississippi rivers, in Hancock County, Ill., homeless and starving Mormons, driven from Missouri, pitched their tents, and consecrated the spot as an "everlasting habitation" for the Saints. (See *Mormons*.) There they built a town and called it Nauvoo—"the City of Beauty." They chose a

site for a temple on a bluff, the plan of which, it was said, had been revealed to Joseph Smith, their leader, and a "Gentile" architect was employed to build it. Its corner-stone was laid April 6, 1841. It was built of beautiful white limestone. In style, size, and decorations, it was intended to rival every other fane on the globe. Rumors of scandalous practices among the Mormons went abroad, and the people of Illinois determined to drive them beyond their borders. Their prophet (Smith) was killed by an excited mob, but an energetic successor (Brigham Young) controlled affairs. The Mormons were so much persecuted that they resolved to desert "the City of Beauty." They had expended \$1,000,000 on their temple, and it was not yet finished; but they resolved to dedicate it. That ceremony was a scene of great interest. Young men and maidens came with festoons of flowers to decorate the twelve elaborately carved oxen upon which rested the great baptismal laver. Prayers were uttered, chants were sung, and, in the midst of bishops in their sacerdotal robes, the voice of the Seer (Brigham Young) was heard pronouncing the temple dedicated to the service of Almighty God. Over the door was placed this inscription:

THE HOUSE OF THE LORD.

BUILT BY THE CHURCH OF JESUS CHRIST OF LATTER-DAY SAINTS.

HOLINESS TO THE LORD.

On the day when the temple was dedicated it was abandoned to the "Gentiles." Thirty months afterwards it was destroyed by fire; and in May, 1850, "the City of Beauty" was desolated by a tornado, and the partially restored temple was cast to the earth a heap of ruins.

Mormonism as it Existed in 1875. The priesthood was organized into the following quorums: The first presidency, the twelve apostles, the high council, the seventies, the high-priests, elders, priests, teachers, and deacons. The first presidency consisted of three men, who presided over and directed the affairs of the whole church. The twelve apostles constituted a travelling presiding high council. The hierarchy was divided into two bodies, the Melchizedek priesthood and Aaronic priesthood. To the former (which was the highest) belonged several orders; to the latter, who could be only "literal descendants of Aaron," and were designated as such by revelation, belonged the duties and offices of bishop, priest, teacher, and deacon. The church teaches that there are many gods; that eminent Saints like Joseph Smith and Brigham Young become gods in heaven, and rise one above another in power and glory to infinity. Joseph Smith is now the god of this generation, whose superior god is Jesus, whose superior god is Adam, whose superior is Jehovah, whose superior is Elohim, etc. All these gods have many wives, and they all rule over their descendants, who are constantly increasing in number and dominion. The glory of a Saint, when he becomes a god, depends on the number of his wives and children; therefore

polygamy is inculcated and wives are "sealed" on the earth to augment the power of these gods in heaven. The ten commandments are considered the rule of life, together with a revelation made to Joseph Smith in 1833, called the *Book of Wisdom*, which inculcates some virtuous maxims and useful instructions. They practised baptism for the dead, a living person receiving the rite as proxy. In that way Washington, Franklin, and other famous men have been baptized into the Mormon church. They held that there had been many religious dispensations since the days of Adam, ending with the greatest of all by a revelation to Joseph Smith. Brigham Young had occasional revelations to suit certain exigencies in his own career and that of the church.

Mormons. In the heart of the American continent is a flourishing community whose members call themselves Mormons, or Latter-day Saints. This sect, whose origin and growth are strange social phenomena, originated with Joseph Smith, a native of Vermont, who pretended that so early as 1823, when he was living with his father in Ontario (now Wayne) County, N. Y., at the age of fifteen years, he began to have visions. He said God had then revealed to him that in a certain hill were golden plates, on which were written the records of the ancient inhabitants of America, and that with the plates would be found two transparent stones, which were called in the Hebrew tongue Urim and Thummim, on looking through which the inscriptions on the golden plates would become intelligible. He said that four years afterwards (Sept. 22, 1827) the angel of the Lord had placed these golden plates and their interpreters in his hands. The inscriptions were neatly engraved on the plates in hieroglyphics of the "reformed Egyptian," then not known on the earth. From these plates, with the aid of the Urim and Thummim, Smith, sitting behind a blanket-screen to hide the plates from eyes profane, read the *Book of Mormon* (or *Golden Bible*, as he sometimes called it) to Oliver Cowdery, who wrote it down as Smith read it. It was printed in 1830 in a volume of several hundred pages. Appended to the narrative is a declaration signed by Oliver Cowdery, David Whitmer, and Martin Harris in these words: "We declare, with words of soberness, that an angel of God came down from heaven, and he brought and laid before our eyes, that we beheld and saw the plates and the engravings thereon." These the Mormons call the "Three Witnesses." Several years afterwards these men quarrelled with Smith, renounced Mormonism, and solemnly declared that their testimony was false. The fact has been fully established that Smith was a knave and the whole thing a fraud; the real author of the work which he pretended to read behind the blanket-curtain from plates of gold was Solomon Spaulding, a graduate of Dartmouth College in 1785, who entered the ministry, afterwards engaged in mercantile pursuits in Cherry Valley, N. Y., thence went to Conneaut, O., in 1812 removed to Pittsburgh, Penn., and from that place went to Amity, in the same state, where

he died in 1816. He wrote some worthless novels which were never published, but were read from manuscript to his friends. In Ohio his imagination was quickened by the sight and partial study of the ancient mounds found there. During his residence in Ohio Spaulding wrote a fanciful history of the ancient people of America, according to a theory that they were descendants of the lost tribes of Israel. He styled his work *Manuscript Found*. Its publication was announced in the newspapers as early as 1813 as containing the *Book of Mormon*. The manuscript, according to the testimony of Spaulding's widow, was placed in a printing-office in Pittsburgh, in which Sidney Rigdon (afterwards a conspicuous actor in the fraud) was employed, who made a copy of it. The original manuscript was afterwards returned to the author, and his widow had it in her possession when Smith's *Book of Mormon* appeared, with which it was found to be identical. It is asserted that, through Rigdon, Smith obtained a copy of Spaulding's manuscript, and that it was from that copy that Smith, behind the blanket, read to the scribe Cowdery. The *Book of Mormon* is a collection of sixteen distinct books, professing to be written at different periods by successive prophets. Its style is that of our English version of the Bible, from which quotations to the amount of three hundred pages of the work are made without allusion to their source. Smith and Rigdon became partners in the scheme of establishing a new church. With this *Book of Mormon* in their hands as text and authority, they began to preach the new gospel. They found dupes and followers, and in April, 1830, organized the first Mormon church at Manchester, N. Y., when the members numbered thirty. Smith pretended to be guided by a series of revelations. By one of these he was directed to lead the believers to Kirtland, O., which was to be the seat of the New Jerusalem. They went, and converts rapidly appeared. Desiring a wider field for the growth of the church, Smith and Rigdon found it in Jackson County, Mo., where, at Independence, Smith dedicated the site for the temple to be erected by the Saints. Then they went back to Kirtland to remain five years and "make money." There they established a mill, a store, and a bank. Smith was president of the latter, and Rigdon was cashier, and the neighboring country was flooded with the bank's worthless notes. Justly accused of fraudulent dealing, a mob dragged Smith and Rigdon from their beds (March 22, 1832), and tarred and feathered them. About this time Brigham Young, a native of Vermont, a painter and glazier, became a convert, and joined the Mormons at Kirtland. His ability and shrewdness soon made him a leader, and when a new organization of the church occurred, and a hierarchy was established with twelve apostles, he was ordained one of them, and was sent out to preach the new gospel. They built a costly temple at Kirtland, which was dedicated in 1836. Their first missionaries to Europe were sent in 1837. Early the next year the bank at Kirtland failed, and Smith and Rigdon, to avoid arrest

for fraud, decamped in the night and took refuge in Missouri, where a large number of Mormons had gathered. They were driven by the exasperated inhabitants towards the western border of the state, where Smith and Rigdon joined them. In conflicts with the Mormons, several were killed on each side. Finally, late in 1838, these conflicts assumed the character of civil war, and apostates from the Mormon church declared that Smith was regarded by his followers as superior to all earthly magistrates, and that it was his avowed intention to possess himself of the state. The armed Mormons defied the laws. Smith and Rigdon were arrested on a charge of treason, murder, and felony. The Mormons were finally driven out of Missouri; and, to the number of several thousands, they crossed the Mississippi into Illinois, where they were joined by Smith, who had broken out of jail. The Mormons were kindly received in Illinois. Lands were given them, and Smith was directed by a revelation to build a city, to be called Nauvoo, at Commerce. He laid out the city, sold lots to his followers at high prices, and amassed a considerable fortune. Nauvoo soon became a city of several thousand inhabitants, the Saints being summoned by a new revelation to assemble there from all parts of the world, and to build a temple for the Lord, and a hotel in which Smith and his family should "have place from generation to generation, for ever and ever." Extraordinary privileges were given to Nauvoo by the Legislature of Illinois, and Smith and Rigdon exercised almost unlimited power. They organized a military corps called the "Nauvoo Legion," of which Smith was made lieutenant-general. The foundations of the temple at Nauvoo were laid April 6, 1841. Smith was almost absolute in power and influence; and so early as 1838 he had by persuasion corrupted several women, calling them "spiritual wives," although he had a lawful wife to whom he had been married eleven years. She naturally became jealous, and, to pacify her, Smith pretended to receive (July 12, 1843) a revelation authorizing men to have more than one wife. So polygamy was established among the Mormons. Much scandal was created at Nauvoo. The "Apostles" strenuously denied the fact until it could no longer be concealed, when it was admitted (1852), and boldly avowed and defended on the authority of the revelation in 1843. Smith's licentiousness became so flagrant that a great uproar was created at Nauvoo, and he was denounced as a corrupter of virtue. The affidavits of sixteen women were published to the effect that Smith and Rigdon had tried to persuade them to become "spiritual wives." Great excitement followed. Smith and some followers having destroyed the property of one of his accusers, attempts were made to arrest him, when the Mormons, armed, defended him. At last he, his brother Hyrum, and others were lodged in jail at Carthage in 1844. On the evening of June 27 a mob attacked the jail, and the "Prophet" and his brother were shot dead. Rigdon now aspired to be the leader of the Mormons, but Brigham Young had him-

self appointed president of the church, and Rigdon, becoming contumacious, was cast out to be "buffeted for a thousand years." Public sentiment in Illinois set strongly against the Mormons, and early in 1846 they prepared for an exodus to the Rocky Mountains. A place was selected on the borders of the Great Salt Lake by Brigham Young in 1847, and the next year the main body of the Saints set out for the land of promise in the heart of the continent. The story of that exodus is wonderful. They founded Salt Lake City. A large number of converts arrived from Europe, and in 1849 the Mormons organized an independent state, called Deseret—"the land of the honey-bee." A legislature was elected, and a constitution framed and sent to Washington. Congress refused to recognize it, but formed a territorial government for their country under the name of Utah, and appointed Brigham Young territorial governor. (See *Utah*.) Utah has never been admitted as a state of the Union, owing to the polygamous practices of its people. About five ninths of the voters in the territory in 1890 were Mormons. The Edmunds law of 1882 provided for the disenfranchisement of polygamists, and the Edmunds-Tucker law of 1887 confiscated all Mormon church property, except some church buildings, and devoted the proceeds to the School Fund. Polygamy was practically abolished in 1890 by decree of President Woodruff, ratified by the Mormon Conference. The Mormons keep missionaries abroad, and numbers of converts are yet crossing the ocean.

Morris, Charles, was born at Woodstock, Conn., July 26, 1784; died at Washington, Jan. 27, 1856. He entered the navy in July, 1799, and helped in the destruction of the *Philadelphia*



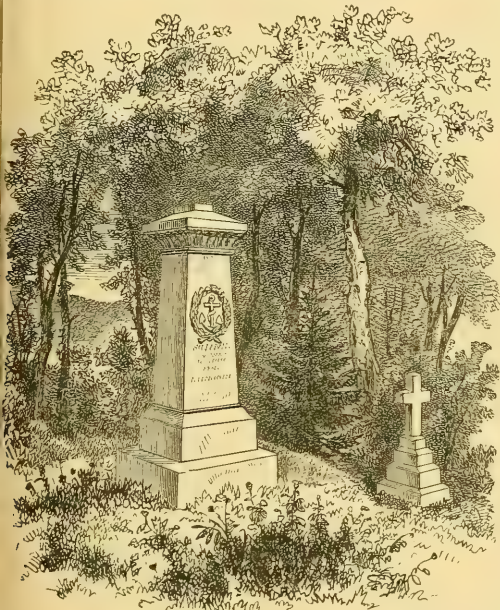
CHARLES MORRIS.

(which see) at Tripoli. In the encounter between the *Constitution* and *Guerriere* (which see) he was shot through the belly. In 1814, while he commanded the frigate *John Adams*, he took

her up the Penobscot River for repairs, was blockaded there, and on the approach of the British he destroyed her. (See *Hampden* [Mc.], *British at.*) In 1825 he commanded the frigate *Brandywine*, which conveyed Lafayette back to Europe after his visit to this country. He was constantly employed in the public service, afloat or ashore, and at the time of his death was chief of the Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography. He had the supervision of the Naval Academy at Annapolis for several years. Commodore Morris had no superior in the world as a naval commander. His remains lie in the beautiful Oak

best songs may be found in Allibone's *Dictionary of British and American Authors*. William Howitt, after speaking of the beauty and naturalness of Morris's love-songs, gives, in the following words, a generous touch of the character of all of his writings: "He has never attempted to robe vice in beauty; and, as has been well remarked, his lays can bring to the cheek of purity no blush but that of pleasure." He is properly called "*the song-writer of America.*"

Morris, GOUVERNEUR, was born at Morrisania, N. Y., Jan. 31, 1752; died there, Nov. 6, 1816. He graduated at King's (now Columbia) College in 1768. He was a brother of Lewis, the signer of the Declaration of Independence. He



COMMODORE MORRIS'S MONUMENT.

Hill Cemetery, at Georgetown, District of Columbia, and over them is a neat white marble monument.

Morris, GEORGE P., lyric poet, was born in Philadelphia, Oct. 10, 1802; died in New York city, July 6, 1864. In early life he made New York his residence, and contributed verses to the newspapers when he was fifteen years of age. He edited and published the *New York Mirror* for nineteen years (1823-42), and in 1843 was associated with N. P. Willis in the publication of the *New Mirror*, and afterwards (1844) in the daily *Evening Mirror*. In 1845 he began the *National Press*, and in 1846 the *Home Journal*, yet (1850) continued. The latter is a "society journal." Mr. Morris achieved great popularity as a song-writer. His lyrics are very numerous, one of the best-known being "*Woodman, spare that tree.*" In 1825 he wrote a drama, *Briercliff*, in five acts, founded upon events of the American Revolution. It was performed forty successive nights, and paid the author \$3500. In 1842 he wrote an opera for C. E. Horne, entitled *The Maid of Sarony*, which had a run of fourteen successive nights. A brief catalogue of Morris's



GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

was admitted to the bar in 1771, and soon acquired great reputation as a lawyer. One of the committee that drafted the constitution of the State of New York, a member of Congress from 1777 to 1780, and one of the most useful of committee-men in that body, he gained much political influence. In 1779 he published a pamphlet containing *Observations on the American Revolution*. In 1781 he was the assistant of Robert Morris, the Superintendent of Finance. Having lived in Philadelphia six years, he purchased (1786) the estate of Morrisania from his brother, and made it his residence ever afterwards. Prominent in the convention that framed the national Constitution, he put that instrument into the literary shape in which it was adopted. In 1791 he was sent to London as private agent of the United States, and from 1792 to 1794 was American minister to France; afterwards travelled in Europe, and in 1798 returned to the United States. In 1800 he was chosen United States Senator. He was one of the early advocates of the construction of the Erie Canal, and chairman of the Canal Commission from 1810 until his death.

Morris, GOUVERNEUR, IN FRANCE (1794). The sagacious Gouverneur Morris was Jefferson's successor as minister to the French government. He had seen many of the phases of the French Revolution, and with a tantalizing coolness had pursued Washington's policy of neutrality towards France and England. This course offended the ardent French Republicans, and when making out the letters recalling Genet (which see) the Committee of Public Safety, in which Robespierre and his associates were predominant, solicited the recall of Morris. For reasons

of policy the President complied, but accompanied the letter of recall with a private one, expressing his satisfaction with Morris's diplomatic conduct. This letter, sent by a British vessel, fell into the hands of the French government, and greatly increased the suspicion with which the American administration was regarded. To allay that suspicion, Washington sent Monroe, an avowed friend of the French Revolutionists, as Morris's successor.

Morris, LEWIS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Morrisania, N. Y., in 1726; died there, Jan. 22, 1798. He graduated at Yale College in 1746, and was in Congress in 1775, serving on some of the most important committees. To him was assigned the delicate task of detaching the Western Indians from the British interest, and early in 1776 he resumed his seat in Congress. His fine estate near New York was laid waste by the British. In 1777 he left Congress, was in the State Legislature, and became major-general of the militia. Three of his sons were soldiers in the Continental army.

Morris, LEWIS, son of the founder of the estate of Morrisania, Westchester Co., N. Y., was born at Morrisania in 1671; died at Kingsbury, N. J., May 21, 1746. His father was an officer in Cromwell's army. He was judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey, and a member of the Council; for several years was chief-justice of New York and New Jersey, and governor of New Jersey from 1738 to 1746.—His son, **ROBERT HUNTER**, was chief-justice of New Jersey for twenty years, and for twenty-six years one of the Council. He died Feb. 20, 1764.

Morris, ROBERT, financier, and a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Lancashire, England, Jan. 20, 1734; died in Philadelphia, May 8, 1806. He came to America at the age of thirteen years; entered the mercantile

July, 1776, he voted against the resolution for independence, and on the 4th he refused to vote on the Declaration because he considered the movement premature. When it was adopted, he signed it. He served in Congress at different times during the war, and at the same time was largely engaged in managing the financial affairs of the country, making use of his personal credit to support the public credit. With other citizens he established a bank in Philadelphia in 1780, by which means the army was largely sustained. In 1781 he supplied almost everything to carry on the campaign against Cornwallis. Appointed Superintendent of Finance and Secretary of the Treasury under the Confederation in 1781, he served until 1784, when the fiscal affairs of the country were placed in the hands of three commissioners. At the same time, he managed naval affairs. He assisted in framing the national Constitution, and was chosen the first United States Senator for Pennsylvania under it. Washington offered him the secretaryship of the Treasury, but he declined it. In 1784 he, in partnership with Gouverneur Morris, sent to Canton, China, the first American ship ever seen in that port. Entering into land speculations in his old age, he lost his fortune, and was in prison for debt for some time.

Morris, ROBERT, AND THE MILITARY CHEST. When Washington received a letter from Count De Grasse saying that he could not yet leave the West Indies, Robert Morris was at headquarters at Dobbs's Ferry with Richard Peters, Secretary of the Board of War. The commander-in-chief was sorely disappointed, for he saw little chance of success against the British at New York without the aid of a French fleet. He instantly conceived the campaign against Cornwallis. Turning to Peters, he said, "What can you do for me?" "With money, everything; without it, nothing," replied the secretary, at the same time turning an anxious look towards Morris, who comprehended the expression. "Let me know the sum you want," said the Superintendent of Finance. Washington soon handed him estimates. Morris borrowed 20,000 hard dollars from the French commander, promising to repay it in October. The arrival of Colonel Laurens (Aug. 25) at Boston with a part of the subsidy of over \$1,000,000 from France for which he had negotiated enabled Morris to keep his engagement.

Morris, ROGER, was born in England, Jan. 28, 1717; died there, Sept. 13, 1794. He entered the royal army as captain in 1745; accompanied Braddock in his unfortunate expedition in 1755; served under Loudoun in 1757, and in 1758 married Mary Phillipse, heiress to the Phillipse Manor, N. Y. He served with distinction under Wolfe, and was with him in the siege of Quebec in 1759. Morris (holding the rank of major) retired from the army in 1764, and took a seat in the Executive Council of New York late in that year. Adhering to the British crown, when the Revolution came his property and that of his wife were confiscated, and at the peace Colonel Morris retired, with his family, to England.



ROBERT MORRIS.

house of Charles Willing, of Philadelphia, and in 1754 entered into partnership with his son. At the beginning of the Revolution it was the largest commercial house in Philadelphia. The firm existed until 1793. Mr. Morris espoused the cause of the colonies, and was a member of the Continental Congress in 1775. On the 2d of

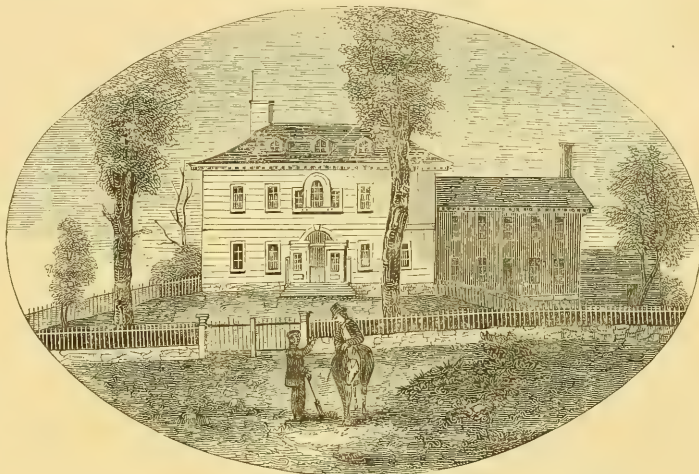
Morris, STAATS LORING, was born at Morrisania, N. Y., Aug. 27, 1728; died in 1800. In 1756 he was a captain in the British army, and was lieutenant-colonel of a regiment of Highlanders in 1761. He was a brigadier-general as early as 1763, and in 1796 had reached the rank of general. The next year he was made governor of Quebec. His first wife was the Duchess of Gordon.

Morris, WILLIAM WALTERS, was born at Ballston Springs, N. Y., Aug. 31, 1801; died at Fort McHenry, Baltimore, Dec. 11, 1865. He graduated at West Point in 1820, and served against the Indians under Colonel Leavenworth in 1823; gained promotion to a majorship for services in the Seminole War (which see), and to a colonelcy in 1861. He served under Taylor in the war against Mexico, and was military governor of both Tampico and Puebla. When the Civil War broke out he was in command at Fort McHenry, where he boldly defied the threatening Secessionists, and promptly turned the guns of the fort menacingly on the city during the Secessionists' riots in Baltimore, April 19, 1861. He was breveted brigadier-general in June, 1862, and major-general in December, 1865.

Morris's Funding Scheme. Robert Morris, as Superintendent of Finance, proposed a scheme for funding the public debt of the United States in 1782, and to provide for the regular payment of the interest on it. For these purposes he proposed a very moderate land-tax, a poll-tax, and an excise on distilled liquors. He also proposed to add to the sum thus raised five per cent. of the duties on imports, if the states would consent to it, and to reserve the back public lands as security for new loans in Europe. This plan, if carried out, it was thought, would establish the public credit. But the jealous states would not give their consent.

Morristown, ENCAMPMENT AT (1777). After the battle at Princeton (June 3, 1777), Washington led his wearied troops to Morristown, and placed them in winter encampment. There he issued a proclamation requiring the inhabitants who had taken British protection to abandon their allegiance to the king or go within the British lines. (See *Proclamation of Washington*.) Hundreds joined his standard in consequence. From that encampment he sent out armed parties, who confined the British in New Jersey to three points on the sea-shore of the state, and the commonwealth was pretty thoroughly purged of Toryism before the spring. The ranks of his army were rapidly filled by volunteers; and when the campaign opened in June, his

force, which numbered about 8000 when he left headquarters at Morristown in May, had swelled to 14,000. He had maintained through the winter and spring a line of cantonments from the Delaware River to the Hudson Highlands. Washington and his army again encamped at Morristown in the winter of 1779-80. In 1777 his headquarters were at Freeman's Tavern; in 1780 he occupied as such the fine mansion in the suburbs of the village belonging to the widow Ford. It is yet (1880) standing. It was purchased a few

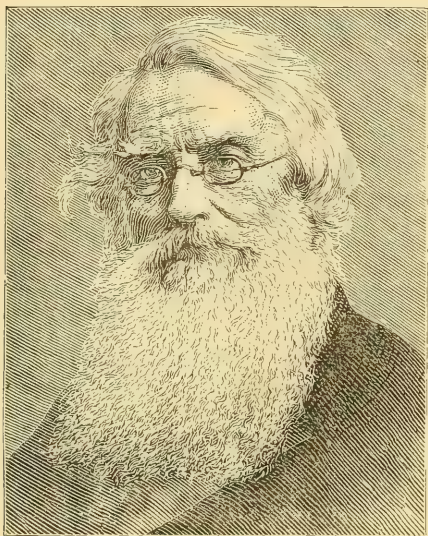


WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT MORRISTOWN IN 1850.

years ago for the purpose of preserving it, on account of its historical associations. It remains as when occupied by Washington.

Morse, JEDEDIAH, D.D., was born at Woodstock, Conn., Aug. 23, 1761; died in New Haven, Jan. 9, 1826. He graduated at Yale College in 1783, and in 1789 was installed pastor of the First Congregational Church at Charlestown, Mass. In the twenty-third year of his age he prepared a small geography, which was the first ever published in America. This was followed by larger geographies and gazetteers of the United States, with the help of Jeremy Belknap, the historian, Thomas Hutchins, the geographer, and Ebenezer Hazen. For thirty years Mr. Morse was without an important competitor in this field of literature, and translations of his works were made into the French and German languages. Dr. Morse was a life-long polemical theologian, and combated Unitarianism in New England most sturdily. In 1805 he established the *Panoplist*, and was prominent in founding the Andover Theological Seminary. His persistent opposition to liberalism in religion brought upon him much persecution, which affected his naturally delicate health, and he resigned his pastoral charge in 1820. In 1822 he was commissioned by the government to visit the Indian tribes on the northwestern frontiers. He published (1804) *A Compendious History of New England*, and in 1824 a *History of the American Revolution*. He also published twenty-five special sermons.

Morse, SAMUEL FINLEY BREESE, LL.D., was born in Charlestown, Mass., April 27, 1791; died in New York, April 2, 1872. He graduated at Yale College in 1810, and went to England with Washington Allston in 1811, where he studied



SAMUEL FINLEY BREESE MORSE.

the art of painting under Benjamin West. In 1813 he received the gold medal of the Adelphi Society of Arts for an original model of a "Dying Hercules," his first essay in the art of sculpture. On his return home in 1815, he practised the art of painting, chiefly in portraiture, in Boston, Charleston, S. C., and in New York, where, in 1824-25, he laid the foundation of the National Academy of Design, organized in 1826, of which he was the first president, and in which position he continued for sixteen years. While he was abroad the second time (1829-32), he was elected professor of the Literature of the Arts of Design in the University of the City of New York. Previous to his leaving home, he had become familiar with the subject of electro-magnetism by intimate personal intercourse with Professor J. Freeman Dana. On his return passage from Europe in 1832 in the ship *Sully*, in conversation with others concerning recent electric and magnetic experiments in France, Professor Morse conceived the idea of an electro-magnetic and chemical recording telegraph as it now exists. Before the close of that year, a part of the apparatus was constructed in New York. In 1835 he had a mile of telegraph-wire, producing satisfactory results, in a room at the university, and in September, 1837, he exhibited it to some friends. That year he filed a caveat at the Patent-office in Washington, and asked Congress to give him pecuniary aid to build an experimental line from that city to Baltimore. A favorable report was made by the House committee, but nothing else was done at that session. He continued to press the matter. Morse went to Europe to interest foreign governments in his discovery, but failed. With scanty pecuniary

means, he struggled on four years longer; and on the last evening of the session of 1842-43 his hopes were extinguished, for one hundred and eighty bills before his were to be acted upon in the course of a few hours. The next morning, as he was about to leave with dejected spirits for his home in New York, he was cheered with the announcement by a young daughter of the Commissioner of Patents (Ellsworth) that at near the midnight hour Congress had made an appropriation of \$30,000 to be placed at his disposal. A line was completed between the Capitol at Washington and the city of Baltimore in the spring of 1844; and then from Professor Morse, at the seat of government, to his assistant, Henry T. Rogers (who died in August, 1879), in the latter city, passed the first appropriate message — "What hath God wrought!" suggested by the fair young friend of the inventor. At that time the Democratic National Convention was in session at Baltimore, and the first public message that was flashed over the wires was the announcement of that convention to their friends in Washington of the nomination of James K. Polk for President of the United States. So was given the assurance that the great experiment had resulted in a perfect demonstration not only of the marvellous ability, but of the immense value, of the discovery and invention. With that perception came violations of the inventor's rights, and for a long series of years most vexatious and expensive litigation. But Morse triumphed everywhere, and he received most substantial testimonials of the profound respect which his great discovery and invention had won for him. In 1846 Yale College conferred on him the degree of LL.D., and in 1848 the Sultan of Turkey gave him the decoration of the *Nishan Ifikar*. Gold medals for scientific merit were given him by the King of Prussia, the King of Wurtemberg, and the Emperor of Austria. In 1856 he received from the Emperor of the French the cross of Chevalier of the Legion of Honor. In 1857 the King of Denmark gave him the cross of Knight-commander of the first class of the Danebrog. In 1858 the Queen of Spain presented him the cross of Knight-commander of the Order of Isabella the Catholic; the King of Italy gave him the cross of SS. Maurice and Lazarus, and from the King of Portugal he received the cross of the Order of the Tower and the Sword. A banquet was given him in London (1856) by British telegraph companies, and in Paris (1858) by about a hundred Americans, representing nearly every state in the Union. In the latter part of that year, after a telegraphic cable had been laid under the Atlantic Ocean (see *Atlantic Telegraph*), representatives of France, Russia, Sweden, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Sardinia, Tuscany, the Papal States, and Turkey met in Paris, at the suggestion of the Emperor of the French, and voted to him about \$80,000 in gold as a personal reward for his labors. In 1868 (Dec. 29) the citizens of New York gave him a public dinner, and in 1871 a bronze statue of him was erected in Central Park, N. Y., by the voluntary contributions of telegraph employes. Will-

iam Cullen Bryant unveiled the statue in June, 1871, and that evening, at a public reception of the inventor at the Academy of Music, Professor Morse, with one of the instruments first employed on the Baltimore and Washington line, sent a message of greeting to all the cities of the continent, and to several in the eastern hemisphere. The last public act performed by Professor Morse was the unveiling of the bronze statue of Franklin in Printing-house Square, New York, Jan. 17, 1872. He was the father of submarine telegraphy (which see), and he lived to see performed what he believed to be a possibility—the transmission of messages each way, at the same instant, over one wire. Professor Morse made the acquaintance of Daguerre in Paris in 1839, and from drawings furnished him by the latter he constructed the first daguerreotype apparatus and took the first “sun-pictures” ever made in America. Some of the first plates on which are delineated the human face are now in the possession of Vassar College, at Poughkeepsie.

Morse, SIDNEY EDWARDS, brother of Samuel F. B., was born in Charlestown, Mass., Feb. 7, 1794; died in New York, Dec. 23, 1871. He graduated at Yale College in 1811, and in the next year as well as in that following (in the eighteenth and nineteenth years of his age) he wrote a series of newspaper articles against the multiplication of new states in the South. He studied law at Litchfield, Conn., and in 1815 established the *Boston Recorder*, the first so-called religious newspaper issued in America. He prepared a geography for schools; and in 1823, in connection with his younger brother (Richard C.), he founded the *New York Observer*, now (1880) the oldest weekly newspaper in New York city. In 1834 he invented a process for making maps and outline pictures to be printed typographically, which he named cerography. It was first used in making a geography for schools, of which more than 100,000 copies were printed and disposed of the first year. The last years of Sidney E. Morse's life were devoted to the inventing and perfecting of a bathometer for rapid explorations of the depths of the sea.

Morse's Plan for Peace. Professor Samuel F. B. Morse was an earnest advocate for peace and one of the most conspicuous opponents of the government policy during the Civil War. Immediately after the adjournment of the Peace Convention (which see) he was made President of the “American Society for the Promotion of National Union,” and he worked zealously for the advancement of measures that might satisfy the slaveholders and their political friends. Professor Morse proposed a convention of all the states, to which body should be referred the whole subject of differences. He also proposed a temporary yielding to the desire of the South for a separate confederacy; in other words, an assent to negotiations for a temporary dissolution of the present Union. Professor Morse evidently believed that the trouble had entirely grown out of the intermeddling with slavery by fanatics of the North. “If we cannot refrain

from the use of exasperating and opprobrious language towards our brethren,” he said, “and of offensive intermeddling with their domestic affairs, then, of course, the plan fails, and so will all others for a true Union.” He said, “Coercion of one state by another, or of one federated union by another federated union,” was not to be thought of. In reply to his own question, “What is to become of the flag of the Union?” he replied, “If the country can be divided, why not the flag? The ‘Stars and Stripes’ is the flag in which we all have a deep and self-same interest. It is hallowed by the common victories of our several wars.” He proposed to “divide the old flag, giving half to each. It may be done in a manner to have a salutary moral effect upon both parties. Let the blue Union be diagonally divided, and the thirteen stripes longitudinally so as to make six and a half stripes in the upper and the same in the lower portion.” He proposed that the Northern “federal union” should have the upper half (that being north on geographical maps), and the Southern “federal union” the lower half, of the “diagonal division of the blue field and horizontal division of the thirteen stripes.” The reason he gave for this division was that “it prevents all disputes on a claim for the old flag for either confederacy. . . . Each flag being a moiety of the old flag, will retain something, at least, of the sacred memories of the past for the sober reflection of each confederacy.” The two confederacies having made a mutual treaty of offence and defence, they would combine in any war with a foreign nation. Then “the two separate flags, by natural affinity, would clasp fittingly together, and the glorious old flag of the Union in its entirety would again be hoisted, once more embracing all the sister states.” In this way reconciliation and union between the states were to be effected. Morse's plan was not favorably considered by either side. The Secessionists had determined on a wide and eternal separation, with a flag of their own; the loyal people and the government as firmly resolved that neither the Union nor the flag should be divided.

Mortality at New Plymouth. Most of the women and children remained on board the *Mayflower* until suitable log huts were erected for their reception, and it was March 21, 1621, before they were all landed on the shore. Those on shore were exposed to the rigors of winter weather and insufficient food, though the winter was a comparatively mild one. Those on the ship were confined in foul air, with unwholesome food. Scurvy and other diseases appeared among them, and when, late in March, the last passenger landed from the *Mayflower*, nearly one half the colonists were dead. Governor Carver and his wife died; also the young wife of Edward Winslow, and the wives of Miles Standish and Isaac Allerton. John Allerton and Thomas English died; also the father and mother of Mary Chilton. (See *Landing of the Pilgrims*.) In some cases whole families perished. For four months there was a death almost daily.

Morton, JAMES ST. CLAIR, was born in Philadelphia, Penn., in 1829; died near Petersburg, Va., June 17, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1851; and in 1860, as engineer, he was employed by Congress to explore a railroad route across the Isthmus, in Central America, through the Chiriqui country. He superintended the fortifying of the Tortugas in March, 1861, and was made Chief-engineer of the Army of the Ohio in May, 1862. Rosecrans placed Morton in command of the pioneer brigade late in that year, and he rendered efficient service in the battle of Stone River. He was wounded at Chickamauga; was chief-engineer of the Ninth Army Corps in the Richmond campaign in 1864; and was killed while leading an attack on Petersburg. He was breveted brigadier-general in the United States Army. General Morton was author of a *Manual on Fortifications* and one or two other works.

Morton, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Ridley, Penn., in 1724; died April, 1777. He was of Swedish descent. A well-educated man, he was for many years member of the Assembly of Pennsylvania, and its speaker from 1772 to 1775. He was a delegate to the Stamp Act Congress (which see) in 1765, and became a judge of the Supreme Court of the province. Mr. Morton was a member of the Continental Congress from 1774 to 1776, and voted for the Declaration of Independence. He assisted in the first formation of the Articles of Confederation (which see), and died soon afterwards.

Morton, NATHANIEL, an early New England historian, was born in England in 1618; died at Plymouth, Mass., June 29, 1685. He came to America in 1623, and was secretary of the Plymouth colony from 1647 until his death. His *New England Memorial* was prepared chiefly from the MSS. of his uncle, Governor Bradford. It relates chiefly to the history of the Plymouth colony. In 1680 he wrote a history of the church at Plymouth.

Morton, OLIVER P., one of the most efficient



OLIVER P. MORTON.

of the "war governors" in 1861, was born in Wayne County, Ind., Aug. 4, 1823; died Nov.

1, 1877. He was educated at the Miami University, and admitted to the bar in 1847. In 1852 he was appointed Judge of the Fifth Judicial District of Indiana, and was elected lieutenant-governor in 1860. He became governor in 1861, and in that office, during the whole Civil War, he performed services of inestimable value. He issued his first war message April 25, 1861, and from that time he labored incessantly for the salvation of the Republic. In 1867 the Legislature of Indiana elected him United States Senator for six years. He was appointed minister to England in September, 1870, but declined the office. Governor Morton did more than any other man in the state to thwart the disloyal plans of the secret association in aid of the enemies of the government known as the "Order of the Golden Circle" (which see) or "Sons of Liberty."

Morton, SAMUEL GEORGE, M.D., was born in Philadelphia, Jan. 26, 1799; died there, May 15, 1851. He was a physician, and became a noted naturalist. In 1840 he was President of the Academy of Natural Sciences at Philadelphia. So early as 1834 he made a voyage to the West Indies in pursuit of his studies of the diversity of the human races and the relations resulting from their contact. He was the leading ethnologist of his time; and his *Crania Americana* and *Crania Egyptica* are standard works on ethnology, as contributions to the natural history of man. He had a collection of 1512 skulls, of which 900 were human—the largest and most valuable collection in the world.

Morton, WILLIAM THOMAS GREEN, M.D., a discoverer of the use of ether as an anæsthetic in surgery, was born at Charlton, Mass., Aug. 9, 1819; died in New York city, July 15, 1868. After studying dentistry in Baltimore in 1840, he settled in Boston (1842), where he successfully manufactured artificial teeth. While attending lectures at a medical college, he conceived the idea that sulphuric ether might be used to alleviate pain. Assured of its safety by experiments on himself, he first administered it successfully in his dental practice Sept. 30, 1846, extracting a firmly rooted tooth without pain. At the request of Dr. J. C. Warren, ether was administered to a man in the Massachusetts General Hospital, from whose groin a vascular tumor was removed while the patient was unconscious. Dr. Morton obtained a patent for his discovery in November, 1846, under the name of "Letheon," offering, however, free rights to all charitable institutions; but the government appropriated his discovery to its use without compensation. Other claimants arose, and he suffered great persecution in private and before Congress. His business was ruined, and at the end of eight years of ineffectual struggle to procure from Congress remuneration for his discovery he and his family were left in poverty. Honorable medical men of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia assigned to Dr. Morton the credit of the great discovery—"the most important benefaction ever made by man to the human race"—and said so by signing an appeal for a national testimonial to him. In 1858 he

sued a marine hospital surgeon for infringing his patent, and recovered damages. In 1848 Richard Dana published a pamphlet in vindication of his claim.

Mother Ann. The name given to Ann Lee, the founder of the religious sect known as "Shakers" in the United States. She was an Englishwoman, who pretended to have a revelation that she was a second manifestation, in female form, of the Christ. Her followers say: "The man who is called Jesus and the woman who was called Ann are truly the two great pillars of the church." She was acknowledged to be a "spiritual mother in Israel," and was called "Mother Ann." Strict celibacy is inculcated and practised by her followers. Ann Lee came to America, and, with a few followers, settled opposite Troy, N.Y., in 1776. They preached against the war, and Ann was suspected of being a British spy. Charged with high-treason, she was imprisoned at Albany and Poughkeepsie, but was released by Governor Clinton. In 1780 a wild revival broke out under her ministrations, and many were added to the society of the Shakers. She declared to her deluded converts that she was the "woman clothed with the sun" spoken of in the Apocalypse, and by mysterious mutterings, groans, and strange gestures she excited their fear and admiration. Mother Ann introduced dancing, whirling, hopping, and other eccentricities in their worship, and declared that she would never die, but be translated into heaven alive. She did die, in 1784, but her followers say it was not real death. They declare that

"In union with the Father, she is the second Eve,
Dispensing full salvation to all who do believe."

Mother Goose. The alleged author of a collection of popular nursery rhymes. Mrs. Goose was of a wealthy family in Boston, Mass. Her eldest daughter married Thomas Fleet, an enterprising printer, and Mrs. Goose lived with them. When their first child was born she was delighted, and spent nearly the whole time in singing songs and ditties which she had learned in her youth, to please the baby. The unmusical sounds annoyed everybody, and especially Fleet, who loved quiet. He remonstrated, coaxed, scolded, and ridiculed, but in vain. He could not suppress the old lady; so he resolved to turn the annoyance to account by gathering up and publishing the songs, ditties, and nonsensical jingles of his mother-in-law, and punishing her by attaching her name to them. In 1719 they were published in "Pudding Lane" (now Devonshire Street), Boston, with the title of *Songs for the Nursery; or, Mother Goose's Melodies for Children*. The latter portion of the title was intended by Fleet to get even with his musical mother-in-law.

Mother of Presidents. This name is given to Virginia, which has furnished six Presidents of the United States—namely, Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Harrison, and Taylor. It is also called "Mother of States," as it was the first settled of the original thirteen states that formed the Union.

Motley, JOHN LOTHROP, LL.D., D.C.L., was born at Dorchester, Mass., April 15, 1814. He graduated at Harvard University in 1831, and afterwards spent a year at the universities of Göttingen and Berlin; travelled in Italy, and, returning, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1836. He wrote two historical novels—*Master's Hope* (1839) and *Merry Mount* (1849). In 1840 he was Secretary to the American Legation in Russia. He became interested in the history of Holland, and embarked for Europe in 1851 to gather materials for his great work, in three volumes, *The History of the Rise of the Dutch Republic*, which was published in London and New York in 1856. In 1861 he published *The United Netherlands*—two volumes—which was completed in 1867 in two additional volumes. This work was followed, in 1874, by *The Life and Death of John of Barneveld, Advocate of Holland, with a View of the Primary Causes of the Thirty Years' War*. On the accession of General Grant to the presidency in 1869, Mr. Motley was appointed minister at the Court of Great Britain. He was recalled late in 1870, when he revisited Holland in pursuit of historical studies. He afterwards went to England, where he died, May 29, 1877.

Mott, GERSHOM, was born in Mercer County, N. J., in 1822, and was an officer in the war with Mexico. He was lieutenant-colonel of a New Jersey volunteer regiment that hastened to the field in 1861, and, as colonel, served with distinction in the campaign on the Peninsula. He was made brigadier-general in September, 1862, and was wounded in the battle of Manassas (which see). At Chancellorsville he commanded a New Jersey brigade in Sickles's division, and was again wounded. He also distinguished himself in the battle of Gettysburg. In the operations before Petersburg in 1864-65 he commanded a division of the Third Corps, and while in pursuit of Lee was again wounded. He was breveted major-general in September, 1864.

Mott, LUCRETIA (Coffin), was born in Nantucket, Jan. 3, 1793. In 1804 her parents, who were Friends, or Quakers, removed to Boston. She was soon afterwards sent to the Nine Partners' Boarding-school, in Dutchess County, N. Y., where her teacher (Deborah Willetts) lived until 1879. Thence she went to Philadelphia, where her parents were residing, and at the age of eighteen years she married James Mott. In 1818 she became a preacher among Friends, and all her long life she labored for the good of her fellow-creatures, especially for those who were in bonds of any kind. She was ever a most earnest advocate of temperance, pleaded for the freedom of the slaves, and was one of the active founders of the "American Anti-slavery Society" in Philadelphia in 1833. She was appointed a delegate to the World's Anti-slavery Convention, held in London in 1840, but was denied a seat in it on account of her sex. She was also a very prominent advocate of the emancipation of her sex from the disabilities to which law and custom subject them. She died in Philadelphia Nov. 21, 1881. Her motto was "Truth for authority, not authority for truth."

Mott, VALENTINE, M.D., LL.D., surgeon, was born at Glen Cove, L. I., Aug. 20, 1785; died in New York, April 26, 1865. He studied medicine and surgery in London and Edinburgh, and on his return in 1809 he was appointed to the chair of Surgery in Columbia College, and subsequently in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York, and the Rutgers Medical College. He was greatly distinguished as an operating surgeon, after some most difficult and dangerous treatment of patients in his early practice. He was the first to tie the primitive iliac artery for aneurism, and was the first surgeon who removed the lower jaw for necrosis. The eminent Sir Astley Cooper said: "Dr. Mott has performed more of the great operations than any man living or that ever did live."

Motte, REBECCA, a heroine of the Revolution, was a daughter of Mr. Brewton, an Englishman. She married Jacob Motte, a South Carolina planter, in 1758, and was the mother of six children. Left a widow of fortune at

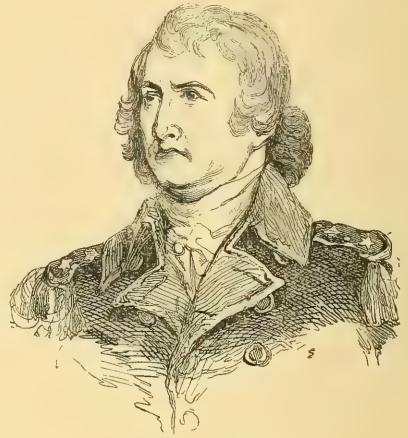


REBECCA MOTTE.

about the beginning of the war for independence, she resided in a fine mansion near the Santee River, from which she was driven by British soldiers. Her patriotic devotion at that time is attested in the article entitled "Fort Motte, Capture of."

Moultrie, WILLIAM, was born in South Carolina in 1731; died in Charleston, S. C., Sept. 27, 1805. He was captain of infantry in the Cherokee War (which see); a member of the Provincial Congress from St. Helena Parish in 1775, and was made colonel of a South Carolina regiment in June of that year. He gained great fame by his defence of Fort Sullivan (see *Charleston, Defence of*), in Charleston Harbor. In September, 1776, he was made a brigadier-general. He was engaged in the local service, and in May, 1779, he, with one thousand militia, opposed the advance of Prevost upon Charleston, which he held until Lincoln relieved him. He was distinguished at the siege of Charleston in 1780,

was made a prisoner, and remained so until 1782, when he was exchanged for Burgoyne. While he was a prisoner he wrote his *Memoirs*, pub-



WILLIAM MOULTRIE.

lished in 1802. In October, that year, he was made major-general, and was governor of South Carolina in 1785-86, and from 1794 to 1796.

Mound-builders, THE. This is a name given to an unknown people who inhabited the central portion of North America at an unknown period in its history. They have left traces of agriculture and skill in arts, and evidences of having attained to a considerable degree of civilization. All over the continent between the great range of hills extending from the northern part of Vermont far towards the Gulf of Mexico and the Rocky Mountains, traces of this mysterious people are found in the remains of earthworks, exceedingly numerous, especially in the region northward of the Ohio River. These consist of, evidently, military works, places of sepulture, places of sacrifice, and mounds in the forms of animals, such as the buffalo, eagle, turtle, serpent, lizard, alligator, etc. It is estimated that more than 10,000 mounds and more than 2000 earth-enclosures are in the State of Ohio alone. One of the most interesting of these earth-enclosures is near Newark, Ohio, in the midst of the primeval forest, and is used as fair grounds by the Licking County Agricultural Society. It is composed of a continuous mound that sweeps in a perfect circle a mile in circumference, broken only by the entrance to it, as seen in the foreground of the engraving on page 935, where the banks, higher than elsewhere, turn outward for fifty feet or more, and form a magnificent gateway. The embankment averages fifteen or twenty feet in height, and is covered with beech, maple, and hickory trees of every size, indicating the origin of the structure to be far more remote than the advent of the Europeans in America. The ditch from which the earth was thrown is within the embankment, extending entirely around it, showing that the work was not a fortification. In the centre of the area (which is perfectly level and covered with forest-trees) is a slight elevation, in the form of a

spread-eagle, covering many yards, which is called the Eagle Mound. The evidently military works sometimes occupy hundreds of acres of land, and consist of circumvallations. On these walls ancient forest-trees are now growing. The sepulchral mounds are sometimes sixty feet in height, and always contain human remains, accompanied by earthen vessels and copper trinkets. Some of the vessels show considerable skill in the art of design. In some of these have been found the charred remains of human bodies, showing that these people sometimes practised cremation. The sacrificial mounds, on which temples probably stood, are truncated pyramids, with graded approaches to the tops, like those found by the Spaniards in Central America and Mexico. The animal mounds usually rise only a few feet above the surface of the surrounding country. Some of these cover a large area, but conjecture is puzzled in endeavoring to determine their uses. The great Serpent Mound, in Adams County, O., is one thousand feet in length; and in Licking County, O., is Alligator Mound, two hundred and fifty feet in length and fifty feet in breadth. The Grave Creek Se-

the enclosed area. The squares and circles in these works are perfect squares and circles, and their immense size implies much engineering skill in their construction. They all show some fixed and general design, for works scores of miles apart seem to indicate a common geometrical rule in their construction. In Ohio, a square and two circles are often found combined, and they usually agree in this, that each of the sides of the squares measures exactly 1080 feet, and the adjacent circles 1700 and 800 feet, respectively. The moats, or ditches, found on the inside of these works indicate that they were not intended as defences, but may have been the enclosures of public parks, or the boundaries of grounds held sacred by a superstitious and religious people. The mounds are divided by expert explorers into altar or sacrificial mounds, sepulchral mounds, temple mounds, mounds of observation, and animal mounds. In the mounds, pottery, bronze, and stone axes, copper bracelets, bronze knives, flint arrow-points, and various other implements, belonging to the arts of both peace and war, are found. Near the shores of Lake Superior are



GREAT EARTH WORK NEAR NEWARK.

pulchral Mound, not far from Wheeling, Va., is seventy feet in height and nine hundred feet in circumference. The great age of these sepulchral mounds is attested, not only by the immense forest-trees that grow upon them, but by the condition of human bones found in them, which do not admit of their removal, as they crumble into dust on exposure to the air. Bones in British tumuli, or mounds, older than the Christian era, are frequently taken out and remain entire. The supposed military works, more than any others, show the forecast of the soldier and the skill of the engineer. Their works of circumvallation also show a degree of mathematical knowledge very remarkable. These are usually upon table-lands, and often extend, in groups, several miles, but are connected with each other. The groups are made up of squares, circles, and other mathematical figures, which range from two hundred and fifty to three hundred feet in diameter to a mile in circuit. Among the groups of circumvallating mounds are sometimes seen traces of avenues of imposing width, passing between embankments several feet in height, and often connected with

evidences of ancient mining for copper, of which the present race of Indians have no traditions. In a filled trench, eighteen feet below the present surface of the ground, was found a mass of copper weighing about eight tons, raised upon a frame of wood five feet high, preparatory to removal. From these mines the ancient people, a thousand miles away, evidently obtained their copper for making their implements and ornaments. In their pottery, and especially in their clay pipe-bowls, may be seen figures of animals and of the heads of men, made with striking fidelity to nature. In the representations of the human head there is observed a noticeable similarity between those of the northern Mound-builders and the sculptured heads found among the ruins in Yucatan. They have the same remarkable recession of the forehead and general facial angle. The Aztecs found in Mexico by Cortez, and the ancient Peruvians, whose empire was ruined by Pizarro, may have been the remains of the mound-building race, who, by some unknown circumstances, had been compelled to abandon their more northern homes and give place to a wild and savage race of invaders. But all is

conjecture. The veil of truth which covers their history may never be penetrated. (See *Indians*.)

Mount Desert Island, ATTACK UPON. In 1613 Samuel Argall, a sort of freebooter from Virginia, visited the coast of Maine, ostensibly for fishing; but his vessel carried several pieces of artillery. Hearing that French Jesuits were on Pemetig'or Mount Desert Island, he went there and attacked a French vessel that lay at anchor, which, after firing one gun, was compelled to surrender. Du Thet, who discharged the gun, was mortally wounded. The other Jes-

non-compliance with their request, they had burned my house and laid the plantation in ruins. You ought to have considered yourself as my representative, and should have reflected on the bad example of communicating with the enemy and making a voluntary offer of refreshments to them with a view to prevent a conflagration. . . . I am fully persuaded that you acted from your best judgment, and believe that your desire to preserve my property and rescue the buildings from impending danger was your governing motive; but to go on board their ves-



MOUNT DESERT ISLAND FROM BLUE HILL BAY.

suits there remonstrated with Argall, when he landed and began to search the tents. He broke open the desk of the Jesuit leader, took out and destroyed his commission, and then, pretending that they were within English jurisdiction, without authority, he turned more than a dozen of the little colony loose upon the ocean in an open boat, to seek Port Royal, in Acadia. Two fishing vessels picked them up and carried them to France. The remainder were carried to Virginia, and there lodged in prison and badly treated. Argall's conduct was approved in Virginia, and he was sent back to destroy all the settlements in Acadia. (See *Acadia* and *Argall, Samuel*.)

Mount Vernon Threatened. In July, 1776, when Governor Dunmore was driven from Gwyn's Island (see *Dunmore's War on the Virginians*), he ascended the Potomac as far as Ocoquan and burned the mills there. The Virginia militia repulsed him. It is supposed his chief destination was Mount Vernon, a few miles above, which he intended to lay waste, and seize Mrs. Washington as a hostage. The British frigates, after they entered Chesapeake Bay, in the spring of 1781, ascended the Potomac and levied contributions upon all the tide-water counties. They menaced Mount Vernon, and, to save the buildings, Washington's manager (Lund Washington) consented to furnish a supply of provisions. In a letter to his manager Washington reproved him for the act. "It would have been a less painful circumstance to me to have heard that, in consequence of your

sels, carry them refreshments, commune with a parcel of scoundrels, and request a favor by asking a surrender of my negroes was exceedingly ill-judged, and, it is to be feared, will be unhappy in its consequences, as it will be a precedent for others and may become a subject of animadversion."

Mower, JOSEPH A., was born in Vermont in 1830; died in New Orleans, Jan. 6, 1870. He was a private in an engineer company in the Mexican War, and entered the United States army as lieutenant in 1855. He was made captain in 1861, and was prominent in the battle of Island No. Ten (which see). He was conspicuous at other places, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in November, 1862. He commanded a brigade in front of Vicksburg in 1863, and was in command of a division under Banks in the Red River expedition (which see) in 1864; also in the Atlanta campaign. He was made major-general of volunteers in August, 1864, and rose to the command of the Twentieth Corps. In July, 1866, he was made colonel in the United States army, and was breveted brigadier and major-general in the same.

Mowing-machines. The invention of the mowing-machine is coeval, in our country, with the reaping-machine. The "Manning Mower" was invented in 1831. That and the "Ketcham" (1844) held the place of superior excellence until about 1850, when other inventors had made improvements. In 1850 less than 5000 mowing-machines had been made in our country. Within a quarter of a century afterwards

a mowing-machine was considered indispensable to every farm. The American machines are the best in the world, and are sold all over Europe and South America. According to the tenth census (1880) there were then annually manufactured in the United States, in round numbers, 73,000 mowing-machines, 36,000 reaping-machines, and fully 55,000 mowers and reapers combined. There were manufactured during the same time, for gathering the hay and cereal crops, 1,245,000 scythes, 96,000 sickles, 309,000 dozen hand-rakes, 96,000 horse-rakes, 207,000 dozen hay-forks, 9000 hay-loaders, 2300 hay-binders, and 26,000 harvesters. Machinery for gathering hay and cereals has vastly increased the productive area and values.

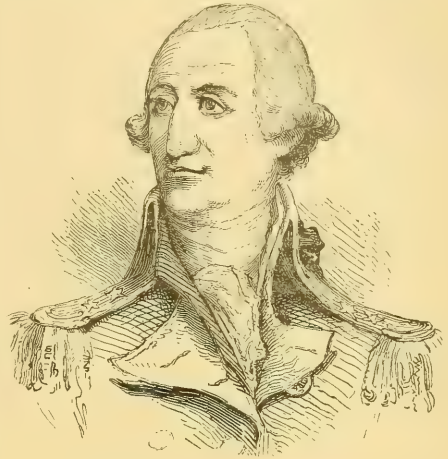
Moylan, STEPHEN, was born in Ireland in 1734; died in Philadelphia, April 11, 1811. He was a brother of the Roman Catholic Bishop of Cork. He was appointed aide-de-camp to Washington in March, 1776, and commissary-general in June. Soon resigning that post, early in 1777 he commanded a regiment of light dragoons, serving in the battle at Germantown, with Wayne in Pennsylvania, and with Greene in the South. In November, 1783, he was breveted brigadier-general. In 1792 he was register and recorder of Chester County, Penn., and was commissioner of loans for the District of Pennsylvania.

Mühlenberg, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, was born at La Trappe, Penn., June 2, 1750; died at Lancaster, Penn., June 4, 1801. He was a Lutheran minister; took an active part in the revolutionary movements, and was a member of the Continental Congress (1779-80). He was an active member of the Pennsylvania Assembly, and its speaker from 1781 to 1784; was a member of the council and treasurer of the state, and president of the convention that ratified the national Constitution. He was Receiver-general of the Land Office, and was speaker of the first and second Congress. In that capacity his casting vote carried Jay's treaty (which see) into effect.

Mühlenberg, HENRY AUGUSTUS, was born at Lancaster, Penn., May 13, 1782; died at Reading, Penn., Aug. 11, 1844. From 1802 until 1828 he was pastor of a Lutheran church at Reading, when, on account of failing health, he left the ministry. He was member of Congress from 1829 to 1838; an unsuccessful candidate of the Democratic party for governor in 1835, and was minister to Austria from 1838 to 1840.

Mühlenberg, HENRY MELCHIOR, D.D., was born at Eimbeck, Hanover, Germany, Sept. 6, 1711; died Oct. 7, 1787. He was the patriarch of the Lutheran Church in America, having come to Philadelphia as a missionary in the fall of 1742. He afterwards lived at La Trappe, Montgomery Co., Penn. He was devoted to the service of building up churches, relieving the destitute, and doing his "Master's business" continually, travelling as far as Georgia. In 1748 he was chiefly instrumental in organizing the first Lutheran Synod in America, that of Pennsylvania.

Mühlenberg, JOHN PETER GABRIEL, was born at La Trappe, Penn., Oct. 1, 1746; died near Schuylkill, Penn., Oct. 1, 1807. He was educated at Halle, Germany. He ran away, and for a year was a private in a regiment of dragoons. His father designed him for the ministry. He was ordained in 1772, and preached at Woodstock, Va., until the war for independence



JOHN PETER GABRIEL MÜHLENBERG.

broke out. One Sunday he told his hearers that there was a time for all things—a time to preach and a time to fight—and that then was the time to fight. Casting off his gown, he appeared in the regimentals of a Virginia colonel, read his commission as such, and ordered drummers to beat up for recruits. Nearly all the able-bodied men of his parish responded, and became soldiers of the Eighth Virginia (German) Regiment. He had been an active patriot in civil life, and was efficient in military service. In February, 1777, he was made brigadier-general, and took charge of the Virginia line, under Washington. He was in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, and was at the capture of Stony Point (which see). He was in chief command in Virginia in 1781, until the arrival of Steuben; and was second in command to Lafayette in resisting the invasion of the state by Cornwallis. At the siege of Yorktown (which see) he commanded a brigade of light infantry, and was made a major-general at the close of the war. Removing to Pennsylvania, he was elected a member of the Council, and, in 1785, vice-president of the state. He was a member of Congress much of the time from 1789 to 1801, and in 1801-2 he was United States Senator. He was Supervisor of the Revenue for the District of Pennsylvania, and, in 1803, Collector of the Port of Philadelphia.

Mulligan, JAMES A., was born at Utica, N. Y., of Irish parents, June 25, 1830; died of wounds at Winchester, Va., July 26, 1864. He graduated at the University of St. Mary of the Lake, Illinois, in 1850, and the next year accompanied John L. Stephens on his expedition

in Central America. He edited a paper in Chicago for a while, and was admitted to the bar in November, 1855. In 1861 he became colonel of an Illinois volunteer regiment; and in September of that year he took command of the Union post at Lexington, Mo., where, after a desperate defence against an attack by General Price, he was compelled to surrender. (See *Lexington, Mo., Siege of.*) He afterwards took command at Camp Douglas, Chicago; and in 1864 he participated in hard-fought battles in the Shenandoah valley.

Mumfordsville (KY.), BATTLE AT. Bragg crossed the Cumberland at Lebanon, and entered Kentucky on Sept. 5, 1862. His advance, 8000 strong, pushed on towards Louisville; and on the 13th two of Buckner's brigades encountered about 2000 Nationals, under Colonel T. J. Wilder, at Mumfordsville, where the railway crosses the Green River. There the Nationals had hastily constructed some earthworks. A demand for a surrender being refused, the Confederates drove in the National pickets early the next morning (Sept. 14). Then a battle began, which lasted about five hours, when a reinforcement reached Wilder, and the assailants were repulsed with heavy loss. Assured of final success, the Confederates remained quiet until the 16th, when a heavy force under General Polk, not less than 25,000 strong, appeared. Wilder had been reinforced, and, with 4000 effective men, sustained a battle nearly a whole day, hoping Buell (then at Bowling Green) would send him promised relief. It did not come; and when, at sunset, another demand for surrender was made, and Wilder counted forty-five cannons trained upon his works, he gave up, and at six o'clock the next morning his troops marched out with the honors of war. Wilder reported his entire loss at thirty-seven killed and wounded. The Confederates admitted a loss of 714 killed and wounded in the encounters of the 14th and 16th.

Municipal Indignation. When the Alabama Ordinance of Secession was passed (June 11, 1861) the Mayor of Mobile called for one thousand laborers to cast up defences for the city, and the Common Council, to show their indignation against New England, changed the names of several of the streets of the city, as follows: "Maine Street" to Palmetto Street, "Massachusetts Street" to Charleston Street, "New Hampshire Street" to Augusta Street, "Rhode Island Street" to Savannah Street, etc.

Munitions of War, SEIZURES OF (1774). A royal proclamation prohibiting the exportation of munitions of war to America, and the seizure of powder at Charlestown by General Gage, caused much indignation in the colonies. There was an evident determination virtually to disarm them and leave them at the mercy of British soldiers. The people determined to seize what they might. In the absence of ships-of-war usually stationed in Narraganset Bay, they seized (Dec. 6, 1774) forty-four pieces of cannon in battery at Newport and conveyed them to Providence; and when the British naval commander

demanding of Governor Wanton an explanation of the act, he bluntly avowed that it was to prevent the ordnance falling into the hands of the British officers, and that they were to be used for the defence of the rights of the people. This was soon followed at Portsmouth, N. H., where a party of citizens, led by John Sullivan (afterwards a general in the Continental army) and John Langdon, one of the principal merchants of that town, seized (Dec. 13) the fort there and carried off one hundred barrels of gunpowder, some cannons, and small-arms. Similar belligerent demonstrations were made in New York, Philadelphia, and cities farther south. The Connecticut Assembly gave orders to the towns to lay in a double supply of ammunition, and directed cannons to be mounted at New London.

Munson, ÆNEAS, M.D., was born at New Haven, June 24, 1734; died there, June 16, 1828. He was an army chaplain in 1755, and began the practice of medicine at Bedford, N. Y., in 1756. In 1760 he removed to New Haven, where he practised his profession more than fifty years. He was a legislator, and was a professor in the Medical School of Yale College from its organization.—His son Æneas, who graduated at Yale College in 1780, was assistant-surgeon under Dr. Thacher in the Continental army from 1780 to



ÆNEAS MUNSON, JR.

1783. He afterwards became a merchant in New Haven, and died there, Aug. 22, 1852, aged eighty-nine years.

Murfreesborough (or Stone River), BATTLE OF. As the year 1862 was drawing to a close, General Grant had concentrated the bulk of his army at Holly Springs, Miss., where he was confronted by Van Dorn; and at about the same time General Rosecrans, with a greater part of the Army of the Cumberland, was moving southward to attack Bragg below Nashville. Rosecrans was assisted by Generals Thomas, McCook, Crittenden, Rousseau, Palmer, Sheridan, J. C. Davis, Wood, Van Cleve, Hazen, Negley, Matthews, and others; and Bragg had as his lieutenants Generals Polk, Breckinridge, Hardee, Kirby Smith, Cheatham, Withers, Cle-

burne, and Wharton. On Dec. 30 the two armies lay within cannon-shot of each other on opposite sides of Stone River, near Murfreesborough, along a line about three miles in length. Bragg's superior cavalry force gave him great advantage. On the night of the 30th both armies prepared for battle. Rosecrans had Crittenden on the left, resting on Stone River, Thomas in the centre, and McCook on the right. The troops breakfasted just at dawn, and before sunrise Van Cleve—who was to be supported by Wood—crossed the river to make an attack; but Bragg had massed troops, under Hardee, on his left in the dim morning twilight, and four brigades under Cleburne charged furiously upon McCook's extreme right before Van Cleve had moved. The divisions of Cheatham and McCown struck near the centre, and at both points National skirmishers were driven back upon their lines. Towards these lines the Confederates pressed in the face of a terrible tempest of missiles—losing heavily, but never faltering—and fell with crushing force on the brigades of Willich and Kirk, pressing them back in confusion and capturing two batteries. With equal vigor the Confederates fell upon McCook's left, composed of the divisions of Sheridan and Davis, striking them in the flank. After a very severe struggle these divisions gave way, and fell back in good order to the Nashville pike, losing a battery. Every brigade commander in Sheridan's division had been killed or wounded. It was now eleven o'clock. The National right wing, comprising full one third of Rosecrans's army, was now broken up; and Bragg's cavalry were in his rear, destroying his trains and picking up his stragglers. Rosecrans, when he heard of the severe pressure on the right, had given orders to Thomas to give aid to Sheridan. Rousseau went with two brigades and a battery to Sheridan's right and rear, but it was too late. Crittenden was ordered to suspend Van Cleve's operations against Breckinridge. It seemed as if the Nationals had lost the day. But there were good leaders and brave fighters left. Thomas, with the centre, while Confederate batteries were playing fearfully upon him, fought the victors over Sheridan and Davis. Negley's division was in the thickest of the battle. His ammunition began to fail, his artillery horses became disabled, and a heavy Confederate column crowded in between him and the right wing. These circumstances caused Thomas to recoil, when Rousseau led his reserves to the front and sent a battalion of regulars under Major Ring to assist Negley. These made a successful charge, and checked the Confederates, but with heavy loss. The brunt of the battle had now fallen upon Thomas, who, compelled to change his position, took a more advantageous one, where he stood firmly against overwhelming odds. This firmness enabled Rosecrans to readjust the line of battle to the state of affairs. But the dreadful struggle was not over. Palmer had repulsed an assault in his rear, but was attacked with great fury on his front and right flank, which was exposed by Negley's retirement while the new line was being formed.

Cruft's brigade was forced back, when the Confederates fell upon another, under acting Brigadier-general Hazen, of the Forty-first Ohio Volunteers, who was posted in a cotton-field. This little brigade, only 1300 strong, stood firmly in the way of the Confederates, who made desperate but unsuccessful attempts to demolish it. They stayed the tide of victory for the Confederates, which had been flowing steadily forward for hours. Gallantly men fought on both sides, and did not cease until night closed upon the scene. Rosecrans had lost heavily in men and guns, yet he was not disheartened. At a council of officers it was resolved to continue the struggle. Bragg felt confident of final victory, and sent a jubilant despatch to Richmond. He expected Rosecrans would attempt to fly towards Nashville during the night, and was astonished to find the National army before him, in battle order, in the morning. But he attempted very little that day. On Friday (Jan. 2, 1863) Rosecrans found he had his army well in hand and in an advantageous position. Bragg had stealthily planted four heavy batteries during the night that would sweep the National lines, and these he opened suddenly in the morning; but they were soon silenced by the guns of Walker and Sheridan, and there was a lull in the storm of battle until the afternoon. Adhering to his original plan of turning Bragg's right and taking possession of Murfreesborough, Rosecrans strengthened Van Cleve's division by one of Palmer's brigades. Suddenly a heavy force of Confederates emerged from a wood and fell upon Van Cleve. It was Breckinridge's entire corps, with ten 12-pound cannons and 2000 cavalry. At the same time Van Cleve received a galling enfilading fire from Polk's artillery, near. The Nationals gave way, and were speedily driven in confusion across the river, pursued to the stream by the entire right wing of Bragg's army in three heavy battle lines. Now Crittenden's artillery, massed along the ground on the opposite side of the river, enfiladed the elated pursuers with fifty-eight heavy guns, while the left of the Nationals prepared for action. These guns cut fearful lanes through the Confederate ranks. At the same time the troops of Davis and Negley pushed forward to retrieve the disaster. A fierce struggle ensued, and both sides felt that it must be decisive. Both sides had massed their artillery, and for a while it seemed as if mutual annihilation would be the result. Finally Generals Stanley and Miller charged simultaneously and drove the Confederates rapidly before them. This charge decided the question of victory. In twenty minutes the Confederates had lost 2000 men. At sunset their entire line had fallen back, leaving 400 men captives. Darkness was coming on, and the Nationals did not pursue. It rained heavily the next day, and preparations were made for another attack; but at midnight (Jan. 4, 1863) Bragg and his army retreated in the direction of Chattanooga. He had telegraphed to Richmond, Jan. 1, "God has granted us a happy New Year." The Nationals in the fight numbered 43,400; the Confederates, 62,720

The Nationals lost 12,000 men, of whom 1538 were killed. Bragg reported his loss at 10,000. It was estimated by Rosecrans to be much greater than his own. On the spot where Hazen's thin brigade so gallantly held the Confederates at bay, a lasting memorial of the event has been erected in the form of a substantial stone monument in the centre of a lot surrounded by a heavy wall of limestone.

Murray, ALEXANDER, was born at Chestertown, Md., in 1755; died near Philadelphia, Oct. 6, 1821. At the age of eighteen he commanded a vessel engaged in the European trade, and at twenty-one was appointed lieutenant in the Continental navy; but before entering upon his duties as such he served under Colonel Smallwood in the land service. He did good public service as a privateer during the Revolution, and also in the regular naval service. During the war he was in thirteen battles in the army and navy. After being captured and exchanged, he volunteered his services as a lieutenant on board the *Trumbull*, which, on leaving the Delaware, was attacked and taken by two British vessels of war, after a fierce engagement during a terrible storm on a dark night. In this battle Murray behaved gallantly, and was severely wounded. After his recovery he was made first-lieutenant of the frigate *Alliance*. On the organization of the national navy in 1798 he was commissioned a captain, and was in command of the frigate *Constellation* at one time. At his death he was in command of the navy-yard at Philadelphia, and was then the senior officer in the navy.

Murray, ALEXANDER, was born in Pennsylvania, Jan. 2, 1818. He entered the navy as a midshipman in 1835, and was made commander in 1862. He served on the Mexican coast during the war against that country, and was afterwards engaged in the coast survey. He was in the battle at Roanoke Island (which see), and also of Newbern, in February, 1862. His chief theatre of operations in the Civil War was on the coast of North Carolina. He was made captain in 1866, and commodore in 1871.

Murray, JAMES, fifth son of Lord Elibank, entered the British army in 1751, and served with Wolfe in Europe and America, being brigadier-general in the expedition against Louisbourg in 1758. Junior brigadier-general at the capture of Quebec (of which city he was made military governor), he held it against great odds when assailed by De Levi. He was made major-general in 1762, and the next year was again Governor of Quebec. He was Governor of Minorca in 1774.

Murray, LINDLEY, grammarian, was born at Swatara, near Lancaster, Penn., in 1745; died near York, England, Feb. 16, 1826. He was a member of the Society of Friends. His father was a successful merchant in New York, to which place he had removed in 1753. Lindley became a lawyer. During the Revolution he acquired such a handsome property by mercantile pursuits that he was able to retire from business, and in 1784 went to England for his health,

where he purchased a small estate near York. In 1787 he published a tract entitled *The Power of Religion on the Mind*, which passed through



LINDLEY MURRAY.

many editions. But he is chiefly known as author of an English grammar (1795), an English reader, and an English spelling-book.

Murray, MARY, AND THE BRITISH. The country-seat of Robert Murray, a wealthy merchant of New York, was on the Ingleberg, now known as Murray Hill, in the city. She was a warm Whig, and favored the American cause, though a friend, or Quaker. As the British army, after landing at Kip's Bay, on the East River (Sept. 15, 1776), was marching across the island towards the Hudson, and would intercept the retreating Americans, on approaching Mrs. Murray's she invited Howe and his officers to luncheon. The invitation was accepted; the army was halted, the excellence of the repast, heightened by fine old Madeira wine, and the charms of the hostess made the officers tarry long enough to allow Putnam, with the American rear-guard, to escape to Harlem Heights.

Murray, WILLIAM VANS, was born in Maryland in 1762; died at Cambridge, in the same state, Dec. 11, 1803. After the peace in 1783 he studied law in the Temple, London, and returned about 1785, practised law, served in his State Legislature, and was in Congress from 1791 to 1797. He was an eloquent speaker and a keen diplomatist; was appointed by Washington minister to the Batavian republic, and by Adams sole envoy extraordinary to the French republic. Ellsworth and Davie afterwards joined him. He was instrumental in the arrangement of the convention signed at Paris in September, 1800 (see *Treaties*), between America and France, and then returned to his mission at the Hague. Mr. Murray returned to America late in 1801.

Musgrave, SIR THOMAS, was born in 1738; died Dec. 31, 1812. He was captain in the British army in 1759, came to America with General Howe in 1776, and in the battle of Germantown (which see) saved the day for his king by throwing himself, with five companies, into Chew's strong stone house, and holding the American forces at bay until the repulsed British columns could rally.

Musgrove, MARY, Oglethorpe's interpreter, was a half-breed Creek, and wife of John Musgrove, a South Carolina trader. She lived in a hut at Yamacraw, poor and ragged. Finding she could speak English, Oglethorpe employed her as interpreter, with a salary of \$500 a year. Her husband died, and she married a man named Mathews. He, too, died, and about 1749 she became the wife of Thomas Bosomworth, chaplain of Oglethorpe's regiment, a designing knave, who gave the colony much trouble. He had become heavily indebted to Carolinians for cattle, and, to acquire fortune and power, he persuaded Mary to assert that she had descended in a maternal line from an Indian king, and to claim a right to the whole Creek territory. She accordingly proclaimed herself empress of the Creeks, disavowed all allegiance to the English, summoned a general convocation of the Creek chiefs, and recounted the wrongs she had suffered at the hands of the English. Inflamed by her harangue, dictated by Bosomworth, the Indians pledged themselves to defend her royal person and lands. The English were ordered to leave; and, at the head of a large body of warriors, Mary marched towards Savannah. The white inhabitants, led by President Stephens, armed and prepared to meet them. The Indians were not permitted to enter the town with arms. Then Bosomworth, in full canonicals, with his "queen" by his side, marched in, followed by sachems and chiefs, greatly terrifying the people by their formidable appearance. The prudent Stephens, ordering Bosomworth to withdraw, told the assembled Indians who Mary was, what kind of a character her husband was, and how they had been deceived. They saw the matter clearly, smoked the pipe of peace with the English, and returned to their homes. After giving more trouble, Mary and her husband were put into close confinement; but finally, confessing their errors and craving pardon, they were allowed to depart from Savannah.

Musgrove's Mill, AFFAIR AT. The patriots of South Carolina were not conquered, only made to pause, by the cruelty of Cornwallis. Among those who took protection as a necessary expedient was Colonel James Williams, who commanded the post at Ninety-six. (See *Ninety-six*.) He lost no time in gathering the patriots in that region, and on Aug. 18, 1780, fell upon a body of five hundred British troops—regulars and loyalist militia—who had established a post at Musgrove's Mill, on the Ennoree River. He routed them, killed sixty, and wounded a great number, with a loss to himself of eleven men.

Mutilation of the British Standard. Late in 1634, while Dudley was governor of Massachusetts, John Endicott, incited by Roger Williams, caused the red cross of St. George to be cut out of the military standard of England used at Salem, because he regarded it as a "relic of Anti-Christ," it having been given by the pope to a former king of England as an ensign of victory. He had so worked upon the minds of many citizens of Salem that they refused to follow the standard with the cross upon it. At

about that time the British government, jealous of the independent spirit manifested in Massachusetts, watched its development with great vigilance, and the enemies of the colony pointed to this mutilation of the standard as evidence of disloyalty to the crown. It was simply loyalty to bigotry. The whole aspect of the act was theological, not political; but the royalists chose to interpret it otherwise, and it was one of the reasons for tyrannical action towards the colony when orders were issued to the authorities of Massachusetts to produce their charter before the Privy Council in England. At a Court of Assistants at Boston complaint was made of the mutilation of the standard, for trouble with the home government was anticipated. The ensign-bearer was summoned before the court. Afterwards the assistants met at the governor's house to advise about the defacing, and it was agreed to write to England about the matter. Endicott was, after three months' longer deliberation, called to answer for the act. The court could not agree whether all the ensigns should be laid aside, as many would not follow them with the cross visible. The Commissioners of Military Affairs ordered all the ensigns to be put away. Nothing more was done in the matter then. Two years later there was more trouble about the colors. Henry Vane, "son and heir to a privy-councillor," was elected governor of Massachusetts (1636), and fifteen ships in the harbor having arrived with passengers, the seamen commemorated his election by a volley of great guns. But, the ensigns being "laid away," the fort in Boston could not acknowledge the compliment by displaying colors. The English sailors accused the colonists of treason, and the ship-masters requested the governor to spread the king's colors at the fort, because the question of their loyalty might be raised in England. The magistrates were all persuaded that the cross in the colors was idolatrous, and the governor dissimulated by pretending that he had no colors. The ship-masters offered to lend him theirs, and this was accepted as a compromise with the consciences of the authorities, they arguing that, as the fort was the king's, the colors might be displayed there at his peril.

Mutineers and the Congress (1781). Soldiers furloughed after the proclamation of peace were to receive three months' pay. There was some delay in preparing the treasury-notes to be used for this purpose. A body of Pennsylvania troops, about three hundred in number, lately arrived from Greene's army, had already given signs of insubordination by sending an insulting letter to Congress. A part of that corps, stationed at Lancaster, marched for Philadelphia, at the instigation of two of their leaders, though they left all their officers behind. Having reached Philadelphia, the mutineers were presently joined by the troops in the barracks there; and, under the command of seven sergeants, without their muskets, but wearing side-arms, they beset for three hours the doors of the State-house, in which Congress and the Pennsylvania Council were assembled. It had been suggested that

the city militia should be called out to oppose the mutineers, but it was quite certain that they would be disinclined to interfere. Such proved to be the case. General St. Clair, then in command in Philadelphia, tried to pacify the mutineers by allowing them to choose a committee to state their grievances. Congress, perceiving that the Pennsylvania Council were indisposed to do anything against the mutineers, or save the national Legislature from insult, notified Washington of the revolt. The latter sent one thousand five hundred men to Philadelphia, and the mutiny was speedily suppressed. Several of the offenders were tried by court-martial and sentenced to death, but were subsequently pardoned. The Congress, disgusted with the Pennsylvanians, civil and military, adjourned to Princeton, where they were received with great respect, and accommodated in Nassau Hall, of the College of New Jersey.

Mutiny Act. Until 1717 mutiny and desertion in the British army had been adjudicated and punished by the civil authority. In that year an act was passed giving power to military courts to punish these offences with death. The act was extended so as to compel inhabitants to quarter troops where necessity called for it. The English-American colonists denied (1757) that the act extended to them, and in 1769 it was re-enacted, with a provision that troops in the colonies should be quartered and provided for at the expense of the colonists. (See *Standing Army*.)

Mutiny Act, RESISTANCE TO (1757). Some British recruiting officers in Boston demanded to be quartered on the town. The magistrates refused compliance. The officers insisted on the enforcement of the Mutiny Act. The magistrates declared that the act did not extend to the colonies. (See *Mutiny Act*.) Lord Loudoun warmly espoused the cause of his officers, and sent word to the authorities in Boston that in "time of war the rules and customs of war must prevail." He ordered the messenger to wait for an answer forty-eight hours, and threatened to send three regiments, and more if needed, to enforce the act. The General Court so far yielded that it passed a law of its own enacting

some provisions of the Mutiny Act for billeting troops. This partial compliance was accepted with reluctance, and trouble was avoided. It was the only victory Loudoun gained in America. While his message was on its way to Boston another was on its way across the Atlantic from Pitt recalling him.

My Country. This was a phrase which the American colonists applied to their respective provinces, and so it was applied by many long after the Declaration of Independence had vastly expanded the idea involved in the expression. It took some time for the advice of enlightened patriots like Christopher Gadsden, of South Carolina, to cause the people to think and speak of themselves not as Americans, but as "South Carolinians," "Virginians," etc. This phrase was kept alive by many Southerners who adhered to the doctrine of state supremacy, and it was intensified during the late Civil War.

Myer, ALBERT J., was born at Newburgh, N. Y., Sept. 20, 1828. He graduated at Geneva College in 1847, became a physician, and in 1854 was appointed assistant-surgeon in the United States army. From 1858 to 1860 he was on special duty in the Signal Service, and in the latter year he was appointed chief signal-officer with the rank of major. In June, 1861, he was made chief signal-officer on General Butler's staff, and afterwards on that of General McClellan, and was very active during the whole Peninsular campaign. Major Myer took charge of the Signal Bureau at Washington in November, 1862, and for service at various points, and especially in giving timely signals that saved the fort and garrison at Allatoona, Ga., he was breveted through all the grades from lieutenant-colonel to brigadier-general. In 1866 he was made colonel and signal officer of the United States army, and introduced a course of signal studies at West Point and Annapolis. He was the author of the weather signal system, and the chief of that department of the public service (see *Weather Signals*); and he had full control of the whole matter. In 1873 he was a delegate to the International Meteorological Congress at Vienna. He published a *Manual of Signals for the United States Army*. Died Aug. 24, 1880.

N.

Naglee, HENRY MORRIS, was born in Philadelphia, Jan. 15, 1815, and graduated at West Point in 1835. He served in the war against Mexico, and afterwards engaged in commercial pursuits in San Francisco. He was an active officer in the Army of the Potomac through the campaign of 1862, and rose to the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers. He afterwards commanded a division in the Department of North Carolina, and in the Department of the South in 1863. In July and August of that year he commanded the Seventh Army Corps. He was mustered out in April, 1864, and became afterwards a banker in San Francisco. He died in 1886.

Nail-making. Machines for making nails are

of comparatively recent invention. Ezekiel Reed, of Bridgewater, Mass., invented a machine for cutting tacks and nails in 1786, which, being improved afterwards, made 150,000,000 tacks in 1815. His son invented a machine in 1807 for making and heading tacks at one operation that turned out 60,000 a day. Samuel Briggs, of Philadelphia, patented a machine for making nails, screws, and gimlets in 1791, the first patent issued in the United States for a nail-making machine. The first patent for a cutting and heading machine combined was granted to Isaac Garrettsan, of Pennsylvania, in 1796. Machines were afterwards invented each of which cuts and heads 15,000 nails or tacks in an hour.

Nanticokes. An Algonquin tribe, who once inhabited the peninsula between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays. They were early made vassals to the Five Nations and their allies by compulsion. In 1710 they left their ancient domain, and occupied lands upon the Susquehanna in Pennsylvania until the war of the Revolution, when they crossed the Alleghany Mountains and joined the British in the west. They are now scattered among many tribes, and have no tribal existence.

Naples, SETTLEMENT OF UNITED STATES CLAIMS UPON. Claims had been made upon the Neapolitan government by citizens of the United States for indemnity for losses occasioned by depredations upon American commerce by Murat, King of Naples, from 1809 to 1812. The restored Bourbons had refused to comply, on the ground that they were not responsible for the acts of one who was a usurper of their power, and from whom they had suffered more than had the Americans. Finally, a convention was negotiated at Naples, in October, 1832, by John Nelson, chargé d'affaires on the part of the United States, and the Neapolitan Secretary of State, Prince Cassaro, by which it was stipulated that the sum of \$1,720,000 should be paid to the United States. These claims had been considered hopeless, but the negotiation was undoubtedly expedited by the appearance at that time of a considerable force of the United States Navy in the Bay of Naples.

Napoleon Bonaparte, FIRST DOWNFALL OF (1814). The allied powers of Europe pushed Napoleon back to France, and hemmed him and his army almost within the walls of Paris. On March 31 the Emperor of Russia and the Duke of Wellington entered the city as conquerors, and on May 11 the Emperor Napoleon abdicated the throne of France and retired to the island of Elba. His downfall was hailed with joy, not only in Europe, but by the great Federal party in the United States, who considered his ruin as the most damaging blow that could be given to their political opponents and the war party. Pulpits, presses, public meetings, and social gatherings were used as proclaimers of their satisfaction, notwithstanding it was evident that the release thereby of a large British army from service on the Continent would enable the common enemy to send an overwhelming force across the Atlantic that might crush the American armies and possibly reduce the states to British provinces. They hoped the threatened peril would induce the administration to seek peace as speedily as possible. The downfall of Napoleon did release British troops from Continental service, and several thousands of them were sent to Canada to reinforce the little British army there. Many of them were Wellington's veterans, hardy and skilful. They arrived at Quebec late in July, and in August were sent up the St. Lawrence to Montreal.

Napoleon I. Bonaparte, First Consul of France, had coveted the imperial diadem from the time when he broke up the government of the Directory. In the spring of 1804, he pro-

cured his election (May 18) to a seat on an imperial throne, and on the 2d of December following he appeared before the high-altar of the Church of Notre Dame, in Paris, where he was created "The High and Mighty Napoleon the First, Emperor of the French." In 1806 he was made monarch of Italy. This political change in France from a republic to an empire had much influence upon American affairs.

Napoleon III. and the United States. The Emperor of the French, who had by force of arms established monarchy in the neighboring republic of Mexico, with the ulterior design of assisting the Confederates in breaking up the American Union and establishing the domination of the Italian hierarchy on its borders, notified by the Secretary of State (Mr. Seward) that the continuation of French troops in Mexico was not agreeable to the United States, prudently gave assurance (April 5, 1866) that they should be withdrawn within a specified time, and they were withdrawn.

Napoleon's Downfall, EFFECT OF, IN AMERICA. When news of the abdication of Napoleon, his retirement to Elba, and the restoration of the Bourbons reached the United States, the effect upon the two great political parties was very dissimilar. The administration or war party were alarmed, for they saw in his fall the removal of a check upon the insolence of Great Britain, and a chance for a release of British soldiers from service on the Continent, which might (as they were soon afterwards) be sent over to fight the Americans. The Federalists, or opposition party, hailed the event with joy and exultation as the harbinger of peace, and a promise of a revival of commerce. The event was celebrated at Boston by a religious ceremony, including a sermon by Dr. Channing. There was a public celebration, and an oration by Gouverneur Morris, in New York, and demonstrations of delight were shown in many other places. The administration now became more anxious than ever for peace, and steps were soon taken to accomplish that end.

Narraganset, FORT, DESTRUCTION OF. The Narragansets engaged in King Philip's War had a strong fort in a swamp in South Kingston, R. I. It was erected on a spot of dry ground of about six acres, and defended with palisades and an abatis. Against this fort marched about a thousand New-Englanders at the middle of December, 1675. With these troops were about one hundred and fifty Mohegan Indians, and Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, was the commander-in-chief. They marched through deep snow, and at four o'clock in the afternoon (Dec. 16) they attacked the fort. There was but one entrance, which had to be reached in the face of a fire from a block-house. The Massachusetts men, who first attacked, were repulsed, and several of the captains were killed. Captain Church gained the rear and an entrance, when he was wounded by three bullets. There was then a desperate hand-to-hand fight, and the Indians were driven out into the open country. The six hundred wigwams were set on fire, and the winter

store of corn was destroyed. About seven hundred of the Indians were killed, including several chiefs, and of a large number wounded about three hundred died. Many old men, women, and children perished, some of them in the flames. In this encounter Connecticut alone lost eighty men. Captains Johuson, Davenport, and Gardiner, of Massachusetts, and Gallop, Seely, and Marshall, of Connecticut, were slain. (See *King Philip's War*.)

Narraganset Indians, TREATY WITH. The Narragansets having violated the terms of a treaty made in 1644, the New England Congress, under the provisions of the union or Confederation (which see), sent messengers to the offending Indians requiring their appearance at Boston. At first they treated the messengers kindly, but finally declared that they would not have peace until they received the head of Uncas. (See *Miantonomoh* and *Uncas*.) Roger Williams warned the Congress that the Narragansets would suddenly break out against the English, whereupon that body drew up a declaration justifying them in making war on the recusant Indians. They determined to raise three hundred men at once. The news of this preparation alarmed the Indians, and they sued for peace. As their own breach of covenant had caused the expense of making preparations for war, they were required to pay in instalments two thousand fathoms of wampum; to restore to Uncas all the captives and canoes they had taken from him, and make satisfaction for destroying his corn; to submit all matters of controversy between Uncas and them to the Congress; keep perpetual peace with the English, and give hostages for the performance of the treaty. It was signed on Aug. 30, 1645.

Narragansets. This Algonquin family of the New England Indians (which see) occupied the territory now comprised in the State of Rhode Island. Industrious and hardy, they were numerous, and had twelve towns within a distance of twenty miles. Their chief, Canonicus, sent a bundle of arrows tied with a snake-skin to Governor Bradford, of Plymouth, indicating his hostility. Bradford returned the skin filled with gunpowder. Canonicus was alarmed, and remained peaceable, especially after banished Roger Williams won their good-will by his kindness. They accompanied Massachusetts troops against the Pequods in 1637, and in 1644 they ceded their lands to the British king. Suspected of an alliance with King Philip (see *King Philip's War*), a force of one thousand white men, with some Mohicans and Pequods, captured and burned their fortress. Their chief stronghold on an island in a swamp near Kingston, R. I., was taken, and one thousand Indian men, women, and children perished. The Narragansets were almost exterminated in that war. The remnant settled at Charlestown, R. I., and were prosperous for a while, but the tribe is now extinct.

Narragansets, TREATY OF PEACE WITH. When it was evident that there would be war with the Pequods, it was deemed important to prevent the Narragansets, who could then mus-

ter five thousand fighting-men, from joining them. The Massachusetts authorities sent an embassy to Canonicus, then chief sachem, who, being old, had resigned the government to his nephew, Miantonomoh. This young chief, with two of the sons of Canonicus and twenty men, went to Boston, and there made a treaty which secured mutual action and consent concerning conduct towards the Pequods, and also friendship, good-will, and free-trade between the contracting parties. It is said that young Prince Miantonomoh was of great stature, stern and cruel, and that his nobility and attendants trembled at his speech. (See *Pequod War*.)

Narvaez, PAMFILO DE, a Spanish explorer, was born at Valladolid, Spain, about 1480. He went to Santo Domingo in 1501, and thence to Cuba, where he was the chief lieutenant of Velasquez, the governor. Cortez carrying matters with a high hand in Mexico, Narvaez was sent by Velasquez to Cuba to supersede him, but was defeated, lost an eye, and was held a prisoner by Cortez. On his release Narvaez returned to Spain, and in June, 1527, he sailed from San Lucar, by authority of the king, with six hundred men in five vessels, commanded to conquer Florida and govern it. After long detention at Santo Domingo and Cuba, he sailed for Florida with four hundred men and eighty horses, accompanied by Cabeça de Vaca as treasurer of the expedition, who was to be deputy-governor. They landed at Tampa Bay on the 13th of April, 1528, where Narvaez raised the standard of Spain and took possession of the country in the name of its king, and his officers took the oath of allegiance to him as governor. Instead of treating the native inhabitants kindly, and winning their friendship and an easy conquest, Narvaez followed the cruel example of his countrymen in Santo Domingo and Cuba. He marched into the interior with high hopes, directing his vessels to sail along the coasts. He pressed forward in daily expectation of finding some city sparkling with wealth. All before him were creations of imagination, all behind him were gloomy disappointments. Treachery met his cruelty at every step. Compelled to fight foes and failing to find gold, Narvaez turned towards the sea—the Gulf of Mexico—and at the mouth of the Appalachicola, failing to find his ships, he caused frail boats to be built, embarked with his followers, and coasted towards the mouth of the Mississippi. One by one his followers died from starvation, and finally a "norther" struck and dispersed the flotilla. Narvaez was never heard of afterwards. The boat that carried De Vaca stranded on an island, where they were kindly treated by the natives. De Vaca was the only Spaniard of the expedition who returned to Spain.

Nash, FRANCIS, a native of North Carolina, was clerk of the Supreme Court of that province, and was a captain, under the crown, on service under Governor Tryon against the Regulators. (See *Regulators*.) He was a member of the Provincial Congress of North Carolina in 1775, and was appointed by that body a lieu-

tenant-colonel. In February, 1777, he was promoted to brigadier-general in the Continental army. Joining Washington before the battle at the Brandywine (Sept. 11, 1777), he participated in that action, and also at Germantown (Oct. 4), where he was mortally wounded.

Nashville, BATTLE OF. General A. J. Smith had arrived at Nashville when Schofield reached there (see *Franklin, Battle of*), and Thomas's forces there were put in battle array on Dec. 1, 1864. They were on an irregular semicircular line on the hills around the city, on the southern side of the Cumberland River. General Smith's troops were on the right; the Fourth Corps, under General T. J. Wood (in the absence of the wounded Stanley), was in the centre; and the Twenty-third Corps, under J. M. Schofield, was on the left. About 5000 troops, outside of these corps—white and colored—were posted on the left of Schofield. To these were added the troops comprising the garrison at Nashville and Wilson's cavalry at Edgefield, on the north side of the Cumberland. The troops of Thomas were better and more numerous than those of Hood, but, on account of the absence of cavalry and a deficiency of transportation, he withheld an attack upon Hood, who was in front of him for about a fortnight. The latter had formed his line of investment on the 4th, with his salient within six hundred yards of Wood, at Thomas's centre. For a few days there was some skirmishing, and then for a week the cold was so intense that very little was done. Thomas made a general advance, on the morning of the 15th, from his right, while Steedman made a vigorous movement of his left to distract Hood. The country was covered with a dense fog, which did not rise until near noon. A. J. Smith pressed forward, while Wilson's cavalry made a wide circuit to gain Hood's rear. Other troops were busy on the right, striking vigorous blows here and there; but finally, at one o'clock in the afternoon, General Wood, commanding the centre, having moved forward parallel with Smith's troops, directed a brigade led by Colonel S. P. Post to charge Hood's works on Montgomery Hill. This was done, and some Confederates were made prisoners. Then Schofield, in reserve, moved rapidly to the right of Smith, by which the National cavalry was allowed to operate more freely on the Confederate rear. Then the whole line moved forward. Wood carried the entire body of Confederate works on his front, captured several guns, and took 500 prisoners; while Smith and Schofield and the dismounted cavalry pressed back the left flank of the Confederates several miles to the foot of the Harpeth Hills. Steedman, meanwhile, had gained some advantage on Thomas's extreme left. But darkness closed the contest, which resulted in the capture by the Nationals of 1200 prisoners, 16 guns, 40 wagons, and many small-arms. Thomas now readjusted his lines. On the morning of the 16th Wood advanced, forced back Hood's skirmishers on the Franklin pike, and, pushing on southward, was confronted by Hood's new line of defences on Overton's Hill, five miles from the city. Steedman now

secured Wood's flank by taking post on his left, and Smith came in on Wood's right, while Schofield threatened the Confederate left. Wilson's cavalry, dismounted, formed on his right. The movement on Hood's left, so successful the day before, was now continued. The whole National line moved to within six hundred yards of that of the Confederates. Wilson's cavalry was soon upon their left flank, and at three o'clock in the afternoon two of Wood's brigades assailed the Confederates on Overton's Hill, in front, and Thompson's negro brigade assailed them further to the National left. These attacks were repulsed with fearful loss to the assailants. The troops were rallied, and Smith and Schofield, charging with great impetuosity upon the Confederate works on their respective fronts, carried all before them. Wilson's dismounted men charged farther to the right and blocked a way of retreat. This successful movement was announced by shouts of victory, which Wood and Steedman heard, and again charged the Confederate works on their front which were taken and secured. The Confederates fled in such haste that they left behind them their dead, wounded, prisoners, and guns. It was a complete rout. During the two days, Thomas had captured from Hood 4462 prisoners, 53 guns, and many small-arms. He had broken the spirit of Hood's army beyond hope of recovery. The Confederates fled towards Alabama, pursued for several days, while rain was falling copiously. The streams were swollen, and, as the fugitives destroyed the bridges behind them, and the Nationals had no pontoons, the chase was unsuccessful. Then the weather became extremely cold. At Columbia, on the Duck River, Forrest joined the retreating host, and with his cavalry and 4000 infantry he covered the shattered Confederate army. This rear-guard struck back occasionally. The pursuit was suspended at Lexington, Ala., on the 28th. Thomas estimated his entire loss in his campaign, from Sept. 7, 1864, to Jan. 20, 1865, at 10,000 men, or less than half the loss of Hood. During that time he had captured 11,857 men, besides 1332 who had been exchanged, making a total of about 13,000. He had also captured 72 serviceable guns and over 3000 small-arms.

Nashville, SURRENDER OF. General Pillow had telegraphed to Nashville while the siege of Fort Donelson (which see) was going on, "Enemy retreating! Glorious result! Our boys following and peppering their rear! A complete victory!" This despatch made the people of Nashville happy, and they were comfortably seated in their churches on Sunday, Feb. 16, 1862, when the news reached them of the surrender of Fort Donelson to the Nationals and the cowardly conduct of Floyd and Pillow. There was panic everywhere. General A. S. Johnston, at Bowling Green, ordered the troops there to fly to Nashville, for General Mitchel, of Buell's army, was pressing on them. They did so, after destroying property valued at \$500,000. They were followed by the Army of the Ohio. At the same time National gunboats were ascending the Cumberland River to co-operate

with the troops. The Secessionists of Nashville were fearfully excited. The Governor of Tennessee (Harris) rode through the streets like a madman, and he and his associates gathered as many papers as possible at the Capitol as concerned themselves and fled by railway to Memphis. The officers of banks bore away their specie. Citizens, with their most valuable portable possessions, fled by railway to Decatur and Chattanooga. Every kind of wheeled vehicle was brought into requisition, and hack-hire rose to twenty-five dollars an hour. The public stores were thrown wide open, and everybody was allowed to carry away provisions and clothing. Johnston and his troops passed rapidly through the city, southward, and Nashville was surrendered to the Nationals (Feb. 26) by the civil authorities. The state government being abdicated, and the Confederates expelled from Tennessee, Andrew Johnson, of East Tennessee, was appointed provisional governor, with the military rank of brigadier. He entered upon the duties, at Nashville, March 4, 1862.

Natchez. This Indian nation inhabited the eastern borders of the Mississippi River. They were known to Europeans as early as the year 1560, when De Luna aided the Gulf tribes in a war against them. Their traditions aver that they came from the southwest, driven by hostile ancient inhabitants, when some of them made a stand on the Gulf coast, and others penetrated to the spot where the modern city bears the name of their nation. Their sun-worship, mound-building, and language point to a relationship with the inhabitants of Yucatan. La Salle, coming from the north, planted a cross in their country in 1683. Iberville also visited them, and proposed to build a city there. They were brave, wild, and dissolute. Their chief was called the Great Sun, whose power was despotic. They averred that their first civilizers were a man and woman who descended from the sun. In a temple built on a mound they kept a perpetual fire. They dressed in robes made of skins or feathers in winter, and in summer light garments were made of the bark of the mulberry-tree or of native flax. They had many feasts and revelled in sensual indulgence. After European traders found them they rapidly declined in numbers and power, while they fought the French. The Natchez were joined by the Yazoo and Chickasaws (which see), while the Choctaws (which see) joined the French, early in the last century. In 1730 the French fell upon and almost annihilated the Natchez, and they never recovered from the shock. After maintaining a feeble nationality for a century, they were merged into the Creek confederacy. The nation and its language is almost extinct.

Natchez, THE FRENCH AT WAR WITH THE. The French had built a fort on the site of Natchez, called Rosalie (see *Crozat*), and had secured the friendship of the Choctaws, a numerous confederacy. (See *Choctaws*.) Surrounded by the people of the confederacy, and dwelling

chiefly in a single village near Fort Rosalie was the tribe of the Natchez, limited in numbers and territory, but remarkable in language, religion, and manners. (See *Natchez*.) Alarmed by the encroachments of the French at Fort Rosalie, by whom their village was demanded as a site for plantations, the Natchez, whose temple of worship was there, began to grow hostile; and this feeling was stimulated by the Chickasaws, who lived north of them, on the same side of the Mississippi. (See *Chickasaws*.) Around Fort Rosalie a French settlement had been planted. Encouraged by their neighbors, the Natchez fell upon this settlement (November, 1729) and massacred 200 men and made captives of the women and children. The negro slaves joined the Indians. This event gave great alarm to the inhabitants at New Orleans and its vicinity. They numbered, at that time, about 6000, a third of whom were negro slaves. The settlers were in fear of an insurrection among the negroes, as well as Indian forays, and were in great distress. The adults, who were armed, fortified the little town; and a military leader, with a body of 700 Choctaw warriors, surprised the Natchez while feasting over their victory. Other forces from New Orleans joined Le Sueur, and the Natchez were dispersed (1730), some fleeing to the Chickasaws and others across the Mississippi. Only a few made their escape. The great chief—"child of the sun"—and 400 of his people were sent to Santo Domingo and sold as slaves. Thus that ancient nation was destroyed.

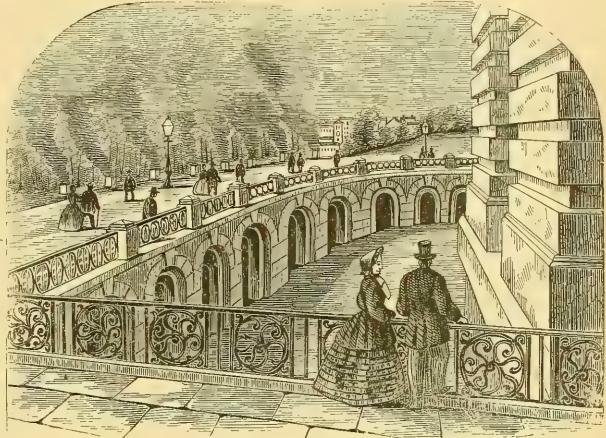
Nation, THE, ESTABLISHED. While the Articles of Confederation remained the supreme law of the land, and the prevailing political doctrine, exemplified in the practical workings of the government of the League of States, was that of "state supremacy," no respect was paid to the inchoate Republic as a "nation" by foreign governments. They were indifferent to the government of the United States, because they believed it would, in the very nature of things, be temporary. History furnished no example of a league of independent states long adhering as a unit. England would not send a representative to our seat of government, and the other powers withheld important diplomatic intercourse. Great Britain scornfully rejected overtures for establishing reciprocal commercial relations with the Americans; and John Adams, who, in February, 1785, was sent to England clothed with the full powers of a plenipotentiary, was treated with so much coldness that he asked and received permission to return home. But when, under the shadow of the national Constitution, the new nation was born—a nation whose existence had been decreed by the will of true sovereignty, the *people*, and whose perpetuity depends upon that will—it immediately arrested the profound attention of the civilized world. It was seen that its commerce, its diplomacy, and its dignity no longer depended upon and was subordinate to thirteen distinct and clashing legislative bodies, but were guarded by a central power of wonderful energy. England, France, Spain, and

Holland placed their representatives at the seat of the new government, and the world was swift to acknowledge that the new-born nation was a power—positive, tangible, indubitable.

National Capital. By act of Congress the national capital was to be located on the Potomac, not far below the falls, and the spot was left to the determination of commissioners. They chose the lands adjacent to Georgetown, lying between Rock Creek and the eastern branch of the Potomac, along the shores of the river, and made arrangements with owners of the land for them to cede to the United States the whole, containing from three to five thousand acres, on the condition that, when it should be surveyed and laid off as a city, the proprietors should retain every other lot; and for such parts of the land as should be taken for public use—for squares, walks, etc.—they should be allowed at the rate of about seventy-five dollars an acre, the public having the right to reserve such part of wood on the land as might be thought necessary to be preserved for ornament; the landholders to have the use and profits of all the lands until the city should be laid off into lots and sale should be made of the lots. Nothing was to be allowed for the ground which might be occupied as streets or alleys. The lands were surveyed by Major L'Enfant (an engineer who had served in the Continental army), under the general direction of Andrew Ellicott, of Maryland; and the city was laid out on a magnificent scale in 1791, with broad avenues radiating from the Capitol, bearing the names of the several states, with streets intersecting them in such a peculiar way that they have ever been a puzzle to strangers. The corner-stone of the Capitol was laid by Washington in 1793, with Masonic ceremonies. Only the two wings were first built, and these were not completed until 1808. The seat of government was transferred to the national capital (which had received the name of Washington City) in 1800, when the President's house was first occupied by Adams and his family. It was then a dreary place. There was only a path leading from the President's house to the Capitol, which were a mile apart, through an elder swamp, along the line of (present) Pennsylvania Avenue, and the officers of government suffered many privations for a while. Oliver Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury, wrote, in the fall of 1800: "There is one good tavern, about forty rods from the Capitol, and several houses are built or erecting, but I don't see how members of Congress can possibly secure lodgings unless they will consent to live like scholars in a college, or monks in a monastery, ten or twenty crowded in one house." Great inconvenience was felt at the unfinished presidential mansion. "I could content myself anywhere for three months," wrote Mrs. Adams, "but, surrounded

with forests, can you believe that wood is not to be had, because people cannot be found to cut and cart it! . . . We have, indeed, come into 'a new country.'"

National Capitol, THE, A CITADEL. The Capitol at Washington was made a vast citadel on the arrival of troops there after the close of April, 1861. Its halls and committee-rooms were used as barracks for the soldiers; its basement galleries were converted into store-rooms for barrels of pork, beef, and other provisions for the army; and the vaults under the broad terrace on the western front of the Capitol were



GOVERNMENT BAKERIES AT THE CAPITOL.

converted into bakeries, where sixteen thousand loaves of bread were baked every day. The chimneys of the ovens pierced the terrace at the junction of the freestone pavement and the grassy slope of the glacis; and there, for three months, dense volumes of black smoke poured forth.

National Cavalry Raids in Virginia. While Hooker and Lee were contending near Chancellorsville (which see) a greater part of the cavalry of the Army of the Potomac was raiding on the communications of Lee's army with Richmond. Stoneman, with ten thousand men, at first performed this service. He rode rapidly, crossing rivers, and along rough roads, and at two o'clock in the morning struck the Virginia Central Railway near Louisa Court-house, destroying much of it before daylight. They were only slightly opposed, and at midnight of the 2d (May, 1863) the raiders were divided for separate work. On the morning of the 3d one party destroyed canal-boats, bridges, and Confederate supplies at Columbia, on the James River. Colonel Kilpatrick, with another party, struck the Fredericksburg Railway at Hungary Station and destroyed the depot and railway there, and, sweeping down within two miles of Richmond, captured a lieutenant and eleven men within the Confederate works of that capital. Then he struck the Virginia Central Railway at Meadows Bridge, on the Chickahominy; and thence pushed on, destroying Confederate property, to Gloucester Point, on the York River.

Another party, under Lieutenant-colonel Davis, destroyed the station and railway at Hanover Court-house, and followed the road to within seven miles of Richmond, and also pushed on to Gloucester Point. Another party, under Gregg and Buford, destroyed the railway property at Hanover Junction. They all returned to the Rappahannock by the 8th of May; but they had not effected the errand they were sent upon—namely, the complete destruction of Lee's communications with Richmond.

National Cemeteries. An act of Congress, approved July 17, 1862, provided "That the President of the United States shall have power, whenever in his opinion it shall be expedient, to purchase cemetery grounds and cause them to be securely enclosed, to be used as a national cemetery for the soldiers who shall die in the service of their country." There was no appropriation of money for the purpose, and the act remained a dead letter for a long time. In December, 1863, and March, 1864, General George H. Thomas, in command of the Department of the Tennessee, issued orders for the establishment of national cemeteries at Chattanooga and at Stone's River, near Murfreesborough, to receive the remains of those who fell on the battle-fields around the former and at the latter place. In October, 1865, circulars of a general nature were issued by the quartermaster-general, calling upon the officers of his department for information of the condition of the graves of Union soldiers, for the humane purpose of protecting and identifying their remains. A full and minute report for the district of Middle Tennessee, made by Brevet Lieutenant-colonel E. B. Whitman, Dec. 1, 1865, and forwarded to the quartermaster-general, revealed the necessity of more extended and systematic explorations, and led to the organization of a plan which was finally extended in its operations over the whole area of the war, or wherever Union soldiers were buried. Colonel Whitman was at once assigned by General Thomas to the duty of visiting and reporting upon the battle-fields and localities wherever Union soldiers were buried in the Department of the Tennessee, embracing the states of Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia; a duty which he performed with singular fidelity, intelligence, and success. Preliminary steps were taken in preparation for an extended and thorough exploration, by the publication in over three hundred newspapers and other periodicals of a call for "important information" concerning the honored dead. Facts so gathered and classified formed important guide-books. Lists of the dead were collected from every conceivable source; appeals were made to the interested, and every step was taken to collect the desired information. A competent corps of explorers of the battle-fields and other localities was organized, instructed to make careful notes, as follows: 1. Location of graves, giving direction and distance from some known and prominent point or object; 2. Number of graves, marked and unmarked separately; 3. Condition of graves and character of location, whether in

open fields or woods, on high or low ground, and whether enclosed or not; 4. Names of the owners of the land, with its value, and the name or names of the nearest resident; 5. Lists of the inscriptions on head-boards, except in case of large cemeteries of which there were official records; 6. Names of persons to be referred to for further information, citizens or ex-military; 7. In the neighborhood of hospitals the name or names of surgeons or others who had been in charge; 8. At posts or public cemeteries, the name of the person in charge of making interments, or sextons, undertakers, or officers; 9. Any information and statements of facts and incidents procured from people in the neighborhood; 10. Suggestions in regard to proper places to locate permanent cemeteries; 11. Statements in regard to Confederate graves found in the same neighborhood with Union dead, their estimated number and general condition. Tabulated statements of explorers were made, giving the name of the state and county searched; number of localities visited; of bodies found; of remains identified by names on head-boards and copied, in enclosures or public cemeteries, and on the route of what corps. Mortuary records were kept, and so was preserved information concerning the dead which would otherwise have been lost forever. The searching parties consisted generally of a leader, cook, servant, recording-clerks, and a small military escort. They followed the routes of the armies, visited all camping-grounds and localities of field-hospitals, and swept in a line over battle-fields, forwards and backwards, until the whole area was searched. This work was timely performed, for the elements and other causes would soon have hidden the graves from recognition. Items like the following abound in the field-books of the explorers within less than a year after the close of the war: "The first row of graves is almost entirely covered with briars, and the head-boards and inscriptions are in a bad condition; the second row is better, and the marks on the head-boards are plain; but a few months more will make both the head-boards and inscriptions nearly useless." These preliminary steps were followed by the location of cemeteries, the appointment of superintendents of construction, and the gathering in of remains and reburying them. The work of reinterment was carried on as speedily as possible, and under acts of Congress measures were adopted for protecting and beautifying these resting-places of the dead defenders of the Union, and for their permanent identification. It was ordered that at each cemetery a record of burials should be kept, in which the name, rank, company, regiment, and date of death of every known officer or private soldier should be recorded; if unknown, it was to be so recorded. A duplicate of these records was to be sent to the quartermaster-general. The Secretary of War was directed to select superintendents from any enlisted men in the army, disabled in service, who should permanently reside at the cemetery and give information to parties visiting it. On June 30, 1876, the quartermaster-general reported that there were eighty-one na-

tional military cemeteries for soldiers and sailors, with seventy-one superintendents, and containing the graves of 310,356 persons, of whom 164,655 are known, and 145,710 are unknown. Besides these, there were 17,000 Union soldiers buried by the Quartermaster's Department in various public and private incorporated cemeteries, not known as national military cemeteries, making the total number of known burials of men who perished in defence of the Republic and were buried where they fell and died, 327,356. Permanent enclosures of stone, brick, or iron have been made for these cemeteries, also permanent lodges at the entrances to them. These cemeteries are distributed in various states, as follows: New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Arkansas, and Louisiana; also in the District of Columbia and the city of Mexico. The greater number (sixteen) are in Virginia. The entire cost of these cemeteries was over \$6,500,000. By acts of Congress (Feb. 22, 1867, and Jan. 8, 1872) the Secretary of War was directed to cause each grave to be marked with a small head-stone or block of marble, with the number of the grave on each, corresponding with the number opposite to the name of the party in a register of burials kept at each cemetery, the name of the soldier, his rank, company, and regiment, and the time and place of his death, if known; if not known, to be marked "Unknown." This business was placed in charge of the Quartermaster's Department, and has been thoroughly completed. Advertisements were published calling for proposals for furnishing the little monuments, and requiring them to be marked in the following manner:

3269.
JOHN SMITH,
CORPORAL,
CO. B, 10TH OHIO VOLS.;
DIED 25TH NOVEMBER, 1863.
CHATTANOOGA, TENN.

This patriotic work has been fully completed, at a heavy aggregate cost, but which the grateful nation has gladly appropriated. The lands on which the cemeteries are located have been purchased, and the jurisdiction ceded to the national government by the states in which the cemeteries are located. Immense iron siege-guns placed erect upon granite pedestals form appropriate and enduring monuments in most of the cemeteries, and in each a flag-staff has been erected. Congress passed a law (June 1, 1872) allowing all soldiers and sailors honorably discharged from the service of the United States who might die in a destitute condition, burial in the national cemeteries. "Rolls of Honor," containing the name, rank, company, regiment, and date and place of death of every known soldier who died in defence of the Union, have been published by the quartermaster-general in twenty-seven thin volumes.

National Congress, FIRST MEETING OF THE. March 4, 1789, was appointed as the time, and

the City Hall in New York, renovated and called "Federal Hall," was designated as the place for the meeting of the First Congress under the new Constitution. There was great tardiness in assembling. Only eight senators and thirteen representatives appeared on the appointed day. On the 11th of March a circular letter was sent to the absentees, urging their prompt attendance; but it was the 30th before a quorum (thirty members) of the House was present. Frederick A. Muhlenberg, of Pennsylvania, was chosen Speaker of the House, and John Langdon, of New Hampshire, was made (April 6) President of the Senate, "for the sole purpose of opening and counting the votes for President and Vice-President of the United States." Washington was chosen President by a unanimous vote (sixty-nine), and John Adams was elected Vice-President by a majority. He journeyed to New York when notified of his election, and was inaugurated April 21, 1789. Washington was inaugurated April 30. (See *Inauguration of Washington*.)

National Constitution, THE. Sagacious men perceived the utter inefficiency of the Articles of Confederation as a Constitution of a national government. So early as 1780, while their ratification by the states was pending, Alexander Hamilton, then only twenty-three years of age, in a long letter to James Duane, in Congress, dated "At the Liberty Pole," Sept. 3, gave an outline sketch of a national constitution, and suggested the calling of a convention to frame such a system of government. During the following year he published in the *New York Packet* (then published at Fishkill, Dutchess Co., N. Y.) a series of papers under the title of *The Constitutionalist*, which were devoted chiefly to the discussion of the defects of the Articles of Confederation. In the summer of 1782, he succeeded in having the subject brought before the Legislature of New York, then in session at Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson, and that body, by a resolution drawn by Hamilton and presented by his father-in-law, General Schuyler, recommended (July 21, 1782) the assembling of a national convention to revise the Articles, "reserving the right of the respective legislatures to ratify their determinations." In the spring of 1783, Hamilton, in Congress, expressed an earnest desire for such a convention. Pelatiah Webster and Thomas Paine wrote in favor of it the same year, and in 1784 Noah Webster wrote a pamphlet on the subject which he carried in person to General Washington. In that pamphlet Webster proposed "a new system of government which should act, *not on the states, but directly on individuals*, and vest in Congress full power to carry its laws into effect." The plan deeply impressed the mind of Washington. Events in North Carolina and Massachusetts (see *Frankland*, and *Shays's Rebellion*) made many leading men anxious about the future. They saw the weakness of the existing form of government. In the autumn of 1785, Washington, in a letter to James Warren, deplored that weakness, and the "illiberality, jealousy, and local policy of the states," that was likely to "sink the new

nation in the eyes of Europe into contempt." Finally, after many grave discussions at Mount Vernon, Washington, acting upon the suggestions of Hamilton made five years before, proposed a convention of the several states to agree upon a plan of unity in a commercial arrangement, over which, by the existing Constitution, Congress had no control. Coming from such an exalted source, the suggestion was acted upon. A convention of delegates from the several states was called at Annapolis, Md. Only five states (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Virginia) sent deputies. These met Sept. 11, 1786. There being only a minority of the states present, they deferred action, at the same time recommending another convention. On Feb. 21, 1787, the Congress, by resolution, strongly urged the several legislatures to send deputies to a convention to meet in Philadelphia in May following, "for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation." Delegates were appointed by all the states excepting Rhode Island. The convention assembled at the appointed time (May 14), but only one half the states were then represented. The remainder did not all arrive before May 24. Washington, who was a delegate from Virginia, was chosen president of the convention, and William Jackson, one of his most intimate friends, was made secretary. Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, opened the proceedings by a carefully prepared speech, in which the defects of the existing Constitution were pointed out. At its conclusion he offered fifteen resolutions, in which were embodied the leading principles whereon to construct a new form of government. In these was the suggestion that "a national government ought to be established, consisting of a supreme legislature, executive, and judiciary." Upon this broad idea the convention proceeded, and had not gone far when they perceived that the Articles of Confederation were too radically defective to form a basis for a stable government. Therefore they did not attempt to amend them, but proceeded to form an entirely new Constitution. For many weeks debates went on, when (Sept. 10, 1787) all plans and amendments adopted by the convention were referred to a committee for revision and arrangement. It consisted of James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Johnson, Rufus King, and Gouverneur Morris. The latter put the document into proper literary form. It was signed by nearly all the members of the convention on the 17th. The convention ordered these proceedings to be laid before Congress, and recommended that body to submit the instrument to the *people* (not the states) and ask them, the *source of all sovereignty*, to ratify or reject it. It was done. The Constitution was violently assailed, especially by the extreme supporters of the doctrine of state sovereignty. The consent of the people of nine states was necessary to secure its ratification. The New Hampshire convention completed the work by voting for its ratification, June 21, 1788. All the rest had ratified it, excepting Rhode Island, before the close of that year; North Carolina having voted for it Nov.

21. Rhode Island held back until May 29, 1790, the government, under the new Constitution, having gone into operation on March 4, 1789.

National Currency. On the 3d of June, 1864, Congress provided for a separate bureau in the Treasury Department, the chief officer of which is called the comptroller of the currency, whose office is under the general direction of the Secretary of the Treasury. It provided that associations for carrying on the business of banking might be formed, consisting of not less than five persons; that no association should be organized under the act with a less capital than \$100,000, nor, in a city the population of which exceeded 50,000, with a less capital than \$200,000; but that banks with a capital of not less than \$50,000 might, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, be established in any place the population of which did not exceed 6000. It also provided that such associations should have existence for twenty years, and might exercise the general powers of banking companies; that the capital should be divided into shares of \$100 each; that stockholders should be liable to the extent of the stock for the debts and contracts of the bank; that every association, preliminary to the commencement of banking business, should transfer bonds of the United States to an amount not less than \$30,000, and not less than one third of the capital stock paid in; that upon the proper examination being made into the affairs of the proposed institution, it should be entitled to receive from the comptroller of the currency circulating notes equal in amount to twenty per cent. of the current market value of the bonds transferred, but not exceeding ninety per cent. of the par value of such bonds. It was also provided that notes to an amount not exceeding in value \$300,000,000 should be issued; that these notes should be received at par in all parts of the United States in payment of taxes, excises, public lands, and all other dues to the United States except for duties on imports, and also for all salaries and other debts and demands owing by the United States to individuals, corporations, and associations within the United States, except interest on the public debt, and in redemption of the national currency; that the rate of interest to be charged should be that allowed by the state or territory where the bank should be located, and that any state bank might become a national bank under the act. By an act passed in March, 1867, it was provided that temporary loan-certificates, bearing three per cent. interest, might be issued to an amount not exceeding \$50,000,000, and that such certificates might constitute for any national bank a part of the reserve provided for by law, provided that not less than three fifths of the reserve of each bank should consist of lawful money of the United States. In January, 1868, an additional amount of \$25,000,000 of temporary loan-certificates was authorized, and in July, 1870, provision made for issuing \$54,000,000 additional currency to national banks. By a law which taxed all banks chartered by states ten per cent. on all circulation paid out by them, Congress effectually drove their notes

from circulation. This national paper-currency is at par in every part of the United States, and affords the soundest paper-currency ever contrived. In 1875 Congress passed an act making banking free under the national system, without any restrictions as to the amount of circulating notes that may be issued to any part of the country, and the privileges attached to the national banks are open to individuals elsewhere.

National Government, SEAT OF THE. By act of Congress approved July 16, 1790, the seat of the national government was to be located on the Potomac River. The commissioners appointed to locate it were Thomas Johnson, David Stuart, and Daniel Carroll, of Maryland, and they gave the name of Washington to the new city laid out. The public offices were removed to Washington from Philadelphia in June, 1800, and the first meeting of Congress took place at Washington in November of the same year. The act assuming jurisdiction was approved by President Adams Feb. 27, 1801. The Monahoc and Monacon Indians once occupied the site of the city, and it was called Conococheague, meaning "Roaring Waters," from the number of brooks in the vicinity and the falls in the Potomac near. The site of the Capitol was once owned by a man named Pope, who gave it the name of Rome, and the eastern branch of the Potomac, that flows near, he called the Tiber. The eminence on which the Capitol stands might have been properly called, in that connection, the Capitoline Hill. The city was incorporated May 3, 1802. (See *National Capital*.)

National Troops at Annapolis. General B. F. Butler was in Philadelphia on April 19, 1861, when he first heard of the assault on Massachusetts troops in Baltimore. He had orders to go to Washington through Baltimore. It was evident that he could not do so without trouble, and he took counsel with General Robert Patterson, the commander of the "Department of Washington." He also consulted Commodore Dupont, commander of the navy-yard there, and it was agreed that the troops under General Butler should go from Perryville, on the Susquehanna, to Annapolis, by water, and thence across Maryland, seizing and holding Annapolis Junction by the way. Butler laid before his officers a plan which contemplated seizing and holding Annapolis as a means of communication, and to make a forced march with a part of his troops from that port to Washington. He wrote to the Governor of Massachusetts to send the Boston Light Artillery to Annapolis, and the next morning he proceeded with his troops to Perryville, embarked in the powerful steam ferry-boat *Maryland*, and at a little past midnight reached Annapolis. The town and Naval Academy were in the hands of the Secessionists, and were all lighted up in expectation of the arrival of a body of insurgents, by water, from Baltimore, to assist them in seizing the venerable and venerated frigate *Constitution*, lying there, and adding her to the Confederate navy. The arrival of these troops was just in time to save

her. Many of Butler's troops were seamen at home, and these assisted in getting the *Constitution* to a place of safety beyond the bar. Governor Hicks was at Annapolis, and advised Butler not to land Northern troops. "They are not Northern troops," said Butler. "They are a part of the whole militia of the United States, obeying the call of the President." This was the root of the matter—the idea of nationality as opposed to state supremacy. He called on the governor and the mayor of Annapolis. To their remonstrances against his landing and marching through Maryland, Butler replied that the orders and demands of his government were imperative, and that he should land and march on the capital as speedily as possible. He assured them that peaceable citizens should be unmolested and the laws of Maryland be respected. On the 22d the New York Seventh Regiment, Colonel Lefferts, arrived at Annapolis on a steamer. All the troops were landed and quartered at the Naval Academy. The Secessionists, meanwhile, had torn up the railway, taken the locomotives to pieces, and hidden them. Terrible stories reached Butler of a great force of insurgents at Annapolis Junction. He did not believe them, and moved on, after taking formal military possession of Annapolis and the railway to Annapolis Junction. Two Massachusetts companies seized the railway station, in which they found a disabled locomotive concealed. "Does any one know anything about this machine?" inquired Butler. "Our shop made that engine, General," said Charles Homans, of the Beverly Light Guard. "I guess I can put her in order and run her." "Do it," said the General; and it was soon done, for that regiment was full of engineers and mechanics. It was a remarkable regiment. Theodore Winthrop said that if the words were given, "Poets, to the front!" or "Painters, present arms!" or "Sculptors, charge bayonets!" there would be ample responses. The hidden rails were hunted up and found in thickets, ravines, and bottoms of streams, and the road was soon in such a condition that the troops moved on, on the morning of the 24th, at the rate of about one mile an hour, laying the track anew and building bridges. Skirmishers went ahead and scouts on the flanks. The distance to the Junction from Annapolis was twenty miles. They saw none of the terrible Marylanders they had been warned against. The troops reached Annapolis Junction on the morning of the 25th, when the Seventh Regiment went on to Washington and the Massachusetts regiment remained to hold the railroads. Other troops arrived at Annapolis, and General Scott ordered Butler to remain there, hold the town and road, and superintend the forwarding of troops to Washington. The "Department of Annapolis" was created, which embraced the country twenty miles on each side of the railway to within four miles of the capital. The Seventh Regiment were the first troops that reached Washington after the tragedy at Baltimore a week before.

National Troops at Chattanooga. After the battle of Chickamauga (which see) and the con-

centration of the National troops at Chattanooga, Bragg took measures to starve the Union forces. He seized Lookout Mountain and Missionaries' Ridge, and gained possession of the left bank of the Tennessee River, by which he cut off communication by water between the Union army and its supplies at Bridgeport and Stevenson. Rosecrans was therefore compelled to transport them in wagons from their depots, through the rugged mountains on the right bank of the river, by way of the Sequatchie valley, fifty or sixty miles, and then across the Tennessee at Chattanooga, over pontoon bridges. For a while the Army of the Cumberland was on very short allowance, and not less than ten thousand horses and mules were starved or worked to death. Grant, when he took command, telegraphed to Thomas, "Hold Chattanooga, at all hazards," and Thomas had replied, "I will hold the town until we starve." The danger was imminent. Bragg's cavalry had crossed the Tennessee and were raiding on the line of the transportation trains, destroying supplies. (See *Wheeler's Raid*.) In these movements there were some stirring encounters. Vigorous measures were soon taken for the relief of the confined army, and it was speedily effected.

Nationalities of the English-American Colonies. A great majority of the immigrants who settled the English domain in America were of Teutonic origin. The English, Lowland Scotch, Dutch, and Swedes were decidedly of German blood. The Irish and French were few at first. Denmark and the Baltic region contributed a considerable number, and natives from Africa were soon scattered profusely among the white population of all the colonies. They were people of varied and opposite tastes, habits, and theological views, but, as a rule, they commingled without asperity, and when the time came for a political union no serious antagonisms were apparent. Churchmen and Dissenters, Roman Catholics, Puritans, and Friends finally settled down quietly together and labored, with a generous spirit and unsuspicious of each other, for the public good. The Puritans of New England, the Friends or Quakers of Pennsylvania, the Roman Catholics of Maryland, and the Churchmen of Virginia, though often narrow in their theological views, manifested a common love for liberty, and acted upon the just rule that the majority should govern.

Native American Party. In 1844 the great influx of foreigners into the city of New York for several years preceding, and the facility with which our naturalization laws permitted foreigners to become voters, had enabled the adopted citizens to hold the balance of power between the two great parties. Whigs and Democrats, in the city elections. The consequence was that when either party gained a victory the adopted citizens claimed, as was alleged, an unreasonable share of the spoils, and the amount of the patronage controlled by the mayor and Common Council of New York was very great. The native citizens became alarmed, and it was resolved to endeavor to make the naturalization

laws more stringent. A large number of citizens, including many of the most respectable in character and wealth, united in forming a "Native American Party." They nominated James Harper (the head of the publishing house of Harper & Brothers) for mayor, and he was elected by a majority of 4316, with a greater portion of the aldermen. The Native American party immediately extended its influence, and for some years held a conspicuous place in the politics of the Republic.

Naturalization Act, FIRST. On March 22, 1790, a bill was passed providing for a uniform rule of naturalization. It authorized all courts of record to entertain the applications of "alien free white persons" who had resided within the United States for two years, and, on proof of good character and their taking an oath or affirmation to support the Constitution, to admit such persons as citizens. It also provided that no persons who had been disfranchised by any state under laws passed during the Revolution was to be readmitted as a citizen, except by a legislative act of the state to which he had formerly belonged. The power of admitting new citizens is still retained by all courts of record, but in other respects the law has been modified.

Naturalization Law, NEW. The Reign of Terror in France had caused the emigration to America of a large number of French citizens, many of them nobles, who had been banished from their country. Many of the discontented Irish sought refuge in the United States. British agents at that time carried on a large portion of the trade of the Southern States, and Madison had proposed measures to exclude foreign residents in America from an equal participation with citizens in commercial privileges. The fear of foreign democrats by the Federalists and the fear of foreign aristocrats by the Republicans made both parties in agreement in framing a new naturalization law, early in 1795, making the attainment of citizenship by an alien more difficult. The new act required the preliminary residence of the alien, before naturalization, of five years; also a three years' previous declaration of intention to become a citizen, to be made in a court of record; also, one year's residence in the state where the naturalization should be had. The new citizen was called upon to renounce, forever, all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince or state; and if he had borne any title of nobility, he must make an express renunciation of it. The last provision elicited warm debate in Congress. (See *Titles of Nobility*.)

Naturalized Citizens Protected. The government of the United States makes no distinction between its citizens, whether native or naturalized, in furnishing protection to them. A notable illustration of this was given in the case of Martin Koszta, a Hungarian exile, who had been naturalized in the United States. While he was engaged in business in Smyrna, Asia Minor, he was seized by order of the Austrian consul-general, and placed on board a vessel bound for Trieste, as a refugee. The *St. Louis*

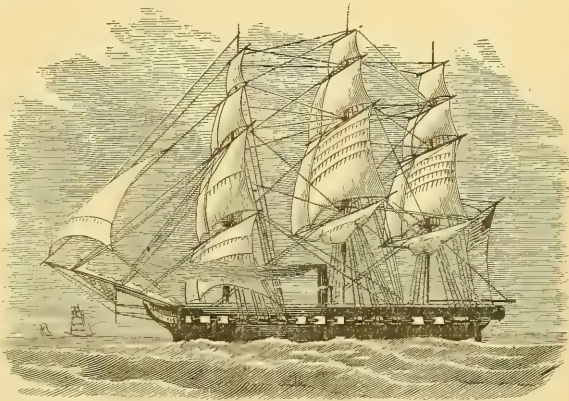
(Captain Ingraham), a naval vessel of the United States, was then lying in the harbor of Smyrna. Hearing of the arrest, Captain Ingraham claimed Koszta as an American citizen. On the refusal of the Austrian authorities to release the prisoner, Ingraham cleared his vessel for action (July, 1853) and threatened to fire upon the brig if Koszta was not delivered within a given time. The Austrians yielded to the argument of forty well-shotted guns, and the prisoner was placed in the custody of the French consul to await the action of the respective governments. Ingraham's conduct was applauded by his countrymen, and Congress voted him a sword. This protection of an humble adopted citizen of the United States in a foreign land increased the respect for our government and flag abroad. The pride of the Austrian government was severely wounded. It issued a protest against the proceedings of Ingraham, and sent it to all the European courts. The Austrian minister at Washington demanded an apology, or other redress, from the United States government, and threatened it with the displeasure of his royal master. No serious difficulty ensued. Koszta soon returned to the United States.

Navajos. This family really forms a part of the Apaches, but is more civilized than the rest of the tribe. They occupy the table-lands and mountain districts on the San Juan and Little Colorado rivers, and cultivate the soil extensively. With their more warlike kindred, the Apaches, they have carried on hostilities with the Mexicans from a very early period. Attempts to subjugate them had failed, and treaties were broken by them as soon as made until 1863, when Colonel Carson conquered them and compelled them to remove some distance from their mountain fastnesses. There, in a sterile and unhealthful country, they were kept until 1869, when they were allowed, seven thousand in number, to return to their old domain, where they have stayed quietly on a reservation. In 1872 the Navajos on that reservation numbered over nine thousand, with their outlying bands. They receive from the United States government, in annuities, \$91,000. They cultivate the soil rudely, make the cloth they use, and dress decently, covering their whole bodies.

Naval Academy at Annapolis, THE, was established in 1845 by Hon. George Bancroft, then Secretary of the Navy, for the purpose of giving a thorough education to prospective officers of various grades in the United States navy. There is a naval observatory connected with the academy, well supplied with instruments, a carefully selected library of about fifteen thousand volumes, and a large naval hospital. Two ships of war are attached to the institution, used during the summer months as practice-ships and for sea excursions. During the Civil War the academy was removed to Newport, R. I., but was brought back soon after the close of the conflict.

II.—6

Naval Battle on the Mississippi. The gunboats of Commodore Farragut and the mortar-fleet of Commodore Porter attacked Fort Jackson, sixty miles below New Orleans, on April 18, 1862. (See *New Orleans, Capture of.*) Fort Jackson opened the conflict by a shot, when a bombardment was commenced by twenty mortar-vessels. Porter, on the *Harriet Lane*, directed the firing. This conflict was continued several days, assisted by the gunboats, when, perceiving little chance for reducing the forts, Farragut prepared to run by them. In the intense darkness of the night of the 20th five of the gunboats ran up and destroyed the boom below the forts. The Nationals were discovered, and a heavy fire from the fort was opened upon them; and two hours later a blazing fire-raft came roaring down the river, but did no damage. Night after night these fire-rafts were sent down. During the bombardment one thousand shells had fallen within the fort. At sunset on the 23d Farragut was prepared for the perilous feat of running past the forts. The mortar-boats, keeping their position, were to cover the advance of the fleet. At two o'clock in the morning (April 24) the fleet moved. Farragut, with his wooden flag-ship *Hartford* and

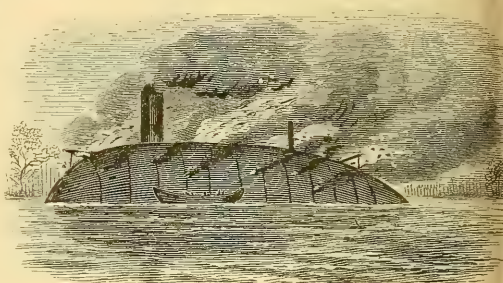


THE HARTFORD.

the large ships *Richmond* and *Brooklyn*, that formed the first division, was to keep near the right bank and fight Fort Jackson; while Captain Theodorus Bailey, with the second division, composed of eight gunboats, was to keep close to the left bank and fight Fort St. Philip. To Captain Bell, with six gunboats, was assigned the duty of attacking the Confederate fleet above the forts. Keeping in the channel, he was to push on to his assigned work without regard to the forts. These were silent until the *Cayuga*, Captain Bailey's ship, passed the boom, when heavy guns were brought to bear upon her. She did not reply until she was close to Fort St. Philip, when she gave it tremendous broadsides of grape and canister as she passed by. Four other gunboats were close in her wake and imitated her example, and the whole of Bailey's division passed the forts almost unharmed. The *Hartford* and her consorts had a tremendous

struggle with Fort Jackson. The *Brooklyn* had become entangled with a sunken hulk, and just as she had become free she was furiously attacked by the "ram" *Manassas* (see *Southwest Pass*), but without being much injured. She had just escaped the "ram," when a large Confederate steamer assailed her. She gave it a broadside, which set it on fire, and its swift destruction ensued. Then she brought her guns to bear upon Fort St. Philip and silenced that work. Meanwhile the *Hartford* was battling with Fort Jackson and encountering a fire-raft that set her ablaze, but the flames were soon extinguished. Captain Bell made his way up the channel. Three of his vessels had passed the forts, when a fourth was disabled by a storm of shot, one of which pierced her boiler, and she drifted down the river. Another vessel recoiled, and yet another, entangled among obstructions, could go no farther. Before the fleet had fairly passed the forts the Confederate gunboats and rams, commanded by Captain Mitchell, had attacked the National vessels. The scene was then awfully grand. The noise of twenty mortars and two hundred and sixty great guns, afloat and ashore, was terrific. Added to these were blazing fire-rafts, lighting up the scene with their lurid blaze. Upon the *Cayuga* (Captain Bailey) and the *Varuna* (Captain Boggs) the chief wrath of the Confederates seemed to be directed. These commanders performed wonders of valor. Bailey's vessel escaped up the river, after having been struck forty-two times. The *Varuna* had rushed into the midst of the Confederate fleet to assist the *Cayuga*, and delivered her broadsides right and left with destructive effect. She was finally attacked by a "ram," which she drove ashore in flames, when Boggs, finding his own vessel sinking, let go her anchor and tied her bow up to the shore, at the same time firing upon an antagonist. This was kept up until the water was over the gun-trucks, when Boggs got his crew on shore. The *Varuna* had driven four Confederate gunboats ashore in flames. Thus ended one of the most desperate conflicts of the war. Within the space of an hour and a half after the National vessels left their anchorage the forts were passed, and eleven of the Confederate vessels—nearly the whole of their fleet—were destroyed. The National loss was thirty killed and one hundred and twenty-five wounded. All of Farragut's vessels—twelve in number—joined the *Cayuga* at quarantine above the forts, when the dead were carried ashore and buried. The forts were surrendered, and the Lower Mississippi was opened as far as New Orleans. In this desperate engagement the "ram" *Manassas* had taken a conspicuous part in the flotilla fight above the forts. She was a peculiar-shaped

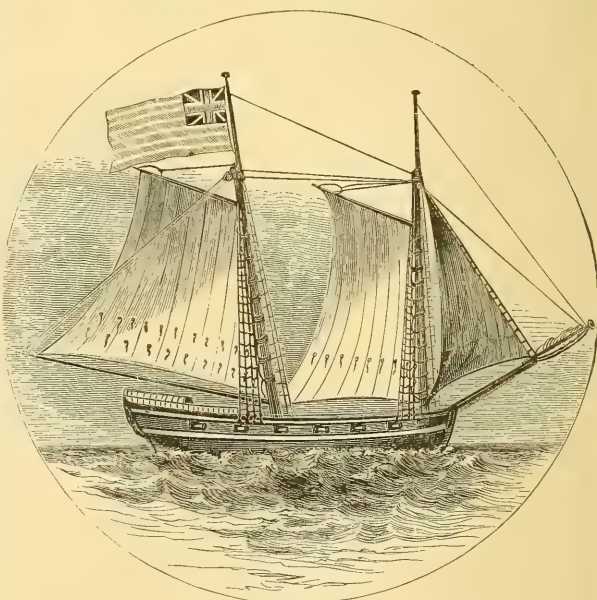
iron-clad vessel, with a powerful iron beak; but in the engagement under consideration she was so dreadfully pounded and shattered by the shot of the National gunboats that she was at length seen adrift, in a helpless condition, going towards Porter's mortar-fleet. Some of



THE MANASSAS.

these vessels opened fire upon her; but it was soon perceived that she was harmless. Her pipes were all twisted and riddled by shot, and her hull was well battered and pierced. Smoke was issuing from every opening, for she was on fire. At length, giving a plunge like some huge monster, she went hissing to the bottom of the Mississippi.

Naval Battles on Lake Champlain (1776). After the Americans left Canada in sad plight in June, 1776, Carleton, the Governor of Canada and general of the forces there, appeared at the foot of Lake Champlain with a well-appointed



THE ROYAL SAVAGE.*

* This engraving was made from a drawing, in water-colors, of the *Royal Savage*, found by the writer among the papers of General Schuyler, and gave the first positive information as to the design and appearance of the "Union Flag" (which see) displayed by the Americans at Cambridge on Jan. 1, 1776. The drawing exhibited, in proper colors, the thirteen stripes,

force of thirteen thousand men. Only on the bosom of the lake could they advance, for there was no road on either shore. To prevent this invasion, it was important that the Americans should hold command of its waters. A flotilla of small armed vessels was constructed at Crown Point, and Benedict Arnold was placed in command of them as commodore. A schooner called the *Royal Savage* was his flag-ship. Carleton, meanwhile, had used great diligence in fitting out an armed flotilla at St. John for the recovery of Crown Point and Ticonderoga. Towards the close of August, Arnold went down the lake with his fleet and watched the foe until early in October, when he fell back to Valcour Island and formed his flotilla for action without skill. Carleton advanced, with Edward Pringle as commodore, and, on the morning of Oct. 11, gained an advantageous position near Arnold's vessels. A very severe battle ensued, in which the *Royal Savage* was first crippled and afterwards destroyed. Arnold behaved with the greatest bravery during a fight of four or five hours, until it was closed by the falling of night. In the darkness Arnold escaped with

ginia (1781). Admiral Rodney supposed part of the French fleet under De Grasse had left the West Indies for America, but did not suppose the whole fleet would take that direction. He thought it only necessary to reinforce Admiral Graves, so he sent Admiral Hood with fourteen ships-of-the-line for the purpose. He reached the Chesapeake (Aug. 25, 1781) before De Grasse. Not finding Graves there, he proceeded to New York, where news had just arrived that the French squadron at Newport had gone to sea, plainly with intent to join the fleet of De Grasse. In the hope of cutting off one or the other of the French fleets before the junction could be effected, Graves sailed with the united British fleets—nineteen ships-of-the-line—and was astonished, when he arrived at the capes of Virginia, to find De Grasse anchored within. De Grasse, also surprised at this sudden appearance of a heavy British fleet, ordered his ships to slip their cables and put to sea. For five days the contending vessels manoeuvred in sight of each other. De Grasse avoided a close contact, his object being to cover the arrival of the squadron from Newport. So a distant cannonade was kept

up. De Barras entered the Chesapeake. Graves, finding his vessels badly shattered, returned to New York to refit, leaving the French in undisturbed possession of the bay. French transports were sent to Annapolis to bring to the James River the allied armies.

Naval Operations between Vicksburg and Port Hudson. The Mis-

issippi River was well blockaded at Vicksburg and Port Hudson. Between these points Confederate transports were supplying the troops at both places. It was determined to destroy them; and for this purpose the "ram" *Queen of the West* ran by the batteries at Vicksburg before daylight (Feb. 2, 1863), destroyed some vessels near Natchez, ran a few miles up the Red River, and, returning, repassed the Vicksburg batteries. On Feb. 10 she started on another raid down the river, accompanied by a gunboat and coal-barge. They passed the batteries at Vicksburg, went up the Red River to the Atchafalaya, captured a train of army-wagons and a quantity of stores on that stream, and also a small steamer (the *Era*) laden with corn and Texan soldiers. Captain Ellet compelled the pilot of the *Era* to serve the *Queen of the West* in the same capacity, when he purposely ran her ashore near Fort Taylor, where heavy guns soon disabled her. Captain Ellet and his crew abandoned her, and retreated on floating bales of cotton. The accompanying gunboat—*De Soto*—picked them up, when the same pilot ran her ashore, and the vessel and coal-barge were scuttled and sunk. The little *Era* was now Ellet's last refuge. Casting her corn overboard (her Texan soldiers had been paroled), he



SCENE OF ARNOLD'S NAVAL BATTLE.*

his vessels from surrounding dangers and pushed up the lake, but was overtaken on the 13th. One of the vessels (the *Washington*) was run on shore and burned, while Arnold, in the schooner *Congress*, with four gondolas, kept up a running fight for five hours, suffering great loss. When the *Congress* was almost a wreck, Arnold ran the vessels into a creek about ten miles from Crown Point, on the eastern shore, and burned them. Then he and his little force made their way through the woods to a place opposite Crown Point, just avoiding an Indian ambush, and escaped to the port whence he started in safety. At Crown Point he found two schooners, two galleys, one sloop, and one gondola—all that remained of his proud little fleet. In the two actions the Americans lost about ninety men; the British not half that number. General Carleton took possession of Crown Point on the 14th of October, but abandoned it in twenty days and returned to Canada.

Naval Engagement off the Capes of Vir-

alternate red and white, with the British union (the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew) on a blue field in the dexter corner.

* This scene is between Port Kent and Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, western shore. On the left is seen a point of the mainland; on the right a part of Valcour Island. Between these Arnold formed his little fleet for action.

went as lightly and rapidly as possible down to the Mississippi, when the same Confederate pilot ran her ashore, while four armed boats were close in chase. The *Era* was extricated, and, going slowly up the Mississippi, met the powerful National iron-clad *Indianola* coming down in a fog. She rescued the *Era* from her pursuers (among which was the powerful "ram" *Webb*, which had come out of the Red River), and she reached a point below Vicksburg in safety. The *Indianola* blockaded the mouth of the Red River a few days, and then ascending the Mississippi to enter the Big Black River, she was assailed near Grand Gulf, at nine o'clock in the evening (February, 1863), by powerful Confederate gunboats (among them the *Webb* and the captured *Queen of the West*), and was compelled to surrender. The Confederates now believed they had nothing to fear between Vicksburg and Port Hudson, when they were alarmed and disconcerted by a trick. Admiral Porter fitted up a worthless flat-boat in imitation of a "ram," with smoke-stacks made of pork-barrels, and set it afloat one night without a man on board. When the Confederates discovered it they believed it to be a terrible iron-clad monster. As it passed sullenly by it drew a tremendous fire from the batteries at Vicksburg. It seemed to defy shot and shell. Word was quickly sent to the gunboats below. The *Queen of the West* fled in great haste. The *Indianola* was destroyed to prevent her being captured by the awful "ram," and her great guns went to the bottom of the river.

Naval Operations on Lake Champlain (1813). When war was declared the whole American naval force on Lake Champlain consisted of only two boats that lay in a harbor on the Vermont shore. The British had two or three gunboats, or armed galleys, on the Richelieu, or Sorel, River, the outlet of Lake Champlain. Some small vessels were hastily fitted up and armed, and Lieutenant Thomas McDonough was sent to the lake to superintend the construction of some naval vessels there. In the spring of 1813 he put two vessels afloat—the sloops-of-war *Growler* and *Eagle*. Early in June, 1813, some small American vessels were attacked near Rouse's Point by British gunboats. McDonough sent the *Growler* and *Eagle*, manned by one hundred and twelve men, under Lieutenant Joseph Smith, to look after the matter. They went down the Sorel, chased three British gunboats some distance down the river, and were, in turn, pursued by three armed row-galleys, which opened upon the flying sloops with long 24-pounders. At the same time a land force, sent out on each side of the river, poured volleys of musketry upon the American vessels, which were answered by grape and canister. For four hours a running fight was kept up, when a heavy shot tore off a plank from the *Eagle* below water, and she sank immediately. The *Growler* was disabled and run ashore, and the people of both vessels were made prisoners. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was twenty; that of the British almost one hundred. The captured sloops were refitted,

and named, respectively, *Finch* and *Chubb*. They were engaged in the battle off Plattsburg the next year, when McDonough recaptured them. For a while the British were masters of Lake Champlain. This loss stimulated McDonough to greater exertions. By Aug. 6 he had fitted out and armed three sloops and six gunboats. At the close of July a British armament, under Colonel J. Murray, attacked defenceless Plattsburg. It was composed of soldiers, sailors, and marines, conveyed in two sloops-of-war, three gunboats, and forty-seven long-boats. They landed on Saturday afternoon, and continued a work of destruction until ten o'clock the next day. General Hampton, who was then at Burlington, only twenty miles distant, with four thousand troops, made no attempt to oppose the invaders. (See *Army of the North*.) The block-house, arsenal, armory, and hospital at Plattsburg were destroyed; also private store-houses. The value of public property wasted was \$25,000, and of private merchandise, furniture, etc., several thousand dollars. Many then went on a plundering raid, destroying transport vessels and property on shore. Such was the condition of naval affairs on Lake Champlain at the close of the summer of 1813.

Naval Warfare with France (1798-99). In July, 1798, the American Congress declared the treaties made between the United States and France (Feb. 6, 1778) at an end, and authorized American vessels of war to capture French cruisers. A marine corps was organized, and thirty cruisers were provided for. The frigates *United States*, *Constitution*, and *Constellation*, already built, were soon made ready for sea under such commanders as Dale, Barry, Decatur the elder, Truxton, Nicholson, and Phillips. Decatur soon captured a French corsair (April, 1798). So many American armed vessels in West India waters, in the summer and autumn of 1798, astonished the British and French authorities there. At the close of that year the American navy consisted of twenty-three vessels, with a total of four hundred and forty-six guns. It was much strengthened during the year 1799 by the launching and putting into commission several new ships, and victories over the French on the ocean were gained. In February, 1799, Commodore Truxton, in the *Constellation*, captured the French frigate *L'Insurgente*; and in February, 1800, he gained a victory over the French frigate *La Vengeance*. The convention at Paris brought about peace between the two nations, and the navy of the United States was called to another field of action.

Navigation Act (1816). As most of the nations of Europe, since the war (1812-15), had adopted a very discriminating policy in favor of their own shipping, of the effects of which the American shipping interest loudly complained, Congress passed an act (March 1, 1816), copied from the famous English navigation act, which retaliated. Importations by foreign ships were to be limited to the produce of their respective countries. This provision was not to apply except to nations having a similar

regulation. The coasting trade, hitherto open to foreign vessels, was now restricted to those owned and built by Americans. To promote the increase of American seamen, all coasting and fishing vessels were required to have crews three fourths of whom were American; and all registered vessels, crews of which two fifths were Americans, under penalty of an additional tonnage duty, and, in case of fishing-vessels, forfeiture of the fishing bounties.

Navigation Acts. Soon after tobacco began to be imported from Virginia into England it was loaded with heavy duties by the king and vexed by royal proclamations. In consequence of this the Virginia Company sent all their tobacco to Holland, when the British government, feeling a diminution in the revenues, issued an order of the King and Council commanding that "no tobacco or other productions of the colonies should thenceforth be carried into any foreign ports until they were first landed in England and the customs paid." This was the commencement of a system of commercial monopoly to which the colonists were subjected, and which was afterwards enforced by various acts of Parliament until the Revolution of 1775-83. In 1651 the republican Parliament passed an act which prohibited the ships of all foreign nations whatever from trading with the plantations in America. It was not designed to trammel the commerce of the colonies, but to secure to the English merchant a monopoly of the trade with the colonies. In 1660, after the restoration of monarchy, the Parliament passed an act which renounced the provisions of the act of 1651, and added others which sacrificed the natural rights of the colonists to English interests. It enacted that no sugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, ginger, indigo, cotton, fustic, dye-woods of the growth of English territories in America, Asia, or Africa, should be transported thence to any other country than those belonging to the crown of England, under the penalty of forfeiture; and all vessels sailing to the colonies were to give bonds to bring said commodities to England. In 1663 another act to still further isolate the colonies was passed, by which the most valuable colonial staples—mentioned by name, and hence known as "enumerated articles"—were required to be shipped exclusively to England; to which country the colonists were also restricted for their supply of foreign goods. This act bore more heavily upon the Southern colonies than upon New England, for none of the "enumerated articles" were produced in the latter region. The preamble to this act avowed its purpose to be to keep the English-American colonies "in a firmer dependence" upon England, "rendering them more beneficial and advantageous" unto it; also to increase the shipping and manufacturing interests of England, and to "keep the plantation trade" to the English. The governors of the colonies were required to take an oath to enforce the navigation laws. These navigation laws were regarded by the colonists as oppressive, and by some as a violation of their charter rights. In Massachusetts they were disregard-

ed for a long time; in fact, it did not seem to apply to New England. This was complained of, and in 1677 Edward Randolph was sent to Boston to inquire concerning the matter. (See *Randolph, Edward*.) He reported that commerce there was free, no attention being given to the navigation laws; also that the government of Massachusetts "would make the world believe they were a free state." The king and ministry expressed their high displeasure at the conduct of that commonwealth; to which the General Court replied that the acts had never received the assent of the colony, and therefore were not obligatory; that they regarded the navigation acts as invasive of the rights, liberties, and property of his majesty's subjects in the colony, as they were not "represented in Parliament." This was the first enunciation of the idea formulated in the expression "Taxation without representation is tyranny." They, however, declared their loyalty to the king, and passed a local law for enforcing the observance of the navigation acts, which, they said, were "a great damage to his majesty's plantations." In 1696 an act was passed giving extensive and arbitrary power to custom-house officers; and at about the same time a Board of Trade and Plantations was established. (See *Board of Trade and Plantations*.) The royal colonial governors were required to take an oath that they would enforce these laws. In 1704 an act was secretly passed which placed rice among the "enumerated articles," and kept it there until 1730—an act specially grievous to the South Carolinians. In 1733 heavy duties were laid upon rum, sugar, and molasses imported into the colonies from foreign countries. This act sacrificed the interests of the Northern colonies for the benefit of the sugar planters, and it could not be enforced. The continuance of this act and attempts to enforce it, and other oppressive measures of like character, with restrictive laws concerning colonial manufactures, were among the causes which brought about the old war for independence. (See *Colonial Manufactures, Restrictions upon*.)

Navy, Continental, ORIGIN OF THE. Early in the autumn of 1775, Washington called the attention of the Continental Congress to the importance of fitting out naval vessels for the protection of the coast. Before any definite action had been taken, Washington had fitted out five or six armed vessels at Boston to "pick up" some of the British store-ships and transports. On Oct. 13, the Congress authorized the fitting-out of a swift-sailing vessel to carry ten carriage-guns and a proportionate number of swivels, with eighty men, for a cruise of three months. On the same day appeared the germ of our Navy Department in a committee appointed to direct marine affairs. On the 30th of the same month it was resolved to fit out two more vessels, one of twenty and the other of thirty-six guns; and about the middle of December the Congress issued an order for the construction of thirteen more armed vessels—five of thirty-two guns, five of twenty-eight guns, and three of thirteen guns—to be ready for sea by the 1st of March

following. The committee to whom the construction was referred reported that the average cost of the ships would be about \$60,000 each, and that materials for the same and for their equipment might all be obtained in the colonies, excepting cannons and gunpowder. The marine committee was increased in number, so as to consist of one member from each colony. This committee had very little executive power, but had general control of all naval operations under the direction of Congress. In November, 1776, Congress fixed the relative rank of officers in the army and navy as follows: an admiral was equal in rank to a general, a vice-admiral to a lieutenant-general, a commodore to a brigadier-general, the captain of a ship of forty guns and upwards to a colonel, the captain of a ship of ten to twenty guns to a major, and a lieutenant in the navy was equal to a captain in the army. Esek Hopkins, of Rhode Island, was commissioned the first commodore, and made commander-in-chief of the Continental Navy.

Navy Department, THE CONTINENTAL. On the 13th of October, 1775, Silas Deane, John Langdon, and Christopher Gadsden, were appointed a committee to direct naval affairs. Stephen Hopkins, Joseph Hewes, Richard Henry Lee, and John Adams, were added (Oct. 30) to this committee. The committee was at first styled the "Marine Committee," and on Dec. 13 it was so modelled as to include one member from each colony represented in the Congress. They had power to appoint all officers below the rank of third lieutenant, and had the control, under the immediate sanction of the Congress, of all naval operations. Their lack of professional knowledge caused many and vexatious mistakes, and the Congress finally resolved to select three persons well skilled in marine affairs to execute the business intrusted to the general committee. The experts constituted what was called "The Continental Navy Board, or Board of Assistants of the Marine Committee," which remained in active operation until the autumn of 1779, when a "Board of Admiralty" was established, composed of three commissioners not members of the Congress, and two members of that body. This board was subject in all cases to the control of the Congress. There was a secretary who performed a greater share of the actual business of the board. The headquarters of this Navy Department were at Philadelphia, then the seat of the national government. In 1781 another change took place, when General Alexander McDougall, of New York, was appointed "Secretary of the Marine," or Secretary of the Navy, under the old Confederation. A few months afterwards, Robert Morris, the distinguished financier of the Revolution, was appointed a general "Agent of Marine," and an admiralty seal was adopted, composed of an escutcheon with a chevron of stripes alternate red and white, an anchor below, and a ship under full sail as a crest.

Navy, INCREASE OF THE (1813). In January, 1813, an act was passed authorizing the building of four 74-gun ships and six first-class frigates.

A subsequent act (March 3) authorized the construction of six sloops-of-war, and as many ships on the lakes as the President might direct. Another act promised any person who, by torpedoes or other like contrivances, should burn, sink, or destroy any British armed vessels, half their value in money. So much enthusiasm had been created by the naval victories in 1812, that in several of the states acts were passed to build ships-of-war and present them to the government. The latter projects, however, failed.

Navy Island and the Caroline. When the revolt broke out in Canada in 1837, a party of sympathizing Americans took possession of Navy Island, belonging to Canada, situated in the Niagara River about two miles above the great falls. They mustered about seven hundred men, well provisioned, and provided with twenty pieces of cannon. They had a small steamboat named the *Caroline* to ply between the island and Schlosser, on the American side. On a dark night in December (1837) a party of Canadian royalists crossed the river, cut the *Caroline* loose from her moorings, and set her on fire. She went down the current and over the great cataract in full blaze. It is supposed some persons were on board of her.

Navy of the United States. The Continental Congress created a small navy. (See *Continental Navy*.) After the war there seemed to be little use for a navy, and it was neglected. This indifference was continued until 1793, when depredations upon American commerce by Algerine corsairs became more alarming than ever. (See *Algiers, Tribute to*.) In his message of December, 1793, Washington said in reference to a navy, "If we desire to avoid insult, we must be able to repel it; if we desire to secure peace, one of the most powerful instruments of our prosperity, it must be known that we are at all times ready for war." Acting upon this hint, Congress, in the spring of 1794, appropriated (March 11) about \$700,000 for creating a small navy. The President was authorized to procure, by purchase or otherwise, six frigates; but it was provided that work on them should cease in the event of a peace with Algiers being secured. He commissioned captains, superintendents, naval constructors, and navy-agents, six of each, and ordered the construction of six frigates. The treaty providing for the payment of tribute to Algiers was made late in 1795, when work on the vessels was suspended; but the folly of the suspension was soon made manifest when officers of the British cruisers boarded our merchant-vessels and impressed seamen into the British service under the pretext that they were deserters. (See *Impressment*.) The French, too, were becoming aggressive on the high seas. They depredated upon American commerce under the sanction of a barbarous decree of the Directory, which was almost tantamount to a declaration of war, issued in May, 1797. It authorized the capture of American vessels under certain conditions, and declared that any American found on board a hostile ship, though placed there without his consent (by impressment), should be hanged as

a pirate. In this state of our foreign relations, Congress directed three of the six frigates ordered in 1794 to be completed, launched, and put into commission; and before the close of the year the frigates *Constitution*, 44 guns, *Constellation*, 38 guns, and *United States*, 44 guns, were ready for sea. The *Constitution*, which won many a victory, is yet (1880) afloat. In 1798 ample provision was made by sea and land for war with France, which seemed impending. A Navy Department was created, and in April (1798), Benjamin Stodert, of Maryland, was appointed Secretary of the Navy.

Navy on Lake Ontario. The United States government early perceived the importance of having control of lakes Ontario and Erie when war with Great Britain began. Events in the early part of 1812 at the eastern end of Lake Ontario (see *Sackett's Harbor*), and the fact that the British were building war-vessels at Kingston, made it important that an American squadron should appear on those waters very speedily. The only hope of creating a squadron in time to secure the supremacy of the lake to the Americans was in their ability to convert merchant-vessels afloat into warriors. Several of these were afloat on the lake. To destroy them was a prime object of the British; to save them was a prime object of the Americans. Dearborn's armistice allowed the escape of some of them confined on the St. Lawrence, and at the close of August (1812), Isaac Chauncey, one of the best practical seamen in the navy, was commissioned commander-in-chief of the navy on lakes Ontario and Erie. Henry Eckford, a naturalized Scotchman, and an eminent ship-builder, with a competent number of men, hastened to Sackett's Harbor to prepare a squadron. With great facility one was prepared, and on Nov. 8 Chauncey appeared on Lake Ontario with a little squadron consisting of the armed schooners *Conquest*, *Growler*, *Pert*, *Scourge*, *Governor Tompkins*, and *Hamilton*. These were originally the merchant-schooners *Genesee Packet*, *Experiment*, *Collector*, *Lord Nelson*, *Charles and Anne*, and *Diana*. Their armament consisted chiefly of long guns mounted on circles, with a few lighter ones that could be of very little service. Already two schooners, the *Oneida* and *Julia*, were in the service. The keel of the frigate *Madison*, 24 guns, was laid before Chauncey's arrival, and when finished she mounted forty guns. There was an average of only five guns to each vessel of the remainder of the Lake Ontario squadron.

Navy quickly created (1861). The little navy of the United States at the beginning of March was scattered and inefficient, and only one vessel (the *Brooklyn*) was available for use on the Atlantic coast. (See *Navy, The*, in 1861.) The Secretary of the Navy and Assistant-secretary Fox put forth all their energies in the creation of a navy to meet the exigencies of the times. At the beginning of July, four months after Lincoln's administration came into power, there were forty-three armed vessels engaged in the blockade of the Southern ports, and in defence of the coast on the eastern side of the

continent. These were divided into two squadrons, known respectively as the Atlantic and Gulf squadrons. The former, under the command of Flag-officer Silas H. Stringham, consisted of twenty-two vessels and an aggregate of 296 guns and 3300 men; the latter, commanded by Flag-officer W. Mervine, consisted of twenty-one vessels, with an aggregate of 282 guns and 3500 men. Before the close of the year 1861, the Secretary purchased and put into commission no less than 137 vessels, and had contracted for the building of a large number of steamships of a substantial class, suitable for performing continuous duty off the coasts in all weathers. The Secretary recommended the appointment of a competent board to inquire into and report on the subject of iron-clad vessels. Calls for recruits for the navy were promptly complied with, and for the want of them no vessel was ever detained more than two or three days. Since March 1, 259 officers had resigned or been dismissed, but their places were soon all filled; for many who had retired to civil pursuits now came forward and offered their services to their country and were recommissioned.

Navy, THE (1861). At the beginning of Lincoln's administration, the little navy of the United States had been placed far beyond the reach of the government for immediate use. The total number of vessels of all classes belonging to the navy was ninety, carrying, or designed to carry, 2415 guns. Of this number only forty-two were in commission. Twenty-eight ships, having in the aggregate 874 guns, were lying in ports dismantled, and none of them could be made ready for sea in less than several weeks' time; some of them would require at least six months. The most of them in commission had been sent to distant seas, and the entire available force for the defence of the whole Atlantic coast of the Republic was the ship *Brooklyn*, of 25 guns, and the store-ship *Relief*, of 2 guns. The *Brooklyn* drew too much water to enter Charleston harbor with safety when the war had been commenced, and the *Relief* had been ordered to Africa with stores for a squadron there. Many of the officers of the navy were born in slave-labor states, and sixty of them, including eleven at the Naval Academy, Annapolis, had resigned their commissions and deserted their flag. Such was the utterly powerless condition of the navy to assist in preserving the life of the Republic when Isaac Toucey, of Connecticut, resigned the office of Secretary of the Navy to Gideon Welles, of the same state, on March 4, 1861.

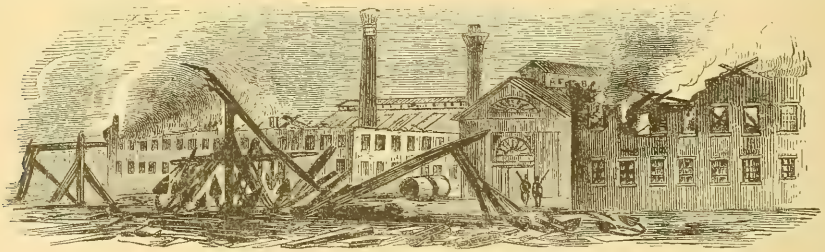
Navy, the New. (For facts and statistics regarding the present U. S. Navy, see *Supplement*.)

Navy, United States, during the Civil War. The services of the navy during the Civil War were not appreciated by the people. They were often subservient to the army in its operations near rivers. On the ocean the services of the navy were chiefly required in blockading ports, or in bombarding coast defences. The Confederates had no navy proper, only flotillas of gunboats and "rams" on rivers and in har-

bors, and not a ship on the ocean excepting a few roving piratical vessels depredating upon American commerce. Therefore there were few occasions for purely naval battles. But in the sphere in which the United States Navy was called upon to act, it performed services of incalculable value, and that arm of the united service deserves equal honor and gratitude with the army. The service during the war was more exhausting and really wonderful in operations and results than that of any other navy in the world. The Navy Department displayed great energy. The navy was reduced to the smallest proportions during fifty years of peace, and kept in existence only for the protection of the continually expanding commerce of the Republic. When the Civil War began, its men numbered only 7600, and of its officers, 322, natives of slave-labor states, soon deserted their flag and gave their strength to the enemies of the Republic. Yet, before an adequate naval force could be organized and vessels prepared, the blockade of several Southern ports was ordered and was maintained. Merchant-vessels were converted into warriors, and volunteers from that service filled the vacant offices. Of these, about 7600 were received and commissioned, and the rank and file in the service, aggregating about 7500 men when the war opened, numbered 51,500 when it closed. At the beginning, there were 3844 artisans and laborers in the navy; at the end, there were 16,880, exclusive of about an equal number employed in private ship-yards under contract. During the four years, 208 war-vessels were constructed and fitted out, and 418 vessels were purchased and converted into war-ships. Of these 613 were steamers, the whole costing nearly \$19,000,000. (See *Navy Quickly Created*.)

Navy-yard near Norfolk. **DESTRUCTION AT THE.** This naval station of the United States was at Gosport, opposite Norfolk, Va., on the bank of a deep and sluggish stream flowing out of the Great Dismal Swamp. The station was one of the oldest and most extensive belonging to the government, and covered an area three fourths of a mile in length and one fourth of a

mile in width. In the river the largest vessels-of-war might float, and everything for building and finishing such vessels was seen there in greatest perfection. The quantities of arms and munitions laid up were enormous. There were at least 2000 pieces of heavy cannon fit for service, 300 of which were new Dahlgren guns. It was estimated that the aggregate value of the property there was between \$9,000,000 and \$10,000,000. Besides this, several war-vessels were afloat there. The late administration, to avoid irritating the Virginia politicians, had left all of this public property to exposure or destruction. Even the new administration (Mr. Lincoln's) was very circumspect. When directing (April 4, 1861) Commodore McCauley to "put the shipping and public property in condition to be moved and placed beyond danger should it become necessary," he was warned to "take no steps that would give needless alarm." Meanwhile, the Virginia Secessionists had proposed to seize or destroy all this property. So early as the night of April 16, two light-boats of eighty tons each were sunk in the channel of the Elizabeth River, below Norfolk, to prevent the government vessels leaving the stream. The government, alarmed, sent Captain Hiram Paulding from Washington with instructions for McCauley to lose no time in "arming the *Merimac*, and in getting the *Plymouth* and *Dolphin* beyond danger; to have the *Germantown* in condition to be towed out, and to put the more valuable property, ordnance and stores, on ship-board, so that they could at any moment be moved beyond danger." He was also instructed to defend the property under his charge "at any hazard, repelling by force, if necessary, any and all attempts to seize it, whether by mob violence, organized effort, or any assumed authority." Paulding caused the frigate *Cumberland* to be placed, with a full crew and armament on board, so as to command the entire navy-yard, and then returned to Washington. McCauley, apparently unsuspecting of treachery around him, neglected to carry out the instructions sent him until it was too late. His southern-born officers deceived him by protestations of loyalty. "You have no Pensacola officers here," they said to McCauley. (See *Navy-yard near Pensacola*.) "We will never desert you; we will stand by you until the last, even unto death." On the day after the passage of the Virginia Ordinance of Secession, they deserted their flag and joined the insurgents. On the evening of April 18, General



VIEW OF THE NAVY-YARD AFTER THE FIRE.

mile in width. In the river the largest vessels-of-war might float, and everything for building and finishing such vessels was seen there in greatest perfection. The quantities of arms and munitions laid up were enormous. There were at least 2000 pieces of heavy cannon fit for service, 300 of which were new Dahlgren guns. It was estimated that the aggregate value of

Taliaferro, commander of the forces in southeastern Virginia, appeared at Norfolk with his staff, and prepared to seize the navy-yard and the ships-of-war. The disloyal officers had corrupted the workmen in the navy-yard, and these were also ready to join the insurgents. The military companies of Norfolk and Portsmouth were paraded under arms. Several companies

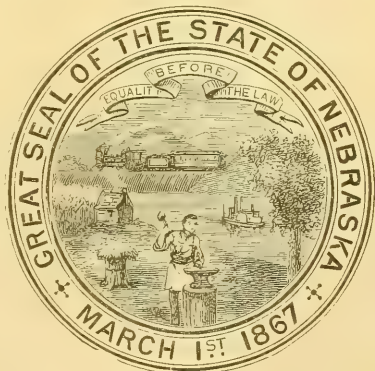
of riflemen came from Petersburg, in number about 600, and a corps came from Richmond, bringing with them fourteen pieces of heavy rifled cannon, and plenty of ammunition. With these troops Taliaferro felt certain of success. McCauley now felt equally certain that he could not withstand so large an insurgent force, and to quiet the people of Norfolk, who were greatly excited by a rumor that the guns of the vessels were to be opened on the town, he sent word that he should make no movement except in self-defence. On the return of his flag from Norfolk, McCauley gave orders for scuttling all the vessels to prevent their falling into the hands of the insurgents. This was done at four o'clock in the afternoon. The *Cumberland* only was spared. Word had reached Washington of the remissness of McCauley, and Paulding was despatched in the *Pawnee* with 100 marines to relieve the commodore. At Fortress Monroe he took on board 350 Massachusetts volunteers just arrived, but when he reached Norfolk the scuttling of the vessels was completed. They might all have been saved. Paulding saw the fatal error. He saw that more than scuttling must be performed to render the ships useless to the insurgents. He also perceived that with his small land force he could not defend the navy-yard; so, using the discretionary power given him, he proceeded to burn the slowly sinking ships, and to commit to the flames all the buildings and other inflammable property in the navy-yard. He sent 100 men under Lieutenant J. H. Russell with sledge-hammers to knock off the trunnions of the cannons. The Dahlgren guns resisted the hammers, but those of a large number of the old-pattern guns were destroyed. Many were spiked, but so indifferently that they were soon repaired by the insurgents. All the men were taken on board the *Pawnee* and *Cumberland*, excepting those who were to commit the work of destruction. Before dawn on the morning of April 21 the conflagration was started, but the destruction was not made complete. The vessels, with the men, immediately withdrew, when the insurgents took possession and saved all the buildings, provisions, and stores in the yard, except the immense ship-houses, the barracks, and rigging, sail, and ordnance lofts. A vast number of the cannons were uninjured, and played a conspicuous part in the war on the side of the Confederates. The money value of the property destroyed was estimated at \$7,000,000. Two of the sunken vessels, the *Merrimac* and *Plymouth*, which were not consumed, were afterwards raised by the Confederates and converted into powerful iron-clad vessels-of-war. Norfolk, and Portsmouth opposite, and old Fort Norfolk, on the river-bank below, were taken possession of by the insurgents. The possession of these places and of Harper's Ferry were important acquisitions for the Confederates, preliminary to an attempt to seize Washington. (See *Harper's Ferry, Surrender of*.) To the treachery of southern-born naval officers, and the neglect of Commodore McCauley, may be attributed the loss of the navy-yard at Gosport.

Navy-yard near Pensacola, SURRENDER OF

II.—6*

THE. The United States had a navy-yard at the little village of Warrington, five miles from the entrance to Pensacola Bay. It was under the charge of Commodore Armstrong, of the United States Navy. He was surrounded by disloyal men, and when, on the morning of Jan. 10 (when Fort Pickens was threatened), about five hundred Florida and Alabama troops, and a few from Mississippi, commanded by Colonel Lomax, appeared at the navy-yard and demanded its surrender, Armstrong found himself powerless. Of the sixty officers and men under his command, he afterwards said more than three fourths were disloyal, and some were actively so. Commander Farrand was actually among the insurgents, who demanded the surrender to the governor of Florida. The disloyal men would have revolted if the commodore had made resistance. Lieutenant Renshaw, the flag-officer, one of the leaders among the disloyal men, immediately ordered the national standard to be lowered. It fell to the ground, and was greeted with derisive laughter. The command of the navy-yard was then given to Captain V. N. Randolph, who had deserted his flag; and the post, with ordnance and stores valued at \$156,000, passed into the hands of the authorities of Florida, Jan. 10, 1861.

Nebraska was made a territory May 30, 1854 (see *Kansas and Nebraska*), embracing 351,558 square miles. A portion was set off to Colorado in February, 1861, and another portion to Dakota in March. In March, 1863, Nebraska was further shorn by taking off the Territory of Idaho. In 1860 the people voted against the proposition to form a state government. In April, 1864, Con-



STATE SEAL OF NEBRASKA.

gress authorized the people to organize a state government, but the continuance of war and the prevalence of Indian hostilities prevented action in the matter until early in 1866, when the territorial legislature framed a state constitution, which was ratified in June. A bill to admit Nebraska as a state passed Congress soon afterwards, but President Johnson withheld his signature. A similar bill was passed in January, 1867, but was vetoed by the President. It was passed over his veto by a vote of thirty to nine in the Senate and of one hundred and twenty to forty-four in the House, and Nebraska was

admitted a state of the Union March 1, 1867. Lincoln was chosen as the seat of government soon afterwards. The climate of Nebraska is dry and exhilarating. The temperature in winter is 22° and in summer about 70°. Population in 1890, 1,056,793.

Negley, JAMES S., was born in Alleghany County, Penn., Dec. 26, 1826. He served in the war against Mexico, and when the Civil War broke out he commanded a brigade of state militia. He assisted in organizing and disciplining volunteers, and commanded a brigade of them under General Patterson on the Upper Potomac. Made brigadier-general of volunteers in October, 1861, he served under General Mitchell in the West, and afterwards commanded a division of the Army of the Ohio. For his services in the battle of Stone's River he was made major-general, and was distinguished in the battle of Chickamanga. He was a member of Congress from Pittsburgh from 1869 to 1871.

Negotiation and Conciliation. James Duane's proposition to open negotiations for the accommodation of the dispute between Great Britain and her colonies (see *Fortifications, First, ordered by Congress*) was considered by Congress at the same time when a proposition for a similar purpose, which had come from Lord North, was before that body. The timid portion of Congress prevailed, and it was resolved to address another petition to his majesty, but at the same time to put the colonies into a state of defence. Duane's motion was carried, but against a most determined and unyielding opposition; but it rather retarded the prospect of a peaceful solution. It had no practical significance, unless it was intended to accept the proposition of Lord North as the basis for an agreement. To this the majority would never consent, for it involved a consent to sacrifice the charter of Massachusetts. The wavering of Congress at that time led the people to neglect the steady system of resistance on which they had entered, and to wait for an accommodation, while the king gained a respite which he employed to his advantage in subduing the colonies. The influence of Duane's proposition was pernicious.

Negro Fort in Florida. Colonel Nichols, commander of the British force which Jackson drove away from Pensacola (which see), built a fort on the Apalachicola River, which he gave, with its cannons and magazine, at the close of the war, to his Indian and negro allies. Loud complaints were made by the Georgians that this fort was an asylum for runaway slaves. In the early fall of 1816 measures were taken to abate the nuisance. A body of Creeks, under their chief, McIntosh (which see), marched to attack the fort. Colonel Clinch descended from Camp Crawford, on the river above, with regulars and artillerymen, to co-operate with the Creeks. While Clinch was preparing to erect batteries, two gunboats arrived from New Orleans, one of which, hurling a red-hot shot, blew up the magazine. In the explosion three hundred and fifty Indian and negro men, women, and children perished. The fort was immedi-

ately taken possession of, and the black commander and the Indian chief were put to death in cold blood. Clinch returned in triumph, with a number of negroes in chains as runaways. Such was the prelude to the first Seminole war (which see).

Negro Plots in New York. The citizens of New York were disturbed by apprehensions of a conspiracy of their negro slaves, in 1712, to burn the city and destroy the inhabitants. The population then was about six thousand, composed largely of slaves. Nineteen of those suspected of the crime suffered. A more disastrous alarm about a plot of the negroes for destroying the city occurred in the spring and summer of 1741, when the population was about ten thousand, one fifth of whom were negro slaves. The most prominent merchants of the city were engaged in the slave-trade. Conscious of the natural aspirations of the human soul for personal freedom, very stringent rules had been adopted for the subordination of the slaves, and every transgression was severely punished. Every act of insubordination made the community tremble with fear of possible consequences, and this feeling of insecurity needed only a slight provocation to ripen into a general panic. A trifling robbery occurred in March, 1741, in the house of a merchant, which was traced to some negroes. Nine fires occurred in different parts of the city soon afterwards, and though most of them were merely the burning of chimneys, they produced terror. A general alarm was instantly created in the public mind. Numerous arrests were made and a searching investigation was instituted by the magistrates, but no trace of incendiarism could be found. Three heavy rewards were offered by the city authorities for the arrest and conviction of the perpetrators, and a full pardon to such of them as should reveal a knowledge of their crime and of their associates. Here was a chance for the wicked. An indentured servant-woman (Mary Burton) purchased her liberty and secured a reward of \$500 by pretending to give information of a plot, formed by a low tavern-keeper and her master and three negroes, to burn the city and murder the white people. This story was confirmed by an Irish prostitute, convicted of a robbery, who, to recommend herself to mercy, turned informer. Many other arrests were now made among the slaves and free negroes. The Supreme Court of the province was specially convened for the investigation of the matter, and a grand jury, composed of some of the principal inhabitants of the city, held a solemn inquest. Other informers besides Mary Burton speedily appeared, and fresh victims were seized. The panic and fury among the population was fearful, and the authorities were stimulated thereby to hurried inquiries, unjust convictions, and the infliction of awful punishments on the innocent. The eight lawyers who then composed the bar of New York all assisted, by turns, in the prosecution. The negroes had no counsel, and were convicted and executed on insufficient evidence. The lawyers vied with each other in abusing the poor, terrified victims, and Chief-justice De Lancey, in

passing sentence, vied with the lawyers in this abuse. Many confessed to save their lives, and then accused others. John Ury, a schoolmaster, and reputed Roman Catholic priest, was denounced by Mary Burton, and, notwithstanding his solemn protestations of innocence and the absence of competent testimony to convict him, he was hanged. His arrest was the signal for the arrest of other white people, and the reign of terror was fearfully intensified; but, when (as in the case of the Salem witchcraft excitement), Mary Burton accused prominent persons known to be innocent, the delusion instantly abated, the prisons were cleared of victims, and the public mind was calmed. From the 11th of May until the 29th of August, one hundred and fifty-four negroes were committed to prison, fourteen of whom were burned at the stake, eighteen hanged, and seventy-one transported. During the same period twenty-four white people were imprisoned, four of whom were hanged. There was no more foundation for this insane panic about a negro plot and its fearful consequences than there was for the witchcraft delusion and its terrible results. (See *Witchcraft, Salem*.)

Negro Refugees (1783). During the invasions of Virginia and the Carolinas a considerable number of slaves had joined the British army, under promises of protection. In the final arrangements, under the treaty of peace, before the evacuation of New York by the British troops, Sir Guy Carleton, who was in chief command of the latter, and charged with the details in the execution of the treaty regarding England, in honor bound still to protect these slaves, refused to give them up, and they were sent to Nova Scotia in the first vessels that carried away loyalists to the same province from New York. (See *American Loyalists*.) From that province many of these freedmen emigrated to Sierra Leone, Africa, where their descendants are now among the wealthiest and most enlightened population of that African colony.

Negro Slavery in Connecticut. In 1650 a new code of laws, much of it copied from that of Massachusetts, was adopted by the General Court. In making provision for guarding against depredations by Indians, it was enacted that "if satisfaction for injuries is refused or neglected, the Indians themselves may be seized, and, because it may be chargeable keeping them in prison, they may be delivered to the injured party, either to serve or to be shipped out and exchanged for negroes, as the case will justly bear." This is the first law adopted in Connecticut recognizing the right of holding negro slaves and enslaving the Indians. Provision was also made for selling debtors among the white people to compel them to do service until the legal claim of the creditor was satisfied.

Negro Soldiers, AN UNPATRIOTIC ACTION. When young John Laurens, then in the camp of Washington, heard of the British invasion of his state, early in 1779, he felt anxious to fly to its defence. He proposed to gather a regiment of negroes. Alexander Hamilton recommended

the measure to the President of Congress. He was favorable to the plan of emancipation undertaken in Rhode Island, by allowing every able-bodied slave who should enlist for the war his personal freedom. He argued that they would make good soldiers; that their natural faculties were as good as those of white people; that giving them freedom with their muskets would insure their fidelity, animate their courage, and have a good influence on those who should remain, by opening a door for their emancipation. Two days afterwards the elder Laurens wrote to Washington on the subject, saying: "If we had arms for three thousand such black men as I could enlist in Carolina, I should have no doubt of success in driving the British out of Georgia and subduing East Florida before the end of July." Washington, guided by prudence and common-sense, replied that the policy was a questionable one, "for, should we begin to form battalions of them [negroes], I have not the smallest doubt, if the war is to be prosecuted, of their [the British] following us in it, and justifying the measure upon our own ground. The contest, then, must be, who can arm fastest? And where are our arms?" Colonel Huger, of South Carolina, proposed that the two southernmost of the thirteen states should detach the most vigorous and enterprising negroes from the rest by arming three thousand of them under white officers. He explained that his state was weak, because many of its citizens must remain at home to prevent revolt among the slaves, or their desertion to the enemy. Congress recommended the measure of arming the negroes. These appeals for help against the invaders met no other response. The Carolinian planters were irritated by the proposition to emancipate and arm their slaves, and the Executive Council was induced (as Prevost and a British army were then besieging Charleston) to ask of the invading general his terms for a capitulation. Prevost offered peace and protection to those who would accept them; to others, to be prisoners of war. The Executive Council debated the surrender of the town, and, in defiance of remonstrances from Moultrie, young Laurens (who was in Charleston), and others, they proposed "a neutrality during the war between Great Britain and America, the question whether the state shall belong to Great Britain or remain one of the United States to be determined by the treaty of peace between the two powers." Laurens was requested to carry this proposition to Prevost, but he scornfully refused, and another took it. Prevost refused to treat, and demanded the surrender of the troops as prisoners of war. "Then we will fight it out," exclaimed Moultrie, and left the tent of the governor and council. Gadsden followed him out and said, "Act according to your judgment, and we will support you." The British fell back towards Georgia that night.

Negro Suffrage in the District of Columbia. In December, 1866, Congress, by a large majority of both houses, passed a bill for granting the elective franchise in the District of Co

lumbia (which is under the immediate jurisdiction of Congress) to all persons, "without any distinction on account of color or race." President Johnson vetoed the bill (Jan. 7, 1867), but it became a law, nevertheless. This was the beginning of the extension of the elective franchise to the colored people of the Republic.

Negro Troops in the Civil War. During the intense excitement following the attack on Fort Sumter (April, 1861), a few colored men in New York, inspired by military movements around them, met in a hired room, and began to drill, thinking their services might be wanted. They were threatened by sympathizers with the insurgents, and the superintendent of the police deemed it prudent to order the colored men to desist. More than a year later, General Hunter (see *Hunter's Emancipation Proclamation*) directed the organization of colored troops in his Department of the South. It raised a storm of indignation in Congress, and that body, by resolution, inquired whether these were military organizations of fugitive slaves; and if so, whether they were authorized by the government. General Hunter answered that there was no regiment of "fugitive" slaves, but there was "a fine regiment of men whose late masters are fugitive rebels—men who everywhere fly before the appearance of the National flag, leaving their servants behind them to shift as best they can for themselves." A few weeks later the Secretary of War directed (Aug. 25, 1862) the military governors of the coast islands of South Carolina to "arm, uniform, equip, and receive into the service of the United States such number of volunteers of African descent, not exceeding five thousand," as he might deem expedient to guard that region from harm "by the public enemy." Just before, General Phelps recommended to General Butler the arming of negroes; and not long afterwards the former, impressed with the perils of his isolated situation in New Orleans, called for volunteers from the free colored men of that city. Not long afterwards three regiments of colored troops were organized there. Another year passed by, and yet there were very few colored troops in the service. There was universal prejudice against them. When a draft for soldiers appeared inevitable, that prejudice gave way; and when Lee invaded Pennsylvania (June, 1863), the government authorized the enlistment of colored troops in the free-labor states. Congress authorized (July 16, 1863) the President to accept them as volunteers, and prescribed the enrolment of the militia, which should in all cases "include all able-bodied citizens," without distinction of color. Yet so strong remained the prejudice against the enlistment of negroes that in May, 1863, Colonel Shaw's Massachusetts regiment (see *Siege of Charleston*) was warned that it could not be protected from insult in the city of New York if it should attempt to pass through it, and it sailed from Boston for Port Royal. A few months later a regiment of colored troops, bearing a flag wrought by women of the city of New York, marched through its streets for the battle-field, cheered by thousands of citizens. From

that time colored troops were freely enlisted everywhere. Adjutant-general Thomas went to the Mississippi valley (March, 1863) for the express purpose of promoting such enlistments, and was successful.

Negroes Recognized as Property. On the demand of Henry Laurens, of South Carolina, who entered into the negotiations for a preliminary treaty of peace, at a late hour, a clause in the treaty (1782) was interlined, prohibiting, in the British evacuation, the "carrying away any negroes or other property of the inhabitants." So this treaty of peace, in which no word had, excepting indirectly, indicated the existence of slavery in the United States, made known to the world that men could be held as property.

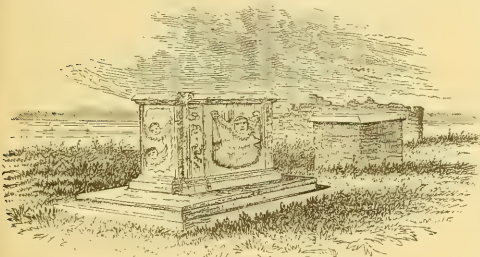
Nelson, THOMAS, was born in York County, Va., Dec. 26, 1733; died there, Jan. 4, 1789. He was educated at Cambridge, Eng., and, returning home when not twenty-one years of age, was elected to the House of Burgesses. He married, and settled at Yorktown. He was a member of the popular convention at Williamsburg in August, 1774; also in 1775. He was conspicuous in the Virginia Convention which, in May, 1776, framed a state constitution, and was then a member of the Continental Congress. He voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence, and in May, 1777, resigned his seat. In August following he was appointed the commander of the state forces, and, raising a troop of cavalry, went to Philadelphia with them to assist in opposing Howe's expedition up the Chesapeake. Having responded to the appeal of Congress, and finding the danger not so imminent as was supposed, he disbanded his troops, and resumed his duties in the Legislature. In Congress again in 1779, he was compelled soon to resign on account of ill-health. The marauding expedition of Matthews, in May, 1779, caused him to organize the militia to repel it; and a call for a loan of \$2,000,000 having been made by the state, Nelson raised a larger portion of it on his own personal security. He also advanced the money to pay the arrears of two Virginia regiments, who would not march to the



THE NELSON MANSION.

South until they were paid. These patriotic sacrifices so impaired his ample fortune that he suffered pecuniary embarrassments in the later

years of his life. A part of the year 1781 he was governor of the state. It was while Cornwallis was ravaging the commonwealth. Commanding the militia at the siege of Yorktown, he directed the artillery to bombard his own fine stone mansion, standing within the British lines, the supposed headquarters of Cornwallis. After the surrender, General Nelson passed the rest of his days in retirement, with an impaired constitution. He died so poor that his remaining possessions were sold to pay his debts. The statue of Nelson is one of the six composing a part of the Washington monument at Richmond. The remains of Thomas Nelson were interred in the old family cemetery at Yorktown, where, until 1860, some of the old monuments were



THE NELSON TOMBS AT YORKTOWN.

well preserved. Among them was that over the grave of the first immigrant of the family (the one nearest in the picture), who was known as "Scotch Tom." The second one covers the grave of William Nelson, President of the King's Council in Virginia, and in a vault, near the fragment of a brick wall seen beyond, rest the remains of the signer of the Declaration of Independence.

Nelson, WILLIAM, was born at Maysville, Ky., in 1825; died at Louisville, Ky., Sept. 29, 1862, from a wound received during a quarrel with General Jefferson C. Davis. He entered the United States Navy in 1840, was at the siege of Vera Cruz in 1847, and afterwards served in the Mediterranean. He was ordered into the military service in Kentucky by the government, with the rank of brigadier-general. He was successful in raising troops, did good service in eastern Kentucky, commanded a division of Buell's army in the battle of Shiloh, and after being wounded in a struggle at Richmond, Ky., he was put in command at Louisville, when it was threatened by Bragg's army. In July, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers.

Neutral Ground, THE. This region was about thirty miles in extent along the eastern shore of the Hudson River, in Westchester County, stretching northward from Spyten Duyvel Creek and the Harlem River. It included nearly all of that county. It was a populous and highly cultivated region, lying between the American and British lines. Being within neither, it was called "Neutral Ground." The inhabitants suffered dreadfully, being with-

out military protection, from the gangs of thieves and plunderers of both parties. (See *Cow-boys and Skinners*.)

Neutral Nation, or Neuters. In the territory on both sides of the Niagara River, between the Hurons on the west and the Iroquois on the east, was a tribe related to both, who remained neutral in the wars between their opposing kindred, and so obtained the name of *Ationdironks*, or *Neuters*. The Franciscan missionaries visited them in 1629, and afterwards the Jesuits attempted to plant missions among them, but failed. These Indians informed the Franciscans, or *Récollets*, of oil-springs in their country, which have become famous in their products in our day. In 1649, after the Iroquois had conquered the Hurons, they attacked the *Neuters*, who killed many of them, and incorporated the remainder among the Five Nations. (See *Iroquois Confederacy*.)

Neutrality Law (1816). It had been proposed to Spain to accept, on the part of the United States, in satisfaction of the claims against her, a cession of Florida; and, that all controversies between the two governments might be settled at once, to make the Colorado of Texas the western boundary of the United States in Spanish territory. The Spanish minister at Washington demanded, as preliminary to such an arrangement, the restoration to Spain of West Florida, and the exclusion of the flags of insurrectionary Spanish provinces of South America, they being used by privateersmen. An act was accordingly passed in March, 1816, and penalties provided for a violation of it. This act secured peace between the two countries.

Neutrality, WASHINGTON'S PROCLAMATION OF. As soon as the news of the execution of Louis XVI., at Paris (January, 1793), reached England and the Continental powers, they coalesced against France, and war between them and the Revolutionists was announced. When the news of this event and the conduct of Genet (which see) reached Washington, at Mount Vernon, his mind was filled with anxiety. By the treaty of commerce, French privateers were entitled to shelter in American ports—a shelter not to be extended to the enemies of France. By the treaty of alliance, the United States were bound, in express terms, to guarantee the French possessions in America. War between England and the United States was threatened in the aspect of events. Washington hastened to Philadelphia, to consult with his cabinet. The questions were put—Whether a proclamation to prevent citizens of the United States interfering in the impending war should be issued? Should it contain a declaration of neutrality, or what? Should a minister from the French Republic be received? If so, should the reception be absolute or qualified? Were the United States bound to consider the treaties with France as applying to the present state of the parties, or might they be renounced or suspended? Suppose the treaties binding, what was the effect of the guarantee? Did it apply in the case of an offensive

war: Was the present war offensive or defensive on the part of France? Did the treaty with France require the exclusion of English ships of war, other than privateers, from the ports of the United States? Was it advisable to call an extra session of Congress? After careful discussion, it was unanimously concluded that a proclamation of neutrality should be issued, that a new French minister should be received, and that a special session of Congress was not expedient. There were some differences of opinion upon other points under discussion. A proclamation of neutrality was put forth April 22, 1793. It announced the disposition of the United States to pursue a friendly and impartial conduct towards all of the belligerent powers; it exhorted and warned citizens of the United States to avoid all acts contrary to this disposition; declared the resolution of the government not only not to interfere on behalf of those who might expose themselves to punishment or forfeiture under the law of nations by aiding or abetting either of the belligerents, but to cause all such acts, done within the jurisdiction of the United States, to be prosecuted in the proper courts.

Neutrals, RIGHTS OF, ATTACKED. When the Berlin Decree (see *Orders and Decrees*) was promulgated, John Armstrong, American minister at Paris, inquired of the French Minister of Marine how it was to be interpreted concerning American vessels, and was answered that American vessels bound to and from a British port would not be molested; and such was the fact. For nearly a year the French cruisers did not interfere with American vessels; but after the peace of Tilsit (July 7, 1807) Napoleon employed the released French army in enforcing his "Continental System." According to a new interpretation of the Berlin Decree, given by Regnier, French Minister of Justice, American vessels, laden with merchandise derived from England and her colonies, by whomsoever owned, were liable to seizure by French cruisers. This announced intention of forcing the United States into at least a passive co-operation with Bonaparte's schemes against British commerce was speedily carried into execution by the confiscation of the cargo of the American ship *Horizon*, which had accidentally been stranded on the coast of France in November, 1807. The ground of condemnation was, that the cargo consisted of merchandise of British origin. This served as a precedent for the confiscation of a large amount of American property on the sea. Already Great Britain had exhibited her intended policy towards neutrals. When she heard of the secret provisions of the treaty of Tilsit (July, 1807), in anticipation of the supposed designs of France, she sent a formidable naval force to Copenhagen, and demanded (Sept. 2) the surrender of the Danish fleet, which being refused, it was seized by force, and the vessels taken to England. Her policy was further foreshadowed by an Order in Council (Nov. 11, 1807) prohibiting any neutral trade with France or her allies—in other words, with the whole of Europe, Sweden excepted—unless through Great Britain. A color-

able pretext for these orders was the Berlin Decree.

Nevada formed a part of the Mexican cession to the United States by the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (which see). The Territory of Nevada was created by act of Congress, March 2, 1861, from a portion of Utah. By act of July 14, 1862, a further portion of Utah was added.



STATE SEAL OF NEVADA.

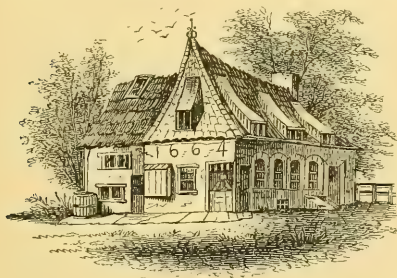
A state constitution was framed by a convention, and Nevada was admitted as a state of the Union Oct. 31, 1864. Nevada had few inhabitants until after 1859, in the summer of which year silver was found in the Washoe district, when settlers began to pour in. Virginia City sprang up as if by magic, and in 1864 it was the second city west of the Rocky Mountains. Gold had been discovered in 1849, by Mormons, but ten years later not more than 1000 inhabitants were within the territory. But, two years after the discovery of silver, the number of inhabitants had risen (1861) to 16,000. The number of tribal Indians in the state in 1874 was between 4000 and 5000. The population in 1880 was 62,266; in 1890 it had decreased to 45,761.

New Albion. In 1634 a patent, under the great seal of Ireland, was granted (June 21) by the Earl of Strafford (then lord-lieutenant) to Edward Plowden, of a province which included the whole of New Jersey, with all the adjacent islands, which was named New Albion. Nothing came of it. This grant shows that the Dutch title to New Netherland was not recognized by the English.

New Amstel. In 1656 the Dutch West India Company transferred to the city of Amsterdam all the Dutch territory on the South (Delaware) River, from the west side of Christian Kill to the mouth of the river, for the sum of 700,000 guilders. It was named Nieuwe-Amstel, after one of the suburbs belonging to the city between the Amstel River and the Harlem Sea. The burgomasters of Amsterdam appointed six commissioners to manage the colony, who were to "sit and hold their meetings at the West India House on Tuesdays and Thursdays." The city offered a free passage to emigrants, lands for residences, provisions and clothing for a year, and a proper person for a schoolmaster, who should also read the Scriptures in public, and set the Psalms. The municipal government was the same as in Amsterdam. The colonists were not to be taxed for ten years, and regulations were made in respect to trade. The States-General ratified all the arrangements, on condition that when there should be two hundred inhabitants in the colony a church should be organized and a clergyman established there. There was a garrison of sixty soldiers sent out, under Captain Martin Crygier. Fort Kasimer was transferred to the new corporation, and in

April, 1657, nearly two hundred emigrants sailed for New Amstel. A government was formally organized on April 21, 1657. Shipwrecked Englishmen from Virginia, whom the Dutch had rescued from the Indians, became residents of New Amstel, and prosperity marked the settlement. In 1658 there was a "goody town of about one hundred houses," and the population exceeded six hundred. The people, however, soon began to be discontented, and many deserted the colony. Rumors came that Maryland was about to claim the territory, and there was much uneasiness and alarm. These rumors were followed by an agent of the Maryland government, who demanded that the Dutch should either take an oath of allegiance to Lord Baltimore or leave. (See *Boundary between New Netherland and Maryland*.) Discouragements and disasters followed, and the City Council of Amsterdam proposed to retransfer New Amstel to the Dutch West India Company. In 1659 the colony was overwhelmed with debt, its soldiers had all left but five, and the inhabited part of the colony did not extend beyond two Dutch miles from Fort Kasimer. In 1664 it, with all New Netherland, was surrendered to the English, who plundered the people of their crops, live-stock, stores, and provisions. Some of the inhabitants were seized as prisoners of war, and sold into bondage in Virginia.

New Amsterdam. The village that grew around the trading-post on Manhattan Island was called Manhattan until the arrival of Governor Stuyvesant, in 1647, when it was called New Amsterdam. Fort Amsterdam, a large work "with four angles," and faced with solid stone, had been built by Governor Minnits on the southern point of the island. The village grew apace. Its ways were crooked, its houses straggling,



A DUTCH HOUSE IN NEW AMSTERDAM.

and its whole aspect was unattractive until, under the new administration, improvements were begun, when it contained about eight hundred people. They were under the immediate government of the Director-general, and there was much restiveness under the rigorous rule of Stuyvesant, who opposed every concession to the popular will. They asked for a municipal government, but one was not granted until 1652, and in 1653 a city government was organized, much after the model of old Amsterdam, but with less political freedom. The soul of Stuyvesant was troubled by this "imprudent intrust-

ing of power with the people." The burghers wished more power, but it could not then be obtained. A city seal and a "silver signet" for New Amsterdam, with a painted coat-of-arms, were sent to them from Holland. The Church grew, and as there were freedom and toleration there in a degree, the population increased, and the Dutch were soon largely mixed with other nationalities. When a stranger came, they did not ask him what was his creed or nation, but only, Do you want a lot and to become a citizen? For the Hollanders had more enlarged views of the rights of conscience than any other people at that time. New, like old, Amsterdam became quite a cosmopolitan town. Of the latter, Andrew Marvell quaintly wrote:

"Hence Amsterdam, Turk, Christian, pagan, Jew,
Staple of sects and mint of schism grew;
That bank of conscience where not one so strange
Opinion but finds credit and exchange;
In vain for Catholics ourselves we bear—
The *Universal Church* is only there."

When New Amsterdam was surrendered to the English (1664) it contained more than three hundred houses and about fifteen hundred souls.

New Amsterdam, INDIAN INVASION OF. On the return of Governor Stuyvesant from his expedition against the Swedes on the Delaware (see *New Sweden*), he found the people of his capital on Manhattan in the wildest confusion. Van Dyck, a former civil officer, detected a squaw stealing peaches from his garden and killed her. The fury of her tribe was kindled, and the long peace of ten years with the barbarians was suddenly broken. Before daybreak one morning (Sept. 15, 1655) almost two thousand, chiefly of the River Indians, appeared before New Amsterdam in an immense flotilla of canoes. They landed and distributed themselves through the town, and, under the pretence of looking for Northern Indians, broke into several dwellings in search of Van Dyck. The people immediately assembled at the fort, and summoned the leaders of the invasion before them. The barbarians agreed to leave the city before sunset. They broke their promise, and in the evening shot Van Dyck. The inhabitants flew to arms, and drove the Indians to their canoes. They crossed the Hudson and ravaged New Jersey and also Staten Island. Within three days one hundred white people were killed, and one hundred and fifty were made captives.

New Apportionment. After the completion and arrangement of the census reports of population in 1890, a new apportionment of representation was made, establishing the ratio of one to 173,901. (See *United States, Apportionment of Representatives in Congress*.)

Newark (Canada), DESTRUCTION OF. When General McClure, early in December, 1813, resolved to abandon Fort George, the question presented itself to his mind, "Shall I leave the foe comfortable quarters, and thus endanger Fort Niagara?" Unfortunately, his judgment answered "No;" and, after attempting to blow up Fort George while its little garrison was crossing the river to Fort Niagara, he set fire to

the beautiful village of Newark, near by. The weather was intensely cold. The inhabitants had been given only a few hours' warning, and, with little food and clothing, a large number of helpless women and children were driven from their homes by the flames into the wintry air and deep snow, homeless wanderers. It was a wanton and cruel act. Only one house out of one hundred and fifty in the village was left standing. When the British arrived at Fort George they resolved on swift retaliation, and very soon six villages and many isolated houses along the New York side of the Niagara River, together with some vessels, were burned, and scores of innocent persons were massacred. This was the fearful cost of the destruction of Newark.

Newark, N. J. The purchase of the site of Newark and the adjoining villages of Bloomfield, Belleville, Caldwell, and Orange was made in 1666 by a party from Milford, Conn., for which they gave the Indians 50 double hands of powder, 100 bars of lead, 20 axes, 20 coats, 10 guns, 20 pistols, 10 kettles, 10 swords, 4 blankets, 4 barrels of beer, 2 pairs of breeches, 50 knives, 20 hoes, 850 fathoms of wampum, 2 ankers of whiskey (or something equivalent), and 3 troopers' coats. Others joined the first settlers, in the autumn, from Guilford and Branford. Self-government and independence of the proprietors seems to have been secured to the new colony, as well as religious freedom guaranteed. The colonists agreed that no one should be admitted to the rights of freemen in the colony except he belonged to the Congregational Church. Abraham Pierson was chosen minister of the first church, and the settlement was called Newark, says Whitehead, in compliment to him, he having come from a place of that name in England.

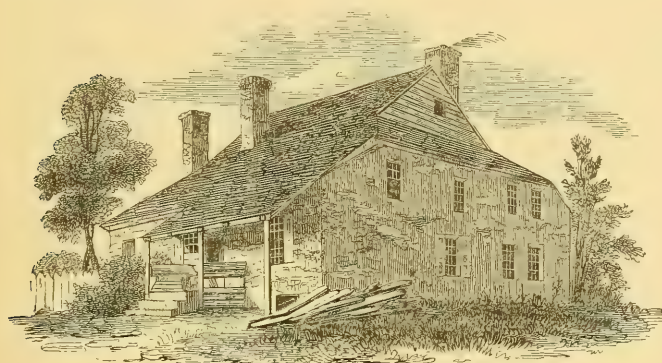
Newbern, or New Berne (N. C.), CAPTURE OF. After the capture of Roanoke Island (which see), the National forces made other important movements on the coast of North Carolina. Goldsborough having been ordered to Fortress Monroe, the fleet was left in command of Commodore Rowan. General Burnside, assisted by Generals Reno, Foster, and Parke, at the head of 15,000 troops, proceeded against Newbern, on the Neuse River. They appeared with the fleet in that stream, about eighteen miles below the city, on the evening of March 12, 1862, and early the next morning the troops were landed and marched against the defences of the town. The Confederates, under General Branch, were inferior in numbers, but were strongly intrenched. The march of the Nationals was made in a drenching rain, the troops dragging heavy cannons after them through the wet clay, into which men sometimes sank knee-deep. At sunset the head of the Nationals was halted and bivouacked within a mile and a half of the Confederate works, and during the night the main body came up. Meanwhile the gunboats had moved up the river abreast the army, Rowan's flag-ship *Delaware* leading. The Confederate forces consisted of eight regiments of infan-

try and 500 cavalry, with three batteries of field-artillery of six guns each. These occupied a line of intrenchments extending more than a mile, supported by an immense line of rifle-pits and detached works. On the river-bank, four miles below Newbern, was Fort Thompson, armed with thirteen heavy guns. The Nationals made the attack at eight o'clock on the morning of the 14th. Foster's brigade bore the brunt of the battle for about four hours. General Parke supported him until it was evident that Foster could sustain himself, when the former, with nearly his whole brigade, went to the support of General Reno in a flank movement. After the Fourth Rhode Island Battery had captured a Confederate one and dispersed the garrison, Reno, who had been losing heavily in front of another battery, called up his reserves of Pennsylvanians, under Colonel Hartranft, and ordered them to charge the work. It was speedily done, and the battery was captured with the assistance of New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts troops. Pressed on all sides, the Confederates now fled, leaving everything behind, and were pursued by Foster to the verge of the Trent. The Confederates burned the railroad and turnpike bridges over that stream behind them (the former by sending a blazing raft against it) and escaped. The gunboats had compelled the evacuation of Fort Thompson. Large numbers of the inhabitants of Newbern fled from the town. Foster's troops took possession of the place, and the general was appointed military governor of Newbern. The Nationals lost 100 killed and 498 wounded. The Confederate loss was much less in killed and wounded, but 200 of them were made prisoners. They reported 64 killed, 101 wounded, and 413 missing.

New Brunswick (N. J.), SKIRMISH AT. In June, 1777, Sir William Howe tried to outgeneral Washington in New Jersey, but failed, and was compelled to retreat. Washington held Howe firmly in check at and near New Brunswick, on the Raritan; and on June 20 the former, with his army at Middlebrook, learned that his antagonist was preparing to fall back to Amboy. Hoping to cut off his rear-guard, Washington ordered (June 21) Maxwell to lie between New Brunswick and Amboy, and Sullivan to join Greene near the former place, while the main body should rest within supporting distance. These orders failed of execution. On the morning of the 22d the column of Germans, under De Heister, began its march towards Amboy. The corps of Cornwallis moved more slowly, for it had to cross the Raritan over a narrow bridge, near the end of which stood Howe, on high ground, watching the movements. Greene had a battery of three guns on a hill, but too far distant to be effective. When more than one half of Cornwallis's column had passed the bridge, his pickets were fiercely attacked by Morgan with his riflemen, and were driven back upon the main column. Howe instantly put himself at the head of the two nearest regiments to meet the attack, when a sharp skirmish for half an hour occurred. The Brit-

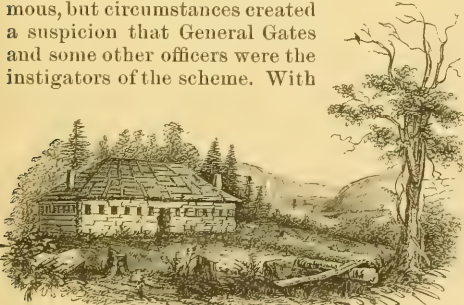
ish artillery, having been brought to bear on Morgan's corps, swept the woods with grape-shot and caused the riflemen to retreat. Between fifty and one hundred of the British were killed or wounded. The rest of their march to Amboy was unobstructed.

Newburgh Addresses, THE. The Continental army was cantoned in huts near Newburgh in the winter and spring of 1783, while negotiations for peace were in progress. Washington's headquarters were in the "Hasbrouck House" (yet well preserved in 1880), at Newburgh. In the latter part of the winter the



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT NEWBURGH.

discontent in the army on account of the arrears in their pay, which had existed a long time, was more formidable than ever. In December previous the officers had sent a memorial to the Congress, by the hands of General McDougall, the head of a committee, asking for a satisfactory adjustment of all things which caused such just and wide-spread discontent. Congress was almost powerless to move satisfactorily in the matter. On the 11th of March (1783) a well-written address was circulated through the American camp, which, in effect, advised the army to take matters into their own hands, and to make demonstrations that should arouse the fears of the people and of the Congress, and thereby obtain justice for themselves. The address was anonymous, but circumstances created a suspicion that General Gates and some other officers were the instigators of the scheme. With



THE TEMPLE.

this address was privately circulated a notification of a meeting of officers at a large building called "The Temple." Washington's attention

was called to the matter on the day the addresses were circulated, and he determined to guide and control the movement. He referred to it in general orders the next morning; expressed his disapprobation of the whole proceedings as disorderly; and requested the general and field officers, with one officer from every company in the army, to meet at "New Building" (the Temple) on March 15, and requested General Gates, the senior officer, to preside. On the appearance of the order, the writer of the anonymous address issued another, more subdued in tone, in which he tried to give the impression that

Washington approved the scheme, the time of meeting being changed. The meeting was fully attended, and deep solemnity pervaded the assembly when Washington stepped upon the platform to read an address which he had prepared for the occasion. As he put on his spectacles, he said, "You see, gentlemen, that I have not only grown *gray*, but *blind*, in your service." This simple remark, under the circumstances, had a powerful effect upon the assemblage. His address was compact, patriotic, clear in expression

and meaning, mild yet severe in its rebuke, and withal vitally important in its relations to the well-being of the infant republic as well as the army. When it was concluded, Washington retired and left the officers to discuss the subject unrestrained by his presence. Their conference was brief. They passed resolutions, by unanimous vote, thanking the commander-in-chief for the wise course he had pursued; expressing their undiminished attachment to their country; their unshaken confidence in the good faith of Congress; and their determination to bear with patience their grievances until, in due time, they should be redressed. The proceedings were signed by General Gates, as president of the meeting, and three days afterwards Washington, in general orders, expressed his entire satisfaction. The author of the "Newburgh Addresses" was Major Armstrong, one of Gates's military family, then only twenty-five years of age, who afterwards held important civil offices. (See *Armstrong, John*.)

New Connecticut. Sixteen of the newly formed townships on the eastern side of the Connecticut River, wishing to escape the heavy burden of taxes imposed by the war, applied to isolated and independent Vermont to be received as a part of that state. (See *Vermont as a Sovereign State*.) They were adopted (1779), under the pretence that, by Mason's patent of New Hampshire, that state extended only sixty miles inland, and that those towns were west of that limit. As Vermont yet hoped to be admitted to the Union, and the Continental Congress, disapproving of the proceeding, sent a committee to inquire into the matter, the con-

nection with the New Hampshire towns was very soon dissolved. An ineffectual attempt was then made (June, 1779) by the towns on both sides of the river to constitute themselves into a state, with the title of "New Connecticut." New Hampshire retaliated by renewing her old claim to the territory of Vermont as the New Hampshire Grants (which see). Very soon Vermont began to act on the offensive. The towns on the east bank of the river that were to form a part of New Connecticut were again received as a part of Vermont, and along with them all the new townships of New York east of the Hudson and north of the Massachusetts line.

New England. Sir Humphrey Gilbert (1583) and Bartholomew Gosnold (1602) visited the New England coast, and the latter planted a temporary colony there. (See *Gilbert, Sir Humphrey*, and *Gosnold, Bartholomew*.) The account given by Gosnold excited desires on the part of friends of Sir Walter Raleigh to make new efforts to found settlements in America, especially in the northeastern parts. Richard Hakluyt, who was learned in naval and commercial science (see *Hakluyt, Richard*), Martin Pring, and Bartholomew Gosnold, all friends of Raleigh, induced merchants of Bristol to fit out two ships in the spring of 1603 to visit the coasts discovered by Gosnold. Early in April (a fortnight after the death of Queen Elizabeth), the *Speedwell*, of 50 tons, and the *Discoverer*, 26 tons, sailed from Milford Haven under the command of Pring, who commanded the larger vessel in person. William Browne was master of the *Discoverer*, accompanied by Robert Galtens as supercargo or general agent of the expedition. They entered Penobscot Bay early in June, and went up the Penobscot River some distance; then, sailing along the coast, they entered the mouths of the Saco and other principal streams of Maine; and finally, sailing southward, they landed on a large island abounding with grapes, which they named Martin's (corrupted to Martha's) Vineyard. Returning to England at the end of six months, Pring confirmed Gosnold's account of the country. This led to other expeditions; and in 1605 the Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel fitted out a vessel and placed it under the command of George Weymouth, another friend of Raleigh, who had explored the coasts of Labrador in search of a northwest passage to India. He sailed from England in March, 1605, taking the shorter passage pursued by Gosnold; but storms delayed him so that it was six weeks before he saw the American coast at Nantucket. Turning northward, he sailed up a large river forty miles and set up crosses. He then entered Penobscot Bay, where he opened traffic with the natives. At length Weymouth thought he observed signs of treachery on the part of the Indians, and he determined to resent the affront. He invited some of the leading barbarians to a feast on board his vessel, but only three of the cautious natives appeared. These he made drunk, and confined them in his vessel. Then he went on shore with a box of trinkets and tried in vain to induce some of them to go to

the vessel; so Weymouth and his men seized two of them, and, after great exertion, they were taken to the ship, with two handsome birch-bark canoes. "It was as much as five or six of us could do to get them into the boat," wrote Weymouth, "for they were strong, and so naked that our best hold was by the hair of their heads." Then the anchor was raised, the vessel sailed to England, and three of the captives were given to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, then Governor of Plymouth. This outrage left on the shores of New England the seeds of much future trouble with the natives. By these voyages and explorations all doubts about the commercial value of every part of North America were definitely settled, and led to the almost immediate execution of a vast plan for colonizing the shores of the Western Continent by obtaining from King James I. a patent for a domain extending from north latitude 34° to 45°. This territory was divided, and two companies were formed to settle it—one called the "London Company," and the other the "Plymouth Company." (See *London Company* and *Plymouth Company*.) The latter company, destined to settle the northern portion, possessing much narrower resources than the other, its efforts were proportionably more feeble and inadequate. Some visits to and slight explorations of the region were made during six or seven years by the Plymouth Company after obtaining their charter, but discouragements ensued. At length the restless Captain Smith, who did not remain long idle after his return from Virginia in 1609, induced four London merchants to join him in fitting out two ships for the purpose of discovery and traffic in northern Virginia, the domain of the Plymouth Company. With these ships Smith left the Downs at the beginning of March, 1614, Captain Thomas Hunt commanding one of the vessels, and he the other. They first landed on Mohegan Island, twenty miles south of the mouth of the Penobscot River, where they sought whales, but found none. Leaving most of the crew to pursue ordinary fishing, Smith had seven small boats built, in which he and eight men ranged the coast from Penobscot eastward and westward. They went as far south as Cape Cod, bartering with the natives for beaver and other furs. They went up the several rivers some distance in the interior, and after an absence of seven months the expedition returned to England. From his observations of the coasts, islands, and headlands, Captain Smith constructed a map, which he laid before Prince Charles (afterwards Charles I.), a young man of considerable literary ability and artistic taste. Sir Francis Drake had given the name of New Albion (New England) to the region of the continent which he had discovered on the Pacific coast, and the region now discovered by Smith on the Atlantic coast, opposite Drake's New Albion, was, out of respect to that great navigator, called "New England," or New Albion. It has been so called ever since. It includes the country from twenty miles east of the Hudson River and the eastern shores of Lake Champlain to the eastern boundary of the

United States, and includes the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Vermont. Smith named the promontory at the north entrance to Massachusetts Bay Tragabigzanda, in compliment to a Turkish lady to whom he had been a slave in Constantinople. Prince Charles, however, in filial regard for his mother (Anne of Denmark), named it Cape Anne. Smith gave his name to a cluster of islands, which were afterwards named Isles of Shoals. These and other places, changed from names given by Smith, still retain their new names. The crime of Weymouth was repeated on this expedition. Captain Smith left Hunt, an avaricious and profligate man, to finish the lading of his vessel with fish, and instructed him to take the cargo to Malaga, Spain, for a market. Hunt sailed along the New England coast, and at Cape Cod he enticed a chief named Squanto and twenty-six of his tribe on board his vessel and treacherously carried them to Spain, where all but two of them were sold for slaves. Some benevolent friars took them to be educated for missionaries among the Indians, but only two (one of them Squanto) returned to America. The natives on the New England coast were greatly exasperated; and when, the same year, another English vessel came to these shores to traffic, bringing with them the two kidnapped natives, the latter united with their countrymen in a measure of revenge. In twenty canoes the Indians attacked the Englishmen with arrows, wounding the master of the ship and several others of the company, and the adventurers hastened back to England. The natives of New England long remembered these outrages. (See *Plymouth Company*.)

New England Alarmed by the French. When the French took possession of Acadia they rifled the trading-house at Penobscot belonging to Plymouth (1633). Word soon came that the French had bought Alexander's plantation (see *Alexander, Sir William*) in Nova Scotia; that Cardinal Richelieu had sent over soldiers and Jesuits; and that preparations were making in the East by the French to take possession of all New England. The authorities at Boston and Plymouth were alarmed, and took measures to meet the supposed danger. The alarm was groundless. The French, intent only upon trade, did not mean to harm the English; yet the spoliation of the trading-house was suspicious. (See *French, First Collision of, with New-Englanders*.)

New England an Island. A dozen years after Henry Hudson had satisfied his Dutch employers that the river which bears his name was not a strait or arm of the sea, the impression prevailed in England among educated people that it really was so, and that, in consequence, New England was an island. The Rev. Robert Cushman, who preached the first sermon in New England (December, 1621) by a regularly ordained minister, in his *Epistle Dedicatory*, says of New England: "So far as we can yet find, it is an island, and near about the quantity of England, being cut out from the mainland in America, as England is from the main of Eu-

rope, by a great arm of the sea, which entereth in 40° [New York Bay] and goeth out either into the South Sea [Pacific Ocean] or else into the Bay of Canada [Gulf of St. Lawrence]."

New England Army. After the affair at Lexington and Concord, in which only Massachusetts militiamen were engaged, an appeal was made for help to the other New England colonies. The Assembly of Rhode Island voted an army of observation, of 1500 men; the Connecticut Assembly voted to raise six regiments, of 1000 men each, four of them to serve with the army before Boston. Stark, of New Hampshire, had hastened towards Boston with volunteers; and a special convention of delegates of that province thought it best not to anticipate the action of the Provincial Congress, which would convene on May 17, by taking steps to organize an army. The several towns were requested to forward supplies to the volunteers who had followed Stark. Meanwhile, the Massachusetts Provincial Congress directed enlistments among the New Hampshire soldiers in camp. As the new regiments began to be formed, the volunteers returned home. The little New England army before Boston amounted to only about 3000 men for some time.

New England Confederacy. (See *United Colonies of New England*.)

New England Convention. In January, 1777, a convention of representatives of the New England states assembled at Providence, R. I., to consult about the defence of that state, when a scheme was agreed upon for regulating by law the price of labor, produce, manufactured articles, and imported goods, with a view of checking the already rapidly depreciating Continental paper-money. This scheme, though opposed by the merchants, was enacted into a law by the New England legislatures. This measure was such a conspicuous failure that another convention recommended a repeal of all acts regulating prices.

New England Divines Invited to the Westminster Assembly. An assembly of divines was called at Westminster by the British Parliament in 1641, and urgent letters were sent to Messrs. Cotton, of Boston; Hooker, of Hartford; and Davenport, of New Haven, to represent the New England churches in that assembly. They declined the invitation, for they had word concerning a breach between Parliament and the king, and letters from England advised them to wait. It was at the beginning of the Civil War in England. Besides, Mr. Hooker was then framing a system of Church government for the Congregational churches of New England, let the determination at Westminster be what it might.

New England, DIVISION OF. The Council of New England, before making a final surrender of their charter (see *Plymouth Company*), divided their territory in America into twelve provinces, assigning them to eight of the principal members, and the king was asked to grant a proprietary charter to each, like that

given to Lord Baltimore. Gorges had two provinces, including his share of the grant of Lacoia, which extended from the Kennebec to the Piscataqua. The Earl of Stirling (see *Alexander, Sir William*) had for his share the district from Pemaquid Point to the St. Croix (which the French claimed), Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and a part of Long Island. Mason retained New Hampshire. The district west of Narraganset Bay was assigned to the Marquis of Hamilton. The other provinces were never claimed under this division.

New England Indians. These bands of the Algonquin family inhabited the country from the Connecticut River to the Saco in Maine. The principal tribes were the Narragansets, in Rhode Island; the Pokanokets, or Wampanoags, on the eastern shore of Narraganset Bay and in a portion of Massachusetts; the Nipmucks, in the centre of Massachusetts; the Massachusetts, in the vicinity of Boston and the shore southward; and the Pawtuckets, in the northeastern part of Massachusetts, embracing the Pennacooks, of New Hampshire. These were all divided into smaller bands, with petty chiefs. The New England Indians were all warlike, and were continually fighting the Five Nations, or the Hudson River Mohegans, until the Dutch effected a pacification among them in 1673. Two years afterwards, Metacomet, commonly known as "King Philip," chief of the Wampanoags, aroused most of the New England tribes to war against the English colonists. The fierce war that ensued ended in the subjugation of the Indians and the death of Philip in 1676, when the power of the New England Indians was completely broken. Some joined the more eastern tribes, and others took refuge in Canada. The latter, in revenge, joined others in desolating the New England frontiers. The conquest of Canada put a stop to these distressing incursions. When the English came, in 1620, the New England Indians numbered about 10,000; now scarcely a representative exists on the earth, and the dialects of all, excepting that of the Narragansets, are forgotten.

New England Restraining Bill. As an offset to the American Association, Lord North brought forward a bill, (Feb. 3, 1775) for cutting off the trade of New England elsewhere than to Great Britain, Ireland, and the British West Indies, and suspending the prosecution by those colonies of the Newfoundland fishery, a principal branch of their trade and industry at that time. The bill became a law by a large majority vote. It had just passed when news of the general support of the American Association reached London, and a similar restraining act was passed, extending to all the other colonies, excepting New York, North Carolina, and Georgia, the first and last having refused to adopt the Association.

New England States, POSITION OF (1861). The events of secession in the Southern States startled the people of the North from their dream of security. They had so often heard of dissolving the government from the lips of poli-

ticians of the slave-labor states that they imagined the turmoil at the South at the time of Mr. Lincoln's election would end, as such exhibitions had done before, with words, and not acts. But when events in Charleston harbor late in 1860, and insurrectionary movements in other slave-labor states, occurred, they saw that "the South" was in terrible earnest, and began to prepare for the defence of the imperilled Union. The governor of Maine (Israel Washburne, Jr.), in his message at the opening of the Legislature, ably reviewed the slavery question, counselled conciliatory measures, and recommended the repeal of any laws that were unconstitutional. "Allow no stain," he said, "on the faith and devotion of the state to the Constitution and the rights of the states." He stigmatized secession as a crime without the shadow of a right, and that the demands for concession made by the politicians of the slave-labor states were incompatible with the safety of the Constitution. He declared that the laws must be executed, pledged the state to a support of the Union, and was sustained by the action of the Legislature, which, on Jan. 16 (1861), declared, by a large majority, the attachment of the people of Maine to the Union and loyalty to the government. That body requested the governor to assure the President that "the entire resources of the state, in men and money," were pledged "to the support of the Constitution and Union." Willing to make concessions for the sake of peace, the Senate afterwards passed a bill repealing the Personal Liberty Act.—Massachusetts was an early and conspicuous actor in the drama of the Civil War. In many respects, in nature and society, that state was the opposite of South Carolina. It was regarded by the people of the slave-labor states as the constant generator of abolitionism. Its governor (John A. Andrew) at that time was an earnest co-worker with the Massachusetts representatives in the national Senate, Wilson and Sumner, in the cause of final emancipation for the slaves; and the immense celebration in Boston, in December, 1860, of the anniversary of the death of John Brown (see *John Brown's Raid*), gave intensity to the disgust and hatred felt by "the South" towards the people of Massachusetts. The retiring governor of Massachusetts (N. P. Banks) declared in his valedictory address that the North would never submit to the revolutionary acts in the Southern States. His successor (Andrew) was equally outspoken. He sent agents to other New England States to propose a military combination to support the national government, first, in defending Washington city from seizure, and afterwards in defending the laws. The volunteer companies in the state, with an aggregate membership of about 5000, began drilling, and the governor made satisfactory arrangements with General Scott for Massachusetts troops to start for the capital at a moment's notice. It was the blood of Massachusetts soldiers that was first spilled in the late Civil War (see *Mob in Baltimore*, 1861).—Rhode Island, the smallest state in the Union, was alive with patriotic zeal when the Union

was attacked. Her manufacturing interests were intimately connected with the slave-labor states; yet no considerations of self-interest could allure her people from the love of the Union and allegiance to the national government. Her Legislature made honorable concessions for the sake of peace. At the close of January, 1861, it repealed the Personal Liberty Act. The spirit of the enemies of the government was unknown. They sneered at this act as "the pusillanimity of Yankee cowards." It was the first and the last olive-branch offered by Rhode Island; and after that her men and money were freely lavished for the protection of the Republic from violent hands. Her governor led her men, sword in hand. Nothing was done in the remaining New England states, in relation to secession, until after the blow was struck at Sumter, when their people arose almost as an individual to defend the government.

New England Theology and Ecclesiasticism. Before the War of 1812-15, the Congregational clergy of New England still adhered to the old colonial notion of having provision made by law for the public support of religious institutions. The Congregational clergy formed a powerful element in the state. They had been the standard-bearers of that section of the Federal party who had most violently opposed the war. Their pulpits rang with denunciations of the administration and the Democratic leaders. This Church establishment was really a strong if not a main pillar of support for the New England Federal party. But a great revulsion of feeling took place; and in all the states where no Church establishments existed by the support of legal provisions, great efforts were made to build up a voluntary system of religious institutions. In consequence of this effort there was a rapid increase in the numbers and influence of Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians. Their churches multiplied; and, in a degree, they united into aggregate associations. Great religious excitement prevailed in all parts of the country, after the close of the war, characterized by the features of the revival under the preaching of Whitefield forty or fifty years before. These new sectaries held that a change of heart and an internal consciousness of a call were sufficient, without human learning, to qualify a man for the Gospel ministry and a teacher of morals. These notions found much resistance among the New England clergy, who insisted that the ministry should be educated; and they repudiated the idea of placing the most learned and most ignorant on a level as spiritual teachers and leaders. The Whitefieldian revival had left two elements within the New England Church establishment, which, though radically opposed, adhered by the force of mutual interest and forbearance. These were the "Latitudinarians" (which see) and "Evangelicals." The former maintained their predominance in the churches, and thought religion of consequence, principally, as affording security for government and property, and a basis for morals. They revered the Bible, but insisted upon interpreting it by the lights of reason and science. These Latitudina-

rians were pushing a portion of the Congregational churches of New England towards a repudiation of the five distinguishing points of Calvinistic theology, denying most vehemently the fundamental doctrine of total depravity. In the evangelical section of the Congregational churches in New England this heresy produced alarm. The headquarters of the evangelical party was Yale College, Timothy Dwight, the president, and grandson of the great theologian Jonathan Edwards, being one of its most conspicuous leaders. They gradually obtained control of the Connecticut and New Hampshire churches; but in Massachusetts they were less successful. Harvard College was in the hands of the Latitudinarians, who possessed, also, all the current Congregational churches of Boston, besides many others in different parts of the state. Andover Theological Seminary was established (1808) as the source and seat of a purer theology, to counteract the influence of Harvard. Evangelical ministers were sent from Connecticut to convert backsliding Bostonians. They were zealous but not very successful in their missionary work. This evangelical party had been characterized by a growing austerity, a denunciation of everything in the shape of amusements, public or private, a particular zeal for the observance of the Sabbath, and a marked tendency towards a return to the rigid system of morals and theology of the early Puritans in New England. In 1815 the "Evangelicals" presented numerous petitions to Congress and the State Legislatures, praying for a law to stop the carriage of the mail on Sunday; and many annoying attempts were made to enforce the old and obsolete New England laws against travelling on Sunday. These movements had a political effect. The "Liberals," or Latitudinarians, of New Hampshire saw no other means of protection against the reign of Puritanical legislation than to join the Democrats in overthrowing an establishment with which they no longer sympathized. Even the most liberal of the clergy were very chary of open opposition to these new theological rigors; but the body of the intelligent and educated laymen, among whom latitudinarian ideas were completely predominant, was as little disposed to go back to Puritan austerities as to Puritan theology. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts put a stop to the efforts of the zealous people who clamored for legislation in favor of a rigorous observance of the Sabbath, by deciding that an arrest on Sunday, for the violation of the Sunday law, was as much a violation of that law by the arresting officer as travelling on Sunday. Finally, the evangelical Congregationalists in Massachusetts, finding it impossible to dislodge the Latitudinarians, imbibed the spirit of the Baptists, Methodists, and other sects, and set up opposition conventicles under the very eaves of the old parish churches. Thus, when they could no longer control the old theological and ecclesiastical establishment in New England, they took steps to destroy it altogether, even expressing a doubt of its justice and utility.

New-Englanders in North Carolina. At

about 1660, some adventurers from New England planted a little colony near the mouth of the Cape Fear River. Wishing to retain them there, and also to attract others, the proprietors of Carolina offered a hundred acres of land for each free settler or man-servant, and fifty acres for each woman-servant or slave, at a quit-rent of half a penny an acre. They were also offered liberty of conscience, and the right to nominate thirteen persons, out of whom the proprietaries were to select a governor and six councillors; the authority to make laws to be vested in an assembly composed of the governor, the council, and a body of delegates to be elected for that purpose by the settlers. When these settlers proposed to send children of the Indians to New England to be educated, the barbarians suspected them of a design to sell them into slavery; and they became so hostile that most of the adventurers, discouraged, returned home. (See *North Carolina*.)

New-Englanders on the Delaware. In 1640, a New England captain purchased some land on the Delaware River of the Indians. Early the next spring colonists from New England, led by Robert Cogswell, sailed from the Connecticut for the Delaware in search of a warmer climate and more fertile soil. They lay for a few days at Manhattan, when they were warned not to encroach upon New Netherland territory. The English, according to De Vries, "claimed everything;" and these New-Englanders went on and had no trouble in finding Indians to sell them "unoccupied lands." Indeed, the Indians were ready to sell the same lands to as many people as possible. At the middle of the summer they had planted corn and built trading-posts on Salem Creek, New Jersey, and near the mouth of the Schuylkill in Pennsylvania. Both settlements prospered, and the New Haven colony (see *New Haven*) took them under their protection. They came to grief in the spring of 1642. The intrusion of the New-Englanders was as distasteful to the Swedes on the Delaware as to the Dutch; and when the Dutch commissioner at Fort Nassau (see *Wal-loons*) was instructed by Governor Kieft to expel them, the Swedes assisted the Dutch with energy. The New-Englanders yielded without resistance. They were carried prisoners to Manhattan, and thence sent home to Connecticut. In 1644 a vessel was fitted out by a Boston company, and ascended the Delaware in search of the great interior lakes of which rumors had reached Massachusetts, and whence they supposed much of the supply of bear-skins was derived. The vessel was closely followed by two pinnaces, one Dutch and the other Swedish. The New-Englanders were forbidden to trade with the Indians, and the vessel was not allowed to pass the Swedish fort. Thus excluded from the Delaware, the New-Englanders approached the Hudson River, by establishing a trading-post on the Housatonic, nearly one hundred miles from the Sound.

New-Englanders push Westward. Expansion and aggression were two conspicuous char-

acteristics of the New England colonists. The Plymouth people early sought to plant outlying settlements on the Eastern coasts; and after the beautiful country along Long Island Sound, west of the Pequod (Thames) River, was revealed to the New-Englanders, where they chased the flying Pequods (see *Pequod War*), they planted a settlement at New Haven, and, pushing westward, crowded the Dutch not only on the mainland, but on Long Island. In 1639, Lewis Gardiner purchased an island still known as Gardiner's Island, at the east end of Long Island; and James Farrett, sent out by the Earl of Stirling (see *Alexander, Sir William*), took possession of Shelter Island, near by, at the same time claiming the whole of Long Island. In 1640 a company from Lynn, Massachusetts, led by Captain Daniel Howe, attempted a settlement at Cow Neck, in North Hempstead, Long Island, when they tore down the arms of the Prince of Orange which they found upon a tree, and carved in place of the shield a grinning face. Howe and his companions were driven off by the Dutch, and settled on the eastern extremity of Long Island. Some New Haven people took possession of Southold, on the Sound; and only a few years later, Hempstead, Jamaica, Flushing, Southampton, East Hampton, Brookhaven, Huntington, and Oyster Bay were settled by the English, and some of them were united to Connecticut, politically, until after the surrender of New Netherland to the English in 1664, when all Long Island came under the jurisdiction of New York.

Newfoundland, COLONY SENT TO. On April 27, 1610, a patent was granted to the Earl of Northampton, Lord Chief Baron Taunfuld, Sir Francis Bacon, then solicitor-general, and other gentlemen of distinction, and some Bristol merchants, for a part of the Island of Newfoundland. There were forty-four persons named in the charter, and the company was named "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol for the Colony and Plantation in Newfoundland." John Guy, of Bristol, was soon sent out with a colony of thirty-nine persons to Newfoundland, and began a settlement at Conception Bay. The domain lay between north latitude 46° and 52°, together with the seas and islands lying within ten leagues of the coast.

Newfoundland, FRENCH AT. In 1504 some adventurous French fishermen of Normandy and other coast provinces of France prosecuted their vocation off the shores of Newfoundland, in the first French vessels that ever appeared there.

Newfoundland taken Possession of by the English. Sir Humphrey Gilbert arrived at St. John's harbor, Newfoundland, Aug. 3, 1583, where he found thirty-six vessels belonging to various nations. Pitching his tent on shore in sight of all the vessels, he summoned the merchants and masters to assemble on the shore. He had brought two hundred and sixty men from England, in two ships and three barks, to make a settlement on that island. Being assembled, Gilbert read his commission (which was inter-

preted to the foreigners), when a twig and piece of turf was presented to him. Then he made proclamation that, by virtue of his commission from Queen Elizabeth, he took possession of the harbor of St. John, and two hundred leagues around it each way, for the crown of England. He asserted eminent domain, and that all who should come there should be subject to the laws of England. When the reading of the proclamation was finished, obedience was promised by the general voice. Near the spot a pillar was erected, on which the arms of England, engraved in lead, were affixed. This formal possession was taken in consequence of the discovery of the island by Cabot in 1498.

New Generals on the Northern Frontier (1814). Wilkinson and Harrison having thrown up their commands in disgust, Hampton retired in disgrace, Dearborn stationed at Boston, Lewis at New York, and Bloomfield at Philadelphia, and Winchester, Chandler, and Winder being still in the hands of the enemy, made it necessary to supply their places. Generals Izard and Brown were promoted to major-generals, and Macomb, Thos. A. Smith, Bissell, Scott, Gaines, and Ripley were commissioned brigadiers. All of them were officers of the old army, excepting Brown and Ripley.

New Hampshire, COLONY OF, one of the New England States, was for many years a dependent of Massachusetts. Its short line of sea-coast was probably first discovered by Martin Pring in 1603. It was visited by Captain John Smith in 1614. (See *New England*.) The enterprising Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who had been engaged in colonizing projects many years as one of the most active members of the Plymouth Company, projected a settlement farther eastward than any yet established, and for that purpose he became associated with John Mason, a merchant (afterwards a naval commander, and Secretary of the Plymouth Council of New England), and others. (See *Plymouth Company*.) Mason was a "man of action," and well acquainted with all matters pertaining to settlements. He and Gorges obtained a grant of land (Aug. 10, 1622) extending from the Merrimac to the Kennebec, and inland to the St. Lawrence. (See *Gorges, Sir Ferdinando*.) They named the territory the Province of Laconia; and to forestall the French settlements in the east, and secure the country to the Protestants, Gorges secured a grant from Sir William Alexander of the whole mainland eastward of the St. Croix River, excepting a small part of Acadia. (See *Alexander, Sir William*.) Mason had already obtained a grant of land (March 2, 1621) extending from Salem to the mouth of the Merrimac, which he called Mariana; and the same year a colony of fishermen seated themselves at Little Harbor, on the Piscataqua, just below the site of Portsmouth. Other fishermen settled on the site of Dover (1623), and there were soon several fishing-stations, but no permanent settlement until 1629, when Mason built a house near the mouth of the Piscataqua, and called the place Portsmouth. He and Gorges had agreed to divide their domain at the Piscat-

aqua, and Mason, obtaining a patent for his portion of the territory, named it New Hampshire. He had been governor of Portsmouth, in Hampshire, England, and these names were given in commemoration of the fact. In the same year (1629), Rev. Mr. Wheelwright, brother of the notable Anne Hutchinson, purchased from the Indians the Wilderness, the Merrimac, and the Piscataqua, and founded Exeter. (See *Hutchinson, Anne*.) Mason died in 1633, and his domain passed into the hands of his retainers in payment for past services. The scattered settlements in New Hampshire finally coalesced with the Massachusetts Colony (1641), and the former colony remained a dependent of the latter until 1680, when New Hampshire became a separate royal province, ruled by a governor and council, and a House of Representatives elected by the people. The settlements in New Hampshire gradually extended westward, and until 1764 it was supposed the territory now Vermont was included in that of New Hampshire, and grants of land were made there by the authorities of the latter province. (See *New Hampshire Grants*.) The people of New Hampshire engaged earnestly in the disputes between Great Britain and her American colonies, and they were the first to form an independent state government (Jan. 5, 1776). It was temporary, intended to last only during the war; a permanent state government was not established until June 4, 1784. During the old war for independence, the people of New Hampshire took an active part. Their men were engaged in many important battles, from that of Bunker's Hill to that at Yorktown; and were particularly distinguished for their bravery in the battles at Bennington, Bemis's Heights, Saratoga, and Monmouth. The first seal of New Hampshire as an independent state is represent-



FIRST SEAL OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

ed in the engraving. The tree and fish indicate the productions of the state.

New Hampshire Army. On May 17, 1775, the Provincial Congress of New Hampshire appointed a treasurer, issued bills of credit, and voted to raise three regiments, the troops then in the camp before Boston to constitute two of them. Nathaniel Folsom was appointed brigadier; Stark, Read, and Poor were commissioned colonels. (See *New England Army*.)

New Hampshire Grants. Shortly after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), settlements in New Hampshire began to extend westward of the Connecticut River. The territory of New Hampshire had been reckoned to extend, according to the terms of Mason's grant, only "sixty miles in the interior;" the commission of Benning Wentworth, then (1741-67) governor of

Indian War. Afterwards, violent disputes with New York about these grants ensued. (See *Vermont*.)

New Hampshire Sanctions Independence. On June 15, 1776, the Council and Assembly of New Hampshire, in reply to a letter from their representatives in Congress, unanimously voted in favor of "declaring the thirteen united colonies a free and independent state," and solemnly pledged their faith and honor to support the measure with their lives and fortunes.

New Hampshire, STATE GOVERNMENT FORMED IN. Impelled by an idea that separation from Great Britain might take place, the Provincial Congress asked advice of the Continental Congress concerning the organization of a stable government for the province. They were advised to call a "full and free representation of the people," and organize a form of government according to the dictates of their best judgment. It was done. The Provincial Congress assumed the character of a House of Representatives, and proceeded to elect a council composed of twelve members. This council chose its own president, and the two houses performed the functions of supreme executive while in session, but in the interim that authority was exercised by a Committee of Safety. The Assembly constituted a Supreme Court. Meshech Weare was chosen president of the council and chief-justice. This arrangement was declared to be temporary, to cease if reconciliation with Great Britain should be effected.

New Hampshire, STATE OF.

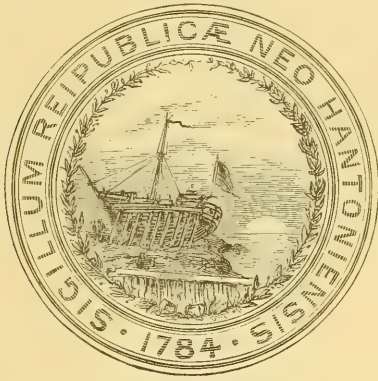
In 1776 this state made a public declaration of independence, and established a temporary government to last during the war. On June 12, 1781, a convention framed a state constitution, which, after numerous alterations, went into force June 2, 1784. The people had been very patriotic and active during the Revolution, and furnished their full proportion of troops. The constitution provided that once in seven years it should be submitted to a vote of the people on proposed amendments. This was done in September, 1791, and the constitution then adopted continues to be the supreme law of the land in that state. A convention sitting in Concord from Nov. 6, 1850, to April 17, 1851, considered numerous proposed amendments, but only one was adopted—namely, removing the property qualification of representatives. The aggregate number of troops furnished by New Hampshire for the National army during the Civil War was 34,605, of whom 5518



BENNING WENTWORTH.

New Hampshire, included all the territory "to the boundaries of his majesty's other provinces," and in 1752 he began to issue grants of lands to settlers west of the Connecticut, in what is now the State of Vermont. New York, by virtue of the duke's patent in 1664, claimed the Connecticut River as its eastern boundary. A mild dispute then arose. New York had relinquished its claim so far east as against Connecticut, and against Massachusetts it was not then seriously insisted upon. Arguing that his province ought to have an extent equal to the western boundary of Massachusetts, Governor Wentworth granted fifteen townships adjoining the recent Massachusetts settlements on the Hoosick. The township was called Bennington, in compliment to the governor. Emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts began to settle on the domain, when they were checked by the French and

perished in battle, and 11,039 were disabled by wounds and sickness. Population in 1890, 376,530.



STATE SEAL OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

New Haven Colony. After the destruction of the Pequods in the summer of 1637, and peace was restored to the region of the Connecticut, there was a strong desire among the inhabitants of Massachusetts to emigrate thither. Rev. John Davenport, Theophilus Eaton, Edward Hopkins, and others of less note, had arrived at Boston. They heard from those who had pursued the Pequods, of the beautiful country stretching along Long Island Sound (see *Pequod War*), and in the autumn (1637) Mr. Eaton and a small party visited the region. They arrived at a beautiful bay, and on the banks of a small stream that entered it they built a log hut, where some of the party wintered. The place had been called by Block, the Dutch discoverer of it (see *New Netherland*), Roodenberg—"Red Hills"—in allusion to the red cliffs a little inland. In the spring of 1638, Mr. Davenport and some of his friends sailed for the spot where Eaton had built his hut. They named the beautiful spot New Haven. Under a wide-spreading oak Mr. Davenport preached on the ensuing Sabbath. They purchased land of the Indians, and proceeded to plant the seeds of a new state by framing articles of association which they called a "Plantation Covenant." In it they resolved "that, as in matters that concern the gathering and ordering of a church, so likewise in all public offices which concern civil order, as choice of magistrates and officers, making and repealing of laws, dividing allotments of inheritance, and all things of like nature," they would "be ordered by the rules which the Scriptures held forth." So they began their independent settlement without reference to any government or country on the earth. The place where the hut was built was on the present corner of Church and George streets, New Haven, and their first temple of worship—the wide-spreading tree—stood at the intersection of George and College streets. This little community meditated and prayed for light concerning the best social and political organization for the government of the colony. When, in the summer of 1639, it was found that they were "nearly of one mind," they assembled in a barn to settle upon a plan of government "according to the

Word of God;" Mr. Davenport prayed and preached earnestly, and proposed for their adoption four fundamental articles—namely, 1. That the Scriptures contain a perfect rule for the government of men in the family, in the church, and in the commonwealth; 2. That they would be ordered by the rules which the Scriptures hold forth; 3. That their purpose was to be admitted into Church-fellowship according to Christ, as soon as God should fit them thereunto; and, 4. That they held themselves bound to establish such civil order, according to God, as would be likely to secure the greatest good to themselves and their posterity. These articles were unanimously adopted, and a plan was arranged to put a government into practical operation. It was agreed that Church-membership should be granted to free burgesses or freemen endowed with political franchises, and that they only should choose magistrates and transact civil business of every kind; that twelve or more men should be chosen from the company and tried for their fitness, and these twelve should choose seven of their number as the seven pillars of the Church. The twelve men were chosen, and after due deliberation they selected seven "pillars." Finally these "pillars" proceeded to organize a church. Their assistants, nine in number, were regarded as "free burgesses," and the sixteen chose Theophilus Eaton magistrate for one year. Four other persons were chosen deputies, and these constituted the Legislature and executive department of the government of "Quinnipiack," so called from the Indian name of the stream that ran through the settlement. It was a sort of theocracy. They gave no pledge of allegiance to king or Parliament, nor any other authority on the face of the earth, excepting the civil government they had established. They resolved to have an annual General Court, and appointed a secretary and sheriff, and the teachings of the Bible were their guide in all things. They built a meeting-house, regulated the price of labor and commodities, and provided against attacks from the Indians. It was ordained that no person should settle among them without the consent of the community. In 1640 they called the settlement New Haven. This colony flourished in simplicity by itself until 1662, when it was annexed by charter to the colony in the valley, under the general title of Connecticut. (See *Connecticut, Charter of*.) There the foundations of the state were finally laid. (See *Connecticut, State of*.)

New Haven Colony, DISSATISFACTION IN. The colonies of New Haven and Connecticut (which see) were consolidated by the charter of 1662. Some of the weaker towns in the New Haven Colony submitted cheerfully, and those nearest New Netherland rejoiced in the promise of greater protection. But the town of New Haven—the seat of the independent colonial government—strongly protested against this disregard of her rights, and her Legislature called it "the great sin of Connecticut." Charges of treachery and bad faith were made against Connecticut, and there was much bitterness of feeling until matters were adjusted in the course of two or three years.

New Haven, PURCHASE OF LANDS AT. The persons who settled in the vicinity of New Haven with Rev. Mr. Davenport purchased of Mompaguin, the sachem of Quinnipiack, an extensive tract of land where the new settlement was begun around the harbor of New Haven, in consideration of being protected by the English from hostile Indians; also agreeing that his people should have sufficient land to plant on the east side of the harbor, and be furnished with twelve coats of English cloth, twelve spoons, twelve hatchets, twelve hoes, two dozen knives, twelve porringers, and four cases of French knives and scissors. There they laid out town-lots on the plan of a large city, and called it New Haven. In December, the same year, they bought another large tract from another sachem, north of the first, ten miles in length north and south, and thirteen miles in breadth, for which the English gave thirteen coats, and allowed the Indians land enough to plant and liberty to hunt within the lands.

New Jersey, COLONY OF. This was one of the thirteen original colonies. Its territory was claimed to be a part of New Netherland. A few Dutch traders from New Amsterdam seem to have settled at Bergen about 1620, and in 1623 a company led by Captain Jacobus May built Fort Nassau, at the mouth of the Timmer Kill, near Gloucester. There four young married couples, with a few others, began a settlement the same year. (See *Walloons*.) In 1634, Sir Edward Plowden obtained a grant of land on the New Jersey side of the Delaware from the English monarch, and called it New Albion, and four years later some Swedes and Fins bought land from the Indians in the vicinity and began some settlements. These and the Dutch drove off the English, and in 1665 Stuyvesant dispossessed the Swedes. (See *New Sweden*.) After the grant of New Netherland (1664) to the Duke of York by his brother, Charles II., the former sent Colonel Richard Nicolls with a land and naval force to take possession of the domain. Nicolls was made the first English governor of the territory now named New York, and he proceeded to give patents for lands to emigrants from Long Island and New England, four families of whom at once seated themselves at Elizabethtown. But while Nicolls with the armament was still on the ocean, the duke granted that portion of his territory lying between the Hudson and Delaware rivers to two of his favorites, Lord Berkeley, brother of the governor of Virginia (see *Berkeley, Sir William*), and Sir George Carteret, who, as governor of the island of Jersey, had defended it against the parliamentary troops. Settlements under Nicolls's grants had already been begun at Newark, Middletown, and Shrewsbury, when news of the grant reached New York. Nicolls was amazed at the folly of the duke in parting with such a splendid domain, which lay between the two great rivers and extended north from Cape May to latitude 40° 40'. The tract was named New Jersey in compliment to Carteret. The new proprietors formed a constitution for the colonists. Philip Carteret, cousin of Sir George, was sent over as governor of New Jersey,

and emigrants began to flock in, for the terms to settlers were generous, and the Constitution was satisfactory. The governor gave the hamlet of four houses where he fixed his seat of government the name of Elizabethtown, in compliment to the wife of Sir George, and there he built a house for himself. A conflict soon arose between the settlers who had patents from Nicolls and the new proprietors, and for some years there were frequent quarrels. Other settlers were rapidly coming in, and in 1668 the first Legislative Assembly met at Elizabethtown, and was largely made up of representatives of New England Puritanism. In the year 1670 a specified quit-rent of a half-penny for each acre of land was demanded of the tillers. The people murmured. Some of them had bought of the Indians before the proprietary government was established, and they refused to pay any rent. The whole people combined to resist the demand. There was actual rebellion; and in May, 1672, the people sent deputies to a popular assembly at Elizabethtown who deposed Philip Carteret and chose for governor James Carteret, a dissolute and weak illegitimate son of Sir George. The proprietors were preparing to subdue the people when the whole original territory of New Netherland fell into the hands of the Dutch again (1673). When it was restored, the duke obtained a new charter, and the territory was placed under the rule of Edmund Andros as governor. Lord Berkeley sold out his interest in the province to two English Friends or Quakers (Fenwick and Byllinge). This was the western portion of the province, and thither Fenwick went with emigrants, mostly Quakers, who settled on a spot not far from the Delaware and called it Salem. William Penn and others afterwards purchased this domain, and in 1676 it was separated from the rest of the province, when the whole was known as East and West Jersey, Carteret retaining the eastern portion. Meanwhile, a large immigration of Quakers from England had occurred, and these settled below the Raritan, under a liberal government. Andros required them to acknowledge his authority as the representative of the duke, but they refused, because the territory had passed out of the possession of James. The case was referred to Sir William Jones, the eminent jurist and Oriental scholar, who decided in favor of the colonists. The first popular assembly in West Jersey met at Salem in November, 1681, and adopted a code of laws for the government of the people. Late in 1679 Carteret had died; and in 1682 William Penn and others bought from his heirs East Jersey, and appointed Robert Barclay governor. He was a young Scotch Quaker and one of the purchasers, who afterwards became one of the most eminent writers of that denomination. Quakers from England and Scotland and others from Long Island flocked into East Jersey, but they were compelled to endure the tyranny of Andros until James was driven from his throne and the viceroy from America, when East and West Jersey were left without a regular civil government, and so remained several years. Finally, wearied with contentions and subjected to loss-

es, the proprietors surrendered the domain of the Jerseys to the crown (1702), and the dis-solute Sir Edward Hyde (Lord Cornbury), governor of New York, ruled over the province. Politically, the people were made slaves. It remained a dependency of New York until 1733, when it was made an independent colony, and so remained until the old war for independence. Lewis Morris, who was the Chief-justice of New Jersey, was commissioned its governor, and was the first who ruled over the free colony. (See *Morris, Lewis*.) William Franklin, son of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, was the last of the royal governors of New Jersey. (See *Franklin, William*.) A conditional state constitution was adopted in the Provincial Congress at Burlington, July 2, 1776, and a state government was organized with William Livingston as governor.

New Jersey Assembly. This body yet (December, 1775) retained its old colonial existence, and had granted the usual annual support to the royal governor, Franklin, who was a warm loyalist. On Dec. 5, they resolved themselves into a committee of the whole to consider the draft of a separate address to the king. This proposition alarmed Congress, for it tended to divide and insult the colonies, and Dickinson, Jay, and Wythe were sent to Burlington to dissuade them. They were admitted to the floor of the Assembly and permitted to address the members, and so effective were their arguments that their advice was taken by a majority of the House.

New Jersey, FRIENDS, OR QUAKERS, IN. Fenwick, one of the purchasers of West Jersey, had made the first settlement of members of his sect at Salem. Liberal offers were made to Friends in England if they would settle in New Jersey, where they would be free from persecution, and in 1677 several hundred came over. In March a company of two hundred and thirty came in the ship *Kent*. Before they sailed King Charles gave them his blessing. The *Kent* reached New York in August, with commissioners to manage public affairs in New Jersey. The arrival was reported to Andros, who was governor of New York, and claimed political jurisdiction over the Jerseys. Fenwick, who denied the jurisdiction of the Duke of York in the collection of customs duties, was then in custody at New York, but was allowed to depart with the other Friends, on his own recognizance to answer in the autumn. On Aug. 16 the *Kent* arrived at New Castle, but it was three months before a permanent place was settled upon. That place was on the Delaware River, and was first named Beverly. Afterwards it was called Bridlington, after a parish in Yorkshire, England, whence many of the emigrants had come. The name was corrupted to Burlington, which it still bears. There the passengers of the *Kent* settled, and were soon joined by many others. The village prospered, and other settlements were made in its vicinity. Nearly all the settlers in West Jersey were members of the Society of Friends, or Quakers. One of the earliest erected buildings for the public worship of Friends in New Jersey was at Crosswicks, about half-way between Al-

lertown and the Delaware River. Before the Revolution they built a spacious meeting-house there of imported brick, which was standing in 1876.



FRIENDS' MEETING-HOUSE AT CROSSWICKS.

New Jersey, POSITION OF, IN 1861. On Jan. 8, 1861, the Legislature of New Jersey met at Trenton. The governor (C. S. Olden), in his message, favored the compromise measures then before Congress; or, in the event of their not being adopted, he recommended a convention of all the states to agree upon some plan of pacification. A majority of the Committee on National Affairs reported a series of resolutions on the 15th as "the sentiment of the people of the state," the vital point of which was the endorsement of the Crittenden Compromise (which see). These resolutions were adopted on the 31st, the Democratic members voting in the affirmative. The Republican members adopted a series of resolutions totally dissenting from the declaration of the majority that their endorsement of the Crittenden Compromise was "the sentiment of the people of the state." They declared the willingness of the people to aid the government in the execution of all the laws of Congress; affirmed their adhesion to the doctrine of popular sovereignty, with a qualification; asserted the nationality of the government as against state supremacy; declared it to be the duty of the national government to maintain its authority everywhere within the limits of the Republic; and pledged the faith and power of New Jersey in aid of that government to any extent required. This pledge the people of the state nobly redeemed.

New Jersey Regained by the Americans (1777). After the battle of Princeton and the retreat of the British to New Brunswick, detachments of American militia were very active in the Jerseys. Four days after that event nearly fifty Waldeckers (Germans) were killed, wounded, or made prisoners at Springfield. General Maxwell surprised Elizabethtown and took nearly one hundred prisoners. General Dickinson, with four hundred New Jersey militia and fifty Pennsylvania riflemen, crossed Millstone River near Somerset Court-house (June 20, 1777), and attacked a large British foraging party, nine of whom were taken prisoners; the rest escaped, but forty wagons, with much booty, fell into the general's hands. About a month later, Colonel Nelson, of New Brunswick, with a detachment of one hundred and fifty militiamen, sur-

prised and captured at Lawrence's Neck a major and fifty-nine privates of a Tory corps in the pay of the British.

New Jersey, REVOLUTION IN. When, in 1670, quit-rents were demanded of the people of New Jersey, discontent instantly appeared, and disputes about land-titles suddenly produced much excitement. Some of the settlers had bought of the Indians, some derived their titles from original Dutch owners, others received grants from the English governor, Nicolls, and some from Berkeley and Carteret, the proprietors. Those who settled there before the domain came under the jurisdiction of the English united in resisting the claim for quit-rent by the proprietary government. The people were on the verge of open insurrection, and only needed a leader, when James, the second son of Sir George Carteret, arrived in New Jersey. He was on his way to South Carolina. He was ambitious, but dissolute and unscrupulous, and was ready to undertake anything that promised him fame and emolument. He put himself at the head of the malcontents who opposed his cousin Philip, the governor, who held a commission from Sir George. The insurgents called an assembly at Elizabethtown in the spring of 1672, formally deposed Philip Carteret, and elected James their governor. Philip, in the early summer, sailed for England and laid the matter before his superiors. He knew the administration of his cousin would be a chastisement of the people, as it proved to be, for he was utterly incompetent, and his conduct disgusted them. Before orders came from England the insurgents were ready to submit to Philip Carteret's deputy, Captain Berry (May, 1673), and James Carteret immediately sailed for Virginia. Philip Carteret returned next year as governor, made liberal concessions to the people in the name of Sir George, and was quietly accepted by the people.

New Jersey State Legislature. The first state Legislature of New Jersey under its new constitution assembled at Princeton late in August, 1776, and chose William Livingston governor. Like the New York convention, the Legislature was, on account of military movements, compelled to meet at different places—at Burlington, Pittstown, and Haddonfield. At the latter place it was dissolved, leaving behind it only a small remnant of the Legislature first assembled. It was soon afterwards re-established.

New Jersey, STATE OF. The last royal governor of New Jersey was William Franklin (which see), a son of Dr. Franklin. A state constitution was adopted in 1776, and the first Legislature met at Princeton in August and chose William Livingston governor. The national Constitution was adopted by unanimous vote in December, 1787, and the state capital was established at Trenton in 1790. The present (1880) constitution of New Jersey was ratified Aug. 13, 1844. Several amendments were approved by the Legislature in 1874. During the late Civil War New Jersey furnished the na-

tional army with 79,511 troops. In 1870 the Legislature refused to ratify the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution claiming for each state

the right to regulate its own suffrage-laws. Population in 1890, 1,441,017.



STATE SEAL OF NEW JERSEY.

New Lights.

Whitefield appeared as a remarkable evangelist and revivalist in New England (1740) just after a religious reaction had begun in favor of the old, rigid dogmas of the

sole right of the sanctified to enjoy the privileges of church membership and of salvation by faith alone. Whitefield held similar views. The reactionists were led by Jonathan Edwards, the eminent metaphysician. A wonderful and widespread "revival" ensued, in which many extravagances appeared—outcries, contortions of the face and limbs, etc.—which many regarded as the visible evidences of the workings of divine grace. The revivalists, like most earnest reformers, were aggressive and censorious, lashing without mercy men in high places in the Church. They preached and exhorted wherever they pleased, without the leave of ministers of the parishes, and some of the latter were alarmed at this invasion of their vested rights. The Congregational establishment of New England was shaken by a violent internal controversy between the revivalists, who were called "New Lights," and the friends of the old order of things. There was wide-spread disorder, uncharitableness, and indecorum resulting from the labors of the "New Lights," and some of the leading clergymen condemned the movement in unsparing terms; while fifty-nine ministers in Massachusetts alone expressed their satisfaction at "the happy and remarkable revival of religion in many parts of the land through an uncommon divine influence." The controversy raged with special violence in Connecticut, and a law was enacted in 1742 to restrain the revivalists, which provided that any settled minister in that colony who should preach in any parish without express invitation should lose all legal right to recover his salary in his own parish; and if any came from other colonies they were to be arrested as "vagrants." After a violent controversy of nine or ten years the law was omitted in a new edition of the laws of Connecticut, though not repealed. This was the beginning of organized revivals of religion, which have prevailed ever since. Among its fruits were vigorous attempts at the conversion of the Indians. David Brainerd, one of the "New Lights," expelled from Yale College for having spoken of a tutor as "destitute of religion," devoted himself to this service, first among the Indians on the frontiers of Massachusetts and New York, and then among the Delawares of New Jersey. Edwards, who had been dismissed from his church at Northampton, became

preacher to the Indians at Stockbridge; and Eleazar Wheelock, a "New Light" minister at Lebanon, Conn., established in that town an Indian missionary school. (See *Dartmouth College*.) This great revival had a powerful effect on the political aspect of the colonies by the almost total abandonment of the theocratic idea of a Christian commonwealth, in which every other interest must be made subservient to unity of faith and worship, the state being held responsible to God for the salvation of the souls intrusted to its charge. The revivalists put forth the notion of individual salvation, leaving politics to worldly men or the providence of God, and making prominent the idea not to save the commonwealth, but themselves. It was a quiet but effectual separation of Church and State. Thenceforth theology held very little prominence in the jurisprudence of the colonies.

New London Blockaded (1813). Sir Thomas Hardy, with a small squadron, blockaded the harbor of New London, near the mouth of the Thames, in June, 1813. It continued full twenty months, and was raised only by the proclamation of peace early in 1815. The more aged inhabitants, who remembered Arnold's incendiary visit in 1781, apprehended a repetition of the tragedies of that terrible day; but Sir Thomas was a humane man, and never permitted any unnecessary execution of the atrocious orders of his superiors to ravage the New England coasts. His successor, Admiral Hotham, was like him; and so much was the latter respected, that, when peace came and the village of New London was illuminated and a ball held

ent, and the guests were received by Commodore Decatur, whose vessels had been blockaded in the Thames.



THE OLD COURT-HOUSE, NEW LONDON.

New London Destroyed (1781). On Sept. 6, 1781, Benedict Arnold, the traitor, with Colonel Eyre, of the British army, led a motley force of British and German regulars and American Tories to destroy New London, Conn. The object of this raid on the New England coasts was to call back the troops under Washington, then on their campaign against Cornwallis in Virginia. The invaders landed below New London, and, first applying the torch to stores on the wharves, finally laid almost the whole town in ashes, with several vessels. Fifteen vessels, with ef-



NEW LONDON IN 1813.

in the court-house, the admiral came on shore from his ship *Superb*, mingled freely with the people, and had a sort of public reception at the ball. Several other British officers were pres-

fects of the fleeing inhabitants, escaped up the river. The property destroyed was valued at \$486,000. It is said that Arnold stood in the belfry of a church almost in sight of his birth-

place and saw the burning of the town with the coolness of a Nero. After the war, a committee was appointed by the Legislature of Connecticut to make an estimate of the value of property destroyed by the British on the coasts of that state; and in 1793 the General Assembly granted 500,000 acres of land lying within the Western Reserves (which see) in Ohio for the benefit of the sufferers by these conflagrations. The region was called the Fire Lands (which see).

New Madrid, SIEGE OF. New Madrid, on the Missouri side of the Mississippi, and Island Number Ten, about ten miles above it, almost a thousand miles above New Orleans by the river channel, constituted the key to the navigation of the lower Mississippi, and consequently were of great importance to the large commercial city towards its mouth. To this place General Polk transferred what he could of munitions of war when he evacuated Columbus (which see). General Jeff. M. Thompson was in command at Fort Madrid of a considerable force and a strong fortification called Fort Thompson. When the garrison there was reinforced from Columbus, it was put under the command of General McCown. Against this post General Halleck despatched General John Pope and a considerable body of troops, chiefly from Ohio and Illinois. He departed from St. Louis (Feb. 22, 1862) on transports, and landed first at Commerce, Mo., and marched thence to New Madrid, encountering a small force under General Thompson on the way, and capturing from him three pieces of artillery. He reached the vicinity of New Madrid on March 3, found the post strongly garrisoned, and a flotilla under Captain J. S. Hollins in the river. He encamped out of reach of the great guns, and sent to Cairo for heavy cannons. When these arrived there were 9000 infantry, besides artillery, within the works at New Madrid, and three gunboats added to the flotilla. On the morning after the arrival of his four siege-guns Pope had them in position, and opened fire on the works and the flotilla. These were vigorously replied to, and a fierce artillery duel was kept up throughout the day, the Nationals at the same time extending their trenches so as to reach the river bank that night. At the same time General Paine was assailing the Confederates on their right flank. Their pickets were driven in, and that night the insurgent forces at New Madrid, on land and water, were in a perilous position. Their commanders perceived this, and at about midnight, during a furious thunder-storm, they stealthily evacuated the post and fled to Island Number Ten, leaving everything behind them. Their suppers and lighted candles were in their tents. The original inhabitants had also fled, and the houses had evidently been plundered by the Confederate occupants. The loss of the Confederates in this siege is not known; that of the Nationals was fifty-one killed and wounded.

New Mexico was among the earlier of the interior portions of North America visited by the Spaniards. Those adventurous spirits explored portions of it about a hundred years be-

fore the Pilgrims landed on the shores of New England. Alvar Nuñez (Cabega de Vaca, which see), with the remnant of Narvaez's expedition (which see), penetrated New Mexico before 1537, and made a report of the country to the viceroy of Mexico. In 1539 Marco de Niza visited the country, and so did Coronado (which see) the next year, and a glowing account of it was given by Castaneda, the historian of the expedition. Others followed, and about 1581 Augustin Ruys, a Franciscan missionary, entered the country and was killed by the natives. Don Antonio Espejo, with a force, went there soon afterwards (1595-99) to protect missions, and the viceroy of Mexico sent his representative to take formal possession of the country in the name of Spain, and to establish missions, settlements, and forts there. The pueblo, or village, Indians were readily made converts by the missionaries. Many successful stations were established, and mines were opened and worked, but the enslavement of the Indians by the Spaniards caused discontent and insecurity. Finally the Indians drove out their oppressors (1680), and recovered the whole country as far south as El Paso del Norte. The Spaniards regained possession of the country in 1698, and the province remained a part of Mexico until 1846, when its capital (Santa Fé) was captured by United States troops under General Kearney, who soon conquered the whole territory. In 1848 New Mexico was ceded to the United States by treaty; and by act of Congress, Sept. 9, 1850, a territorial government was organized there. The region south of the Gila was obtained by purchase in 1853, and was annexed to New Mexico by Congress, Aug. 4, 1854. The territory then contained the whole of Arizona and a portion of Colorado and Nevada (which see). Attempts have been made to create New Mexico a state, but without success. Its capital is Santa Fé, on the Santa Fé River, about twenty miles above its confluence with the Rio Grande. Population in 1890, 153,593.

New Mexico, CONQUEST OF. General Stephen W. Kearney, of New Jersey, was in command of the Army of the West in the spring of 1846. He received instructions to conquer New Mexico and California. He left Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri River, with 1600 men in June, and on the 18th of August, after a march of about 900 miles, he arrived at Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico. He had traversed great plains and rugged mountain passes without opposition; and as he approached Santa Fé the Mexican governor and 4000 soldiers fled, leaving the 6000 inhabitants of the city to quietly surrender it to the invaders. Kearney then took formal possession of the state, appointed Charles Bent provisional governor, and pushed on towards California. He very soon met a messenger from Commodore Stockton and Captain Frémont, informing him that the conquest of California was already completed, when he sent the main body of his troops back to Santa Fé. In February, 1848, New Mexico was ceded to the United States by the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, and in 1850 a territorial government for it was organized. See *Mexico, War with*.

New Mexico, EARLY EXPLORATION OF. Almost forty years after the expedition of Coronado, Augustin Ruyz, a Franciscan friar, impelled by the missionary spirit which marked the Spanish ecclesiastics, undertook an exploration of the wilderness north of Mexico. (See *Coronado*.) He set out for Santa Barbara (1580-81) with two or three companions, went north until he struck the Rio Grande, and ascended it to its upper waters, explored by Coronado. Ruyz was followed next year (1581-82) by Antonio Espejo, a Spaniard, with a body of soldiers and Indians. He completed the exploration begun by Ruyz, and named the country New Mexico. The town of Santa Fé was soon after built, and is, next to St. Augustine, the oldest borough in the United States.

New Mexico, WAR IN. Late in 1861, General E. R. S. Canby was appointed to the command of the military department of New Mexico. Civil war was then kindling in that region. An attempt was made to attach that territory to the Confederacy by the method employed by Twiggs in Texas. (See *Twiggs*.) Disloyal officers (W. H. Loring, of North Carolina, and G. B. Crittenden, of Kentucky) had been sent thither by Secretary Floyd to corrupt the patriotism of the soldiers a year before the insurrection broke out. These leaders failed to corrupt a single one of the twelve hundred soldiers, and, incurring their hot displeasure, were compelled to flee from their righteous wrath towards Texas. On the border of that state they found the commander of Fort Fillmore ready to co-operate with them. These men led out the unsuspecting troops, and betrayed them into the power of Texan insurgents. Otero, the representative of New Mexico in Congress, was in active sympathy with the Secessionists, and the Confederate cause seemed to be assured in that quarter, when Canby appeared and raised the standard of the Union. Around it the loyal people of the territory gathered; and his regular troops, New Mexican levies, and volunteers gave him sufficient force to meet any insurgents which might be sent against him. He fought them at Valverde, and was discomfited; but there were soon such accessions to his ranks that he drove the insurgents over the mountains into Texas.

New Netherland, CONQUEST OF, BY THE ENGLISH. Late in August, 1664, a land and naval armament, commanded by Colonel Richard Nicolls, anchored in New Utrecht Bay, just inside of Coney Island. There Nicolls was joined by Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, several magistrates of that colony, and two leading men from Boston. Governor Stuyvesant was at Fort Orange (Albany) when news of this armament reached him. He hastened back to New Amsterdam, and on Saturday, the 30th of August, Nicolls sent to the governor a summons to surrender the fort and city. He also sent a proclamation to the citizens, promising perfect security of person and property to all who should quietly submit to English rule. Stuyvesant assembled his council and the magistrates at the fort for

consultation. The people, smarting under Stuyvesant's iron rule, panted for English liberty, and were lukewarm, to say the least. The council and magistrates favored submission without resistance. The governor, true to his superiors and his convictions of duty, would not listen to such a proposition, nor allow the people to see Nicolls's proclamation. The Sabbath passed without an answer to the summons. The people were anxious and impatient. On Monday the magistrates explained to them the situation of affairs. They demanded a sight of the proclamation; it was refused. They were on the verge of open insurrection, when Governor Winthrop, with whom Stuyvesant was on friendly terms, came from Nicolls with a letter demanding a surrender. The two governors met at the gate of the fort. On reading the letter, Stuyvesant promptly refused. He read the letter to his council and the assembled magistrates. "Read it to the people and get their mind," they said. The governor stoutly refused; his council and the magistrates as stoutly insisted that he should do so, when the enraged governor, who had fairly earned the title of "Peter the Headstrong," in a towering passion, tore the letter in pieces. Hearing of this, a large number of the people hastened to the State-house, and sent in a deputation to demand the letter. Stuyvesant stormed. The deputies were inflexible, and a fair copy was made from the pieces and read to the inhabitants. The population of New Amsterdam did not exceed fifteen hundred souls, and not more than two hundred were capable of bearing arms. Nicolls sent another message to the governor, saying, "I shall come for your answer to-morrow with ships and soldiers." Stuyvesant was unmoved. And when men, women, and children, and even his beloved son, Balthazar, entreated him to surrender, that the lives and property of the citizens might be spared, he said, "I had much rather be carried out dead." At length, when magistrates, clergy, and the principal citizens entreated him, the proud soldier consented to capitulate. On Monday morning, Sept. 8 (N. S.), he led his troops from the fort to a ship on which they were embarked for Holland; and an hour afterwards the royal flag of England was floating over Fort Amsterdam, the name of which was changed to Fort James, in honor of the Duke of York. The remainder of New Netherland soon passed into the possession of the English. (See *New York*.)

New Netherland Created. To the Binnenhof, at the Hague, repaired deputies from the Amsterdam company of merchants and traders to have an audience with the States-General of Holland, to solicit a charter for the region in America which the discoveries of Henry Hudson had revealed to the world. That was in 1614. They sent twelve "high and mighty lords," among them the noble John of Barneveld. The deputies spread a map before them, told them of the adventures of their agents in the region of the Hudson River, the heavy expenses they had incurred, and the risks they ran without some legal power to act in defence. Their prayer

was heard, and a charter, bearing date Oct. 11, 1614, was granted, in which the country was named New Netherland. This was before the incorporation of the Dutch West India Company (which see). In 1623, New Netherland was made a province or county of Holland, and the States-General granted it the armorial distinction of a count. The seal of New Netherland



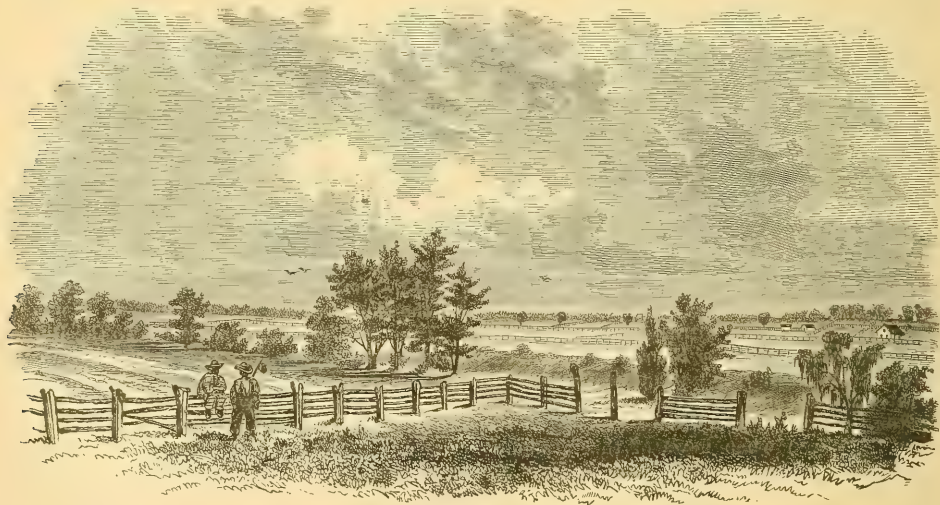
SEAL OF NEW NETHERLAND.

bore as a device a shield with the figure of a beaver in the centre of it, surmounted by the coronet of a count, and encircled by the words "SIGILLUM NOVI BELGII."

New Orleans. Governor Bienville prepared to found a town on the lower Mississippi in 1718, and sent a party of convicts to clear up a swamp on the site of the great city of New Orleans. When Charlevoix visited the spot in 1722, the germ of the city consisted of a large wooden warehouse, a shed for a church, two or three ordinary houses, and a quantity of huts built with-

ernment from Biloxi (see *Iberville, Pierre le Moyne*) to New Orleans. Law's settlers in Arkansas (see *Crozat and Louisiana*), finding themselves abandoned, went down to New Orleans and received allotments on both sides of the river; settled on cottage farms, and raised vegetables for the supply of the town and soldiers. Thus the rich tract near New Orleans was known as the "German Coast."

New Orleans, BATTLES NEAR (1814-15). The battle at Villeré's plantation (Dec. 23, 1814) dispersed the British invaders, and in this condition Lieutenant-general Edward Pakenham, the "hero of Salamanca," and one of Wellington's veteran officers, found them on his arrival on Christmas-day, with reinforcements, to take chief command. He was delighted to find under his command some of the best of Wellington's troops that fought on the Spanish Peninsula. He immediately prepared to effect the capture of New Orleans and the subjugation of Louisiana without delay. While Jackson was casting up intrenchments along the line of Rodriguez's Canal, from the Mississippi back to an impassable swamp two miles away, the British were as busy too. They worked day and night in the erection of a heavy battery that should command the armed schooner *Carolina*, and on the morning of Dec. 27 they opened a heavy fire upon her from several 12- and 18-pounders. They also hurled hot shot at her, which set her on fire, when her crew abandoned her, and she blew up. The schooner *Louisiana*, Lieutenant Thompson, had come down from the city to aid her, and was in great peril. She was the only armed vessel belonging to the Americans in the vicinity of New Orleans. By great exertions she was placed at a safe distance from the fire of the British. Pakenham now issued



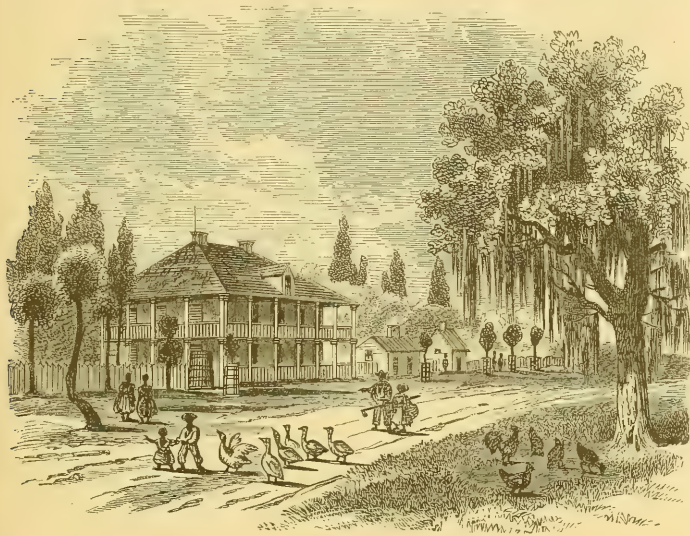
CHALMETTE'S PLANTATION.

out order. But Bienville believed that it would one day become, "perhaps, too, at no distant day, an opulent city, the metropolis of a great and rich colony," and removed the seat of gov-

ernment for his whole army, 8000 strong, to move forward and storm the American intrenchments. It was arranged in two columns—one commanded by General Keane; the other by Gen-

eral Gibbs, a good soldier, who came with Pakenham, and was his second in command. Towards evening (Dec. 27) they moved forward, and encamped on the plantations of Bienvenu and Chalmette, within a few hundred yards of Jackson's intrenchments. Then they began the construction of batteries near the river, but were continually annoyed by Hinds's troopers and other active Americans by quick and sharp attacks on their flank and rear. Jackson was aware of the arrival of Pakenham, and expected vigorous warfare from him. He prepared accordingly. His headquarters were at the château of M. Macarté, a wealthy creole, from the balco-

while, when they fell back, running pell-mell to the shelter of the canal, where they stood waist-deep in mud and water. Their batteries were half destroyed and abandoned, and the shattered column was thoroughly repulsed and demoralized. Meanwhile, the other column, under Gibbs, was actively engaged on the British right. They were pressing General Carroll and his Tennesseans near the swamp very severely, when Gibbs, seeing the heavy pressure on Keane's column, ordered his troops to their assistance. When it gave way, Pakenham ordered a general retreat, and he retired to his headquarters at Villeré's, deeply mortified at this repulse by a handful of backwoodsmen, as he regarded Jackson's army. In this engagement, preliminary to the great battle which soon afterwards ensued, the Americans lost nine killed and eight wounded. The British lost about one hundred and fifty. Pakenham called a council of war, when it was resolved to bring forward heavy siege-guns from the fleet before making another attempt to carry Jackson's lines, for the experience of the 28th had given Pakenham a test of the temper of his opponents. At the same time Jackson was busy in strengthening his position at Rodriguez's Canal, over which not a British soldier had yet passed,



MACARTÉ'S, JACKSON'S HEADQUARTERS.

ny of which, with his field-glass, he could survey the whole of the operations of his own and the British army. From that mansion (standing in 1876) he sent numerous and important orders on that night. He had caused Chalmette's buildings to be blown up on the approach of the invaders, that the sweep of his own artillery might not be impeded, and he had called to the line some Louisiana militia from the rear. He had also planted some heavy guns, and before the dawn of the 28th he had 4000 men and twenty pieces of artillery to receive Pakenham, while the *Louisiana* was prepared to greet him with her heavy cannon. As soon as a light fog had disappeared on the morning of the 28th, the British approached in two columns. Just then a band of rough men—Baratarians—came down from the city, and were placed by Jackson in command of one of the 24-pounders. As a solid column under General Keane drew near, they were met by a terrible fire of musketry, but they bravely advanced until checked by the sudden opening of Jackson's heavy guns and the batteries of the *Louisiana*. At the same time the British rocketeers were busy, but they did very little damage. Keane's troops endured the tempest that was thinning their ranks for a

excepting as a prisoner. He placed two 12-pounders in battery on his left, near the swamp, in charge of General Garrigue Flaazac, a French volunteer, and also a 6- and an 18-pounder, under Colonel Perry. His intrenchments were extended into the swamp to prevent a flank movement. On the opposite side of the Mississippi there was a similar structure; and Commander Patterson, pleased with the effects of the guns of the *Louisiana* from the same side, established a battery back of the levee, which he armed with heavy guns from the schooner. This battery commanded the front of Jackson's lines by an enfilading fire, and soon compelled the British to fall back from Chalmette's. The Tennessee riflemen were conspicuously active in annoying the British sentinels by "hunts," as they called little expeditions. The British contented themselves with casting up a strong redoubt near the swamp, from which they opened a vigorous fire on Jackson's left (Dec. 31). That night the whole British army moved forward to within a few hundred yards of the American lines, and began throwing up intrenchments on which to place heavy siege-guns, which had arrived. By daylight they had erected three half-moon batteries within six hundred yards of the

American breastworks, right, centre, and left. Upon these they had mounted thirty pieces of heavy ordnance, manned by picked gunners from the fleet. The works were hidden by a thick fog on the morning of Jan. 1 (1815). When it lifted, the British opened a brisk fire, not doubting that in a few minutes the contemptible defences of the Americans would be scattered to the winds. The army was arrayed in battle order to rush forward and capture the works and their defenders. Every moment the cannonade and bombardment became heavier, and

under Adair. Pakenham now conceived the hazardous plan of carrying Jackson's lines by storm on both sides of the river. Those on the right bank were under the command of General Morgan. Jackson penetrated Pakenham's design on the 6th, and he disposed his forces accordingly. The New Orleans troops and a few others were placed on the right of the intrenchments, and fully two thirds of the whole line was covered by the commands of Coffee and Carroll. The latter was reinforced on the 7th by one thousand Kentuckians, under General

Adair, and fifty marines. Coffee, with five hundred men, held the extreme left of the line, where his men were compelled to sleep on floating logs lashed to the trees. Jackson's whole force on the New Orleans side of the river was about five thousand in number. Of these only twenty-two hundred were at the line, and only eight hundred of them were regulars, the rest mostly raw recruits commanded by young officers. His army was formed in two divisions—one, on the right, commanded by Colonel Ross; and the other, on the left, by Generals Carroll and Coffee. Another intrenchment had been thrown up a mile and a half in the rear of the front.



REMAINS OF RODRIGUEZ'S CANAL IN 1861. (See p. 985.)

the rocketeers sent showers of fiery missiles upon the Americans. Meanwhile, Jackson had opened his heavy guns on his assailants. His cannonade was led off by the imperturbable Humphrey on the left, followed by the Baratarians and the veteran Garrigue. The American artillery thundered all along the line. Pakenham was amazed. He could not conceive where the Americans got their guns and gunners. The conflict became terrible. Patterson fought the batteries on the levee from the opposite side of the river; and an attempt to turn the American left at the swamp was successfully met by Coffee and his riflemen, and the assailants made to fly in terror. Towards noon the fire of the British slackened. Their half-moon batteries were crushed, the batteries on the levee were demolished, and the invaders ran helter-skelter to the ditch for protection. Under cover of the ensuing night, they crawled back to their camp, dragging with them a part of their cannon over the oozy ground. It was a bitter New-year's-day for the British army. They had been without food or sleep for sixty hours. There was joy in the American camp. It was increased when General John Adair announced that more than two thousand drafted men from Kentucky, under Major-general John Thomas, were near. They arrived at New Orleans on the morning of the 4th, and seven hundred of them were sent to the front

behind which the weaker of his forces were stationed. Jackson also established a third line at the lower edge of the city. General Morgan, on the opposite side of the river, had eight hundred men, all militia and indifferently armed. On the night of the 7th, Pakenham sent Lieutenant-colonel Thornton with a detachment to attack Morgan, and at dawn the British, under Pakenham, were seen advancing to attack Jackson's lines. The heavy guns of one of Jackson's batteries were opened upon it, and so a terrible battle was begun. The British line, stretching across the plain of Chalmette, was broken into companies, but steadily advanced, terribly smitten by a storm that came from the American batteries, which made fearful lanes through their ranks with round and grape shot. The right of the British, under Gibbs, had obliques towards the swamp, and was thrown into some confusion by the guns of the Americans. This was heightened by the fact that there had been neglect in bringing forward fascines and scaling-ladders. His troops poured forward in solid column, covered in front by blazing rockets. Whole platoons were prostrated, when others instantly filled their places; and so, without pause or recoil, they pushed towards the weaker left of Jackson's line. By this time all of the American batteries, including Patterson's across the river, were in full

play. Yet steadily on marched Wellington's veterans, stepping firmly over the dead bodies of slain comrades, until they had reached a point within two hundred yards of the American line, behind which, concealed from the view of the invaders, lay the Tennessee and Kentucky sharpshooters, four ranks deep. Suddenly the clear voice of General Carroll rang out the word, "Fire!" His Tennesseans instantly arose, and, taking sure aim, laid scores of the British soldiery on the ground by a terrific storm of bullets. That storm did not cease for a moment, for when the Tennesseans had fired they fell back, and the Kentuckians took their places, and so the four ranks in turn participated in the conflict. At the same time, round, grape, and chain shot went crashing through the British line from the several batteries, and it began to waver, when a detachment brought up the fascines and scaling-ladders, and revived the hopes of the British. Pakenham was at the head of his troops. Addressing a few stirring words to the men he was leading forward, his bridle-arm was made powerless by a bullet, and his horse was shot dead under him. He instantly mounted another. Several of his officers fell one after another, and the line broke up into detachments, a greater part of them falling back to the shelter of the protecting swamp. They were rallied, and rushed forward to carry the works in front of Carroll and Coffee. At that moment, Keane, on the left, wheeled his column and pushed to the aid of the right, terribly enfiladed by the American batteries as they strode across the plain. Their presence encouraged the broken column on the right, and all rushed into the heart of the tempest from Carroll's rifles, Gibbs on the right and Paken-

that scattered dead men all around him. One of the balls passed through the general's thigh, killing his horse under him. Pakenham was caught in the arms of his faithful aid, Captain McDougall, who performed the same service for General Ross a few months before. (See *North Point, Battle of*.) He was conveyed to the rear in a dying condition, and expired in the arms of McDougall under a live-oak tree. General Gibbs was also mortally wounded, and died the next day. Keane, shot in the neck, was compelled to leave the field, and the command devolved on Major Wilkinson, the officer of highest grade in the saddle. His discomfited troops fell back, and the whole army fled in disorder. While these events were occurring on the right, nearly 1000 men under the active Colonel Rennie had pushed rapidly forward near the river in two columns, and, driving in the American pickets, took possession of the unfinished redoubt on Jackson's extreme right. They did not hold it long. Patterson's battery greatly annoyed Rennie's column on its march. As he scaled the parapet of the redoubt, and had just exclaimed, "Hurrah, boys, the day is ours!" he fell dead, pierced by a bullet from Beale's rifles. When this column fell back in disorder, General Lambert, in command of the reserves, appeared just in time to cover the retreat of the battered and flying regiments, but not to retrieve the misfortunes of the day. From the first flight of British rockets in the morning to the close of the battle, the New Orleans Band, stationed near the centre of the American line, played incessantly, cheering the troops with martial music. No music but the bugle inspired the British columns. Across the Mississippi, Thornton had captured the American intrenchments after the



VILLERE'S MANSION. (See p. 988.)

ham on their left. In a few minutes the right arm of the latter was disabled by a bullet. Very soon, while shouting huzzas to his troops, there came a terrible storm of round and grape shot

cannons had been spiked and rolled into the river; also Patterson's battery, the commander and his men, after spiking the guns, escaping on board the *Louisiana*. Then Thornton recrossed

the river and joined the retiring army. In this terrible battle the British lost 2600 men, killed, wounded, and made prisoners; while the Americans, sheltered by their breastworks, lost only eight killed and thirteen wounded. The history of human warfare presents no parallel to this disparity in loss. On the western side of the river the British had 100 killed and wounded; the Americans six. The next morning (Jan. 9, 1815) detachments from both armies were engaged in burying the dead on the plain. The Kentuckians carried to the British detachment the bodies of their slain comrades on the scaling-ladders they had brought. The bodies of the dead British officers were buried on Villeré's plantation, not far from his mansion, and those of Pakenham and several others were placed in casks of rum and sent to England. On Jan. 18 a general exchange of prisoners took place, and under cover of the next night General Lambert withdrew all the British from the Mississippi, and they soon made their way in open boats across Lake Borgne to their fleet, sixty miles distant, between Cat and Ship islands. Louisiana was saved. The news of the victory created intense joy throughout the country. State Legislatures and other bodies thanked Jackson and his brave men. A small medal was struck in commemoration of the event and circulated among the people. Congress voted the thanks of the nation to Jackson, and ordered a commemorative gold medal to be given to him.

New Orleans, CAPTURE OF (1862). The national government resolved to repossess itself of Mobile, New Orleans, Baton Rouge, and Galveston, and to attempt to acquire control of the Lower Mississippi and Texas. The Department of the Gulf was created, which included all these points, and General B. F. Butler was placed in command of it. It was proposed to send a competent land and naval force first to capture New Orleans. General McClellan did not think the plan feasible, for it would take 50,000 men, and he was unwilling to spare a man from his army of more than 200,000 men lying around Washington. President Lincoln approved the project, and Mr. Stanton said to General Butler, "The man who takes New Orleans shall be made a lieutenant-general." Butler called for troops. New England was alive with enthusiasm, and furnished them, in addition to her thousands in the Army of the Potomac. He sailed from Fortress Monroe (Feb. 25, 1862) with his wife, his staff, and 1400 New England troops. Storms and delays made the passage long, and it was thirty days before he landed on dreary Ship Island (his place of destination), off the coast of Mississippi, where there was an unfinished fort, but not a house. The insurgents of that region had taken possession of that island and the fort in considerable force. During their occupation of it for about four months, they made it strong and available for defence. They constructed eleven bomb-proof casemates, a magazine, and barracks, mounted twenty heavy Dahlgren guns, and named it Fort Twiggs. When a rumor that a strong naval force was approaching reached the island, the Confederate garrison abandoned the

fort, burned the barracks, and with their cannon fled to the main. On the following day, a small force was landed from the national gunboat *Massachusetts*, and took possession of the place. They strengthened the fort by building two more casemates, adding Dahlgren and rifled cannon, and piling around its outer walls tiers of sand-bags six feet in depth. They gave to the fort the name of their vessel, and it became Fort Massachusetts. When General Butler arrived, there was no house on the island, and it was with much difficulty that a decent place of shelter was prepared for his wife and his military family. General Phelps was there with New England troops, so also was Commodore Farragut with a naval force, and Commodore D. D. Porter with a fleet of bomb-vessels to co-operate with the land force. At a short bend in the Mississippi River, sixty miles below New Orleans, were forts Jackson and St. Philip. These, with some fortifications above and obstructions in the river below, seemed to the Confederates to make the stream absolutely impassable by vessels. These defences and 10,000 troops in New Orleans under General Mansfield Lovell, seemed to make that city perfectly secure from invasion from below. One of the New Orleans journals said, in a boastful manner, "Our only fear is that the Northern invaders may not appear. We have made such extensive preparations to receive them, that it were vexatious if their invincible armada escapes the fate we have in store for it." On April 28 the fleets of Farragut and Porter were within the Mississippi River, the former in chief command of the naval forces; and General Butler, with about 9000 troops, was at the Southwest Pass. The fleets comprised forty-seven armed vessels, and these, with the transports, went up the river, Porter's mortar-boats leading. When they approached the forts their hulls were besmeared with mud, and the rigging was covered with branches of trees. So disguised, they were enabled to take a position near the forts unsuspected. The Mississippi was full to the brim, and a boom and other obstructions near Fort Jackson had been swept away by the flood. On April 18 a battle between Fort Jackson and Porter's mortar-boats was begun. The gunboats supported the mortar-boats. They could not much affect the forts, and on the night of the 23d the fleet started to run by them, the mortar-boats helping. The perilous passage of the forts was begun at two o'clock in the morning. The night was intensely dark, and in the gloom a tremendous battle was waged. The National naval force was met by a Confederate one. In that struggle the Nationals were victorious. While the battle was raging near the forts, General Butler landed his troops, and in small boats passed through narrow and shallow bayous in the rear of Fort St. Philip. The alarmed garrison surrendered to Butler without resistance, declaring they had been pressed into the service and would fight no more. When the forts were surrendered and the Confederate gunboats subdued, Farragut rendezvoused at Quarantine, and then with nine vessels he went up to New Orleans. There a fearful panic prevailed, for the

people had heard of the disasters below. Drums were beating, soldiers were hurrying to and fro, cotton was carried to the levee to be burned; specie to the amount of \$4,000,000 had been carried away from the banks, and citizens, with millions of property, had fled from the city. When Farragut approached (April 25, 1862) General Lovell and his troops fled; the torch was applied to the cotton on the levee, and 15,000

getic measures, in defiance of the Legislature, that the city was saved from capture and pillage. This act gave great offence to the civil power. (See *Jackson, General, fined for Contempt of Court.*) A rumor was set afloat that Jackson, rather than surrender the city to the British, intended to lay it in ashes and retire up the river. This rumor caused movements on the part of the Legislature and some of the

leading citizens that made Jackson believe that body might intend, to save the city, to offer a premature capitulation. Jackson directed Claiborne, in such case, to arrest the members of the Legislature. The governor misinterpreted the order, and, without waiting to know whether suspicions of its intentions were well founded, he placed a military guard at the door of the legislative hall and broke up the session. Jackson had authorized a search of all the houses and stores in the city for arms, and, to prevent any skulking



THE LEVEE AT NEW ORLEANS.

bales, a dozen large ships and as many fine steamers, with unfinished gunboats and other large vessels, were destroyed in the conflagration. The citizens were held in durance by Farragut's guns until the arrival of Butler on May 1, when the latter landed with his troops, took formal possession of the defenceless town, and made his headquarters at the St. Charles Hotel. The loss of New Orleans was a terrible blow to the Confederates.

New Orleans, EXPOSED CONDITION OF (1814). When the British had captured the American flotilla on Lake Borgne (which see) there seemed to be no obstacle to the seizure of the city of New Orleans. Troops for its defence were few, and arms fewer still. Some months before, Jackson had called for a supply of arms for the southwest from the arsenal at Pittsburgh, but, from an unwillingness to pay the freight demanded by the only steamboat then navigating the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, these means of defence had been shipped in keel-boats, and did not arrive until after the fate of the city had been decided. Jackson put forth amazing energy. He called for Tennessee and Kentucky volunteers, and urged the Legislature of Louisiana to work energetically with him. That body seemed unwilling or unable to comprehend the gravity of the situation, while the governor (Claiborne) was all alive with patriotic zeal. Even the muskets on hand in the city would have been useless but for a timely supply of flints furnished by Lafitte (which see), the Baratarian pirate. The Legislature passed an act suspending for four months the payment of all bills and notes; but they hesitated to suspend the habeas corpus act; when Jackson, under whose command Governor Claiborne had placed himself, took the responsibility of declaring martial law, and also took such ener-

getic measures, in defiance of the Legislature, that the city was saved from capture and pillage.

New Orleans Secured for Spain. (See *First Republican Government in America.*) The Spanish cabinet agreed that Louisiana must be retained as a part of the Spanish dominions, and as a granary for Havana and Porto Rico. It was also agreed that Louisiana a republic would soon rival Spain in wealth and property; be independent of European powers; contrast strongly with other Spanish provinces; cause the inhabitants of the vast Mexican domain to consider their total want of commerce, the extortions of their governors, and the few offices they were permitted to fill; and thus still more hatred of Spanish rule would be engendered and the Mexicans encouraged to throw it off. In view of the apparent danger of trouble with, if not absolute loss of, her colonies by Spain, the minister (D'Aranda) advised the king to reduce the colony of Louisiana to submission. The king accepted the advice, and, with foolish pride, said, "The world must see that I, unaided, can crush the audacity of sedition." He despatched an officer (Alexander O'Reilly) in great haste to Cuba, with orders to extirpate republicanism at New Orleans. At the close of July, 1769, O'Reilly appeared at the Balize with a strong force. With pretensions of friendship, promises that the people of New Orleans would not be harmed were made and received with faith. On the 8th of August the Spanish squadron, of twenty-four vessels, bearing three thousand troops, anchored in front of New Orleans, and the place was taken possession of in the name of the Spanish monarch. With feigned kindness of intentions, the treacherous O'Reilly invited the people's representatives and many of the leading inhabitants to his house (Aug. 21), and the former were invited to pass into

his private apartments, where they were arrested. "You are charged with being the chiefs of this revolt," said O'Reilly; "I arrest you in the name of his Catholic Majesty." Provisional decrees settled the government, and on the 26th the inhabitants were compelled to take the oath of allegiance to the King of Spain. Twelve of the representatives were selected as victims. They were among the richest and most influential citizens of Louisiana. Their estates were confiscated for the benefit of the officers who tried them. Six of them were sentenced for six or ten years, or for life, and five of them—Lafrenière, his young son-in-law Noyan, Caresse, Marquis, and Joseph Milhet—were sentenced to be hanged, but, for want of such an executioner, were shot on Oct. 25, 1769. Villeré, one of the twelve, did not survive the day of his arrest, and his name was declared infamous. "The insult done to the king's dignity and authority in the province is repaired," reported O'Reilly; "the example now given can never be effaced." So perished the first republic established in America.

New Orleans Transferred. There was much discussion, even before the ratification of the treaty for the purchase of Louisiana, concerning its boundaries. The terms of the treaty were indefinite about the boundary, declaring the territory to be "the same extent that it now has in the hands of Spain, and that it had when France possessed it." Its eastern boundary, along the Gulf region, was so indefinite that to take possession of what seemed to be right by the United States might lead to war with Spain. Jefferson was content, at first, to accept the formal delivery of the island of New Orleans, which was made by Citizen Lausart (Dec. 20, 1803), who had, as commissioner of France, received possession a few days before from the Spanish authorities, leaving the left bank of the lakes (Borgne and Pontchartrain) and the river above in the hands of the Spaniards.

New Pension Bill. In 1872 Congress passed a new pension bill, giving eight dollars a month to all surviving officers, enlisted and drafted men, and volunteers in the wars of the Revolution and of 1812-15, or their surviving widows. There were then only two surviving soldiers of the Revolution. (See *Cook, Lemuel*, and *Hutchings, William*.) The pensions, added to those of the war for the Union, made the amount of money annually distributed by our government for the benefit of war veterans at the beginning of 1875 about \$30,000,000.

New Plymouth, CHARTER FOR. When, in 1627, the term of partnership between the Pilgrims and the London merchants had expired, the latter, numbering not more than three hundred at New Plymouth, applied to the Council of New England for a charter. It was granted (July 13, 1630), in which the boundaries of the colony were defined, on the land side, as composed of two lines—one drawn northerly from the mouth of Narraganset River, the other westerly from Cohasset rivulet—to meet at "the

utmost limits of a country or place called Pocanoket." (See *Massasoit*.) A grant on the Kennebec, where some of the Pilgrims had been seated, was included in the charter. The patent gave a title to the soil, but the functions of government could only be exercised, according to English legal opinions, under a charter from



OLD COLONY SEAL

the crown. Efforts were made to obtain such a charter, but without success. The colonists, however, gradually assumed all the prerogatives of government—even the power of capital punishment. Eight capital offences were enumerated in the first Plymouth code, including treason or rebellion against the colony and "solemn compaction or conversing with the devil." Trial by jury was introduced, but punishments for minor offences remained discretionary. For eighteen years all laws were enacted in a general assembly of all the colonists. The governor, who was simply president of a council, was chosen annually. There were finally seven councillors, called assistants; and so little was public office coveted that it was necessary to inflict a fine upon such as, being chosen, declined to serve as governor or assistant. The constitution of the church was equally democratic. For the first eight years there was no pastor. (See *Brewster, William*.) Lyford, a minister, was sent over by the London partners to be a pastor; but they refused, and expelled him. (See *Lyford and Oldham, Conspiracy of*.) Brewster and others were exhorters; and on Sunday afternoons a question was propounded, to which all present might speak. No minister stayed long at Plymouth after they adopted the plan of having a pastor.

Newport (R. I.), CAPTURE OF (1776). Early in December, 1776, a British fleet, with six thousand troops on board, appeared off Newport. The few troops stationed there evacuated the town without attempting to defend it. Commodore Hopkins had several Continental vessels lying there, with a number of privateers. With these he escaped up the bay, and was effectually blockaded at Providence. When Washington heard of this invasion he sent Generals Arnold and Spencer for the defence of Rhode Island. This possession of Newport, the second town in size and importance in New

England, produced general alarm and great annoyance to the inhabitants east of the Hudson.

Newport, CHRISTOPHER, an English navigator, who commanded the first successful expedition for the settlement of Virginia. He had been engaged in an expedition against the Spaniards in the West Indies not long before. He made several voyages to Virginia with emigrants and supplies. Before he returned to England for the last time he joined with Ratcliffe (which see) in an attempt to depose Captain Smith (which see) from the presidency of the colony. He was defeated, and he acknowledged his error. Newport's manuscript work, called "Discoveries in America," was not published until 1860, by E. Everett Hale, in *Archæologia Americana*.

Newport, FRENCH FLEET AND ARMY BLOCKADED AT (1780). Washington had hoped the French army, which arrived at Newport July 10, would march to the Hudson River, and, with their assistance, expected to drive the British from the city of New York. But it was compelled to stand on the defensive there. Six British ships-of-the-line, which had followed the French fleet across the Atlantic, soon afterwards arrived at New York. Having there a naval superiority, Sir Henry Clinton embarked (July 27) six thousand men for the purpose of assailing the French, without waiting for them to attack. The French, perceiving this, cast up fortifications and prepared for a vigorous defence. The militia of Connecticut and Massachusetts marched to their assistance, and Washington crossed the Hudson into Westchester County and threatened New York. As Clinton and Admiral Arbuthnot could not agree upon a plan of operations, the troops were disembarked; but the fleet proceeded to blockade the French ships in Newport harbor. The French army felt compelled to stay for the protection of the vessels. News presently came that the second division of French forces was blockaded at Brest by another British fleet. So the French, instead of being an assistance to the Americans at that time, became a burden, for three thousand five hundred American militia were kept under arms at Newport to protect the French ships. Thus a third time an attempt at French co-operation proved a failure.

Newport-Newce, a strategic point on the James River, not far from Hampton Roads. It is a compound word, derived, it is believed, from the names of Captain Newport (who commanded the first vessel that conveyed English emigrants to Virginia) and Sir William Newce, who, at the time George Sandys was appointed treasurer of the colony, received the appointment of Marshal of Virginia. Captain Smith wrote his name *Nuse*.

New Smyrna, GREEK COLONY AT. In 1767 Dr. Trumbull, of Charleston, S. C., went to the place known as New Smyrna, in Florida, with about fifteen hundred persons—Greeks, Italians, and Minorcans—whom he had persuaded to follow him to better their fortunes. He established them on a tract of sixty thousand

acres, and began the cultivation of indigo. Trumbull reduced these poor people to slavery, and treated them most cruelly. The English governor of the territory was his partner in the enterprise. He kept the colonists in subjection by troops. Nine years this slavery lasted, when, in 1776, the petitions of the people were heard and heeded by a new governor just arrived, and they were released from the tyranny of Trumbull. Nearly two thirds of the colonists had then perished. Most of the survivors went to St. Augustine, where their descendants now constitute a considerable portion of the native population.

New Somerset. The provinces held by Gorges after the division of the New England territory he named New Somerset. He sent out his nephew, William Gorges, as deputy-governor of the domain, which extended from the Piscataqua to the Kennebec. He assumed rule over the fishing hamlets there, and held a general court at Saco. (See *Maine, Colonial*.)

Newspaper Press (1861). After the attack on Fort Sumter and the call of President Lincoln for troops, the newspaper press, North and South, indulged in the most foolish boastings. "The nations of Europe," said the *New York Tribune*, "may rest assured that Jeff. Davis & Co. will be swinging from the battlements at Washington at least by the 4th of July. We spit upon a later or longer deferred justice." "Let us make quick work," said the *New York Times*. "The rebellion, as some people designate it, is an embryo tadpole. Let us not fall into the delusion, noted by Hallam, of mistaking a 'local commotion' for a revolution. A strong, active 'pull together' will do the work thoroughly in thirty days." The *Philadelphia Press* said: "No man of sense can for a moment doubt that this 'much ado about nothing' will end in a month." It declared that the Northern people were simply "invincible. The rebels—a mere band of ragamuffins—will fly like chaff before the wind on our approach." The *Chicago Tribune* said: "Let the East get out of the way. This is a war of the West. We can fight the battle, and successfully, within two or three months, at the farthest. Illinois can whip the South by herself. We insist on the matter being turned over to us." The *Cincinnati Commercial* said: "The rebellion will be crushed out before the assembling of Congress." The Southern press, richer in vituperative language, was full of boasting and abuse. A single specimen will suffice. The *Mobile Advertiser*, one of the ablest and most respectable of the Southern journals, used the following language, after President Lincoln's call for troops and the riot in Baltimore (which see): "The Northern 'soldiers' are men who prefer enlisting to starvation; scurvy fellows from the back slums of cities, whom Falstaff would not have marched through Coventry with. But these are not soldiers—least of all to meet the hot-blooded, thoroughbred, impetuous men of the South. Trencher soldiers, who enlisted to war upon their rations, not on men. They are such as marched through Baltimore [the Massa-

chusetts Sixth, admirably clothed, equipped, and disciplined, and composed of some of the best young men of New England], squalid, wretched, ragged, and half-naked, as the newspapers of that city report them. Fellows who do not know the breech of a musket from its muzzle, and had rather filch a handkerchief than fight an enemy in manly combat. White slaves, peddling wretches, small-change knaves and vagrants, the dregs and offscourings of the populace. These are the levied 'forces' whom Lincoln suddenly arrays as candidates for the honor of being slaughtered by gentlemen—such as Mobile sends to battle. Let them come South, and we will put our negroes to the dirty work of killing them. But they will not come South. Not a wretch of them will live on this side of the border longer than it will take us to reach the ground and drive them off." To show contempt for the national government, the *Mobile Advertiser*, on the day after the call of the President for troops, contained the following advertisement: "SEVENTY-FIVE THOUSAND COFFINS WANTED. Proposals will be received to supply the Confederacy with seventy-five thousand black coffins. ☞ No proposals will be entertained coming north of Mason and Dixon's line. Direct to JEFF. DAVIS, Montgomery, Ala." These were foolish and fatal boastings. Neither the "North" nor the "South" seemed to comprehend the gravity of the occasion.

Newspapers in America first appeared at the beginning of the eighteenth century. The first one published in this country was called *Public Occurrences*, and was issued at Boston in September, 1690. It was so radically democratic and outspoken that it was smothered by the magistrates on the day of its birth. The first permanent newspaper was the *Boston News-Letter*, issued in April, 1704. The dates of the first issuing of newspapers in the original thirteen states are as follows: In Massachusetts, 1704; Pennsylvania, 1719; New York, 1725; Maryland, 1728; South Carolina, 1732 (the first newspaper issued south of the Potomac); Rhode Island, 1732; Virginia, 1736; Connecticut, 1755; North Carolina, 1755; New Hampshire, 1756; Delaware, 1761. The first daily newspaper was the *Pennsylvania Packet, or General Advertiser*, published by John Dunlap, in 1784, and afterwards called the *Daily Advertiser*. The number of newspapers at the beginning of the Revolution, in 1775, was only thirty-four, with a total weekly circulation of 5000 copies; in 1875 there were 6793, and their total annual issues numbered about 2,000,000,000 copies. Of these, 724 were dailies and 5869 were weeklies. In 1833 the first of the cheap or "penny" papers was issued in New York by Benjamin H. Day. It was called the *Sun*, and immediately acquired an enormous circulation. It was at first less than a foot square. In 1890 the total number of newspapers in the United States was 16,948, and the total yearly issue of papers was estimated at 3,400,000,000 copies.

Newspapers in the United States (1798). At the time of the passage of the Alien and Sedition

laws (which see) there were about two hundred newspapers published in the United States. Of these, about one hundred and seventy-five were supporters of the national administration; the remainder were chiefly under the control of aliens. Although there were eight daily papers in Philadelphia and five or six in New York, it was seldom that any one had an editor distinct from the printer and publisher. One of the first papers established on that plan in New York was the *Minerva*, a daily paper, set up in 1794, of which the name had lately been changed to the *Commercial Advertiser*. It was the ablest paper in the country on the Federal side, and was edited by Noah Webster, afterwards the lexicographer. Out of New England the publishers of newspapers were principally foreigners. They were wielding a powerful influence by being vehicles for communication with the people by such men as Hamilton, Jay, Madison, King, Ames, Cabot, and many others; and, in the half-century between 1765 and 1815, this peculiar literature of America is to be found in its newspapers, sometimes coarse and vulgar, but always vigorous. From 1790 to 1800 the political newspapers (and they were nearly all so) teemed with scandalous personal attacks. Chief-justice McKean, in his charge in a libel case in which Cobbett was concerned (see *Porcupine's Gazette*), said, in 1794: "Every one who has in him the sentiments of either a Christian or a gentleman cannot but be highly offended at the envenomed scurrility that has raged in pamphlets and newspapers printed in Philadelphia for several years past, inasmuch that libelling has become a national crime, and distinguishes us not only from all the states around us, but from the whole civilized world. Our satire has been nothing but ribaldry and Billingsgate; the contest has been, who could call names in the greatest variety of phrases; who could mangle the greatest number of characters, or who could excel in the magnitude of their lies. Hence the honor of families has been stained; the highest posts rendered cheap and vile in the sight of the people, and the greatest services and virtue blasted."

New Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, inspired by William Usselinx, the projector of the Dutch West India Company, formed a project for planting a Swedish colony in America. The plan was confirmed by the diet, and at Nuremberg the king, in the midst of a stirring campaign, by proclamation (Oct. 16, 1632), recommended the enterprise to his countrymen. Eighteen days later he was killed, at Lützen, and his crown descended to his daughter Christina, a child six years old. Axel (Count Oxenstiern) became regent of Sweden, and favored the colonization scheme. A charter was confirmed by the diet in 1634, and three years afterwards the scheme was carried out. After his recall from New Netherland, Governor Minuit visited Stockholm and offered the benefit of his experience in America to the Swedes; and towards the close of 1637 he sailed from Gottenburg, with a commission signed by the Swedish authorities, to plant a new colony on the west side of Delaware Bay, where there was then no

European colony. Minuit sailed in a ship of war with fifty emigrants (some of them bandits to be employed as galley-slaves in erecting fortifications), supplied with a Lutheran clergyman, provisions, ammunition, and goods for traffic with the natives. The expedition touched at Jamestown in the early spring (1638) for wood and water, and reached Delaware Bay early in April. Going up the bay, Minuit landed and procured from an Indian sachem a deed, written in Low Dutch, for a region which the Swedish governor declared extended from Cape Henlopen to the falls of the Delaware at Trenton and an indefinite distance inland. Hearing of this arrival, the Dutch inquired what it meant. Minuit answered that he was planting a colony, and should build a fort and trading-house, having as good a right to do so as the Dutch West India Company. Kieft protested and threatened, as it was claimed that the Delaware, or South, River was in New Netherland. But Minuit persisted, built a fort on the site of Wilmington, and, in compliment to the young queen, called it Fort Christina. Trade with the natives flourished. Hollanders joined them in 1640, and the new settlement gave the company much uneasiness. Minuit died at Fort Christina in 1641, and the Swedish government proceeded to place their colony on the Delaware on a permanent footing. The settlement was called "New Sweden," and in 1643 John Printz, a brave soldier, arrived as governor. He resided on Tinicum Island, twelve miles below Philadelphia, and a new fort was built. The Swedes became lively rivals of the Dutch for the fur-trade, and Printz tried to inflame the Indians with hostility to the Hollanders. When Stuyvesant came to New Netherland the Swedes were more circumspect. He visited Printz, demanded the title of the Swedes to land there, and, summoning the chiefs of the Indian tribes to a council at Fort Nassau, learned from them that the Swedes had usurped nearly all the land they claimed. Near the site of New Castle, Stuyvesant proceeded to build a fort (Kasimer), unmindful of the protests of Printz, who, finding his situation unpleasant, returned to Sweden in 1653. He was succeeded by John Claudius Risingh, a warlike magistrate, with some soldiers under the bold Sven Schute. These soon captured Fort Kasimer (1654), and called it Fort Trinity, as the surrender occurred on Trinity Sunday. Stuyvesant was enraged, but pent his wrath until September of the following year, when, with seven vessels and over six hundred soldiers, he sailed for the Delaware, accompanied by some of the civil officers and the pastor of the church. Stuyvesant, on landing between forts Kasimer and Christina, sent an ensign, with a drum, to demand the surrender of the former. Sven Schute complied, and, in the presence of Stuyvesant and his suite, he drank the health of the governor in a glass of Rhenish wine. It was a bloodless victory; and before the end of September (1655) the conquest of New Sweden was completed. Stuyvesant wisely made friends of the conquered people, and they became loyal citizens of New Netherland. (See *Maine, Colonial*.)

New Territory, A. During the second session of the First National Congress, North Carolina ceded its western lands to the United States. It was approved by Congress, and the region south of the Ohio was formed (1790) into a territorial government, with the same powers and privileges as had been granted to the territory north of that river, but without restrictions concerning slavery. (See *Northwestern Territory*.)

Newton, JOHN, was born in Virginia, in 1820. He graduated at West Point in 1842, entering the engineer corps. From 1843 to 1846 he was assistant professor of engineering there. He had been in various engineering services when the Civil War broke out. Then (September, 1861) he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded a brigade in the Peninsula campaign in 1862. He behaved gallantly at South Mountain and Antietam, and commanded a division in the battle at Fredericksburg, late in the year, and at Gettysburg in 1863. He afterwards commanded the First Corps until near the close of the year. Newton was in command of the Fourth Corps as major-general of volunteers in the Atlanta campaign, in 1864, and afterwards commanded the District of Key West and Tortugas until January, 1865. In March, 1867, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army for "meritorious services during the Rebellion." In 1876 he was successfully engaged in removing the dangerous rocks at Hell Gate, East River.

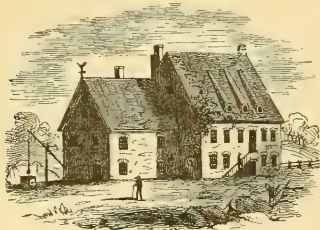
New York, AN ATTACK UPON, FRUSTRATED (1781). Before the arrival of the French army on the Hudson, Washington had contemplated an attack on the British on the north part of New York Island. He had received intimations from the Count de Grasse, in the West Indies, that he might be expected soon on the American coast with a powerful fleet. Washington and Rochambeau both wrote letters to the admiral, pressing him to bring additional troops with him. The expectation of this fleet and the approach of the French army made Washington feel strong enough to attempt the enterprise. Before he was ready to execute it, a reinforcement of three thousand Hessian troops joined Clinton in New York (Aug. 11), and the proposed expedition was abandoned.

New York and the Continental Congress. On Jan. 26, 1775, Abraham Tenbroeck moved, in the New York Assembly, to take into consideration the proceedings of the First Continental Congress. He was ably seconded by Philip Schuyler and a greater portion of those who were of Dutch descent, as well as George Clinton. The motion was lost by a majority of one. Toryism was then rife in that Assembly. They refused to vote thanks to the New York delegates in the Congress, or to print the letters of the Committee of Correspondence. They expressed no favor for the American Association; and when, on Feb. 23, it was moved to send delegates to the Second Continental Congress, the motion was defeated by a vote of nine to seventeen. The Assembly was false to its constituents,

for a majority of the province was, in heart, with Massachusetts.

New York Bills of Credit. At the beginning of autumn, 1775, the New York Provincial Congress issued bills of credit to the amount of \$112,000, and adjourned for a month, leaving public affairs in the hands of a Committee of Safety.

New York, CAPTURE OF, BY THE BRITISH (1776). General Howe selected the 13th of September, 1776, for the landing of his army on New York Island from Long Island. It was the anniversary of the capture of Quebec, in 1759, in which Howe participated. The watchword was



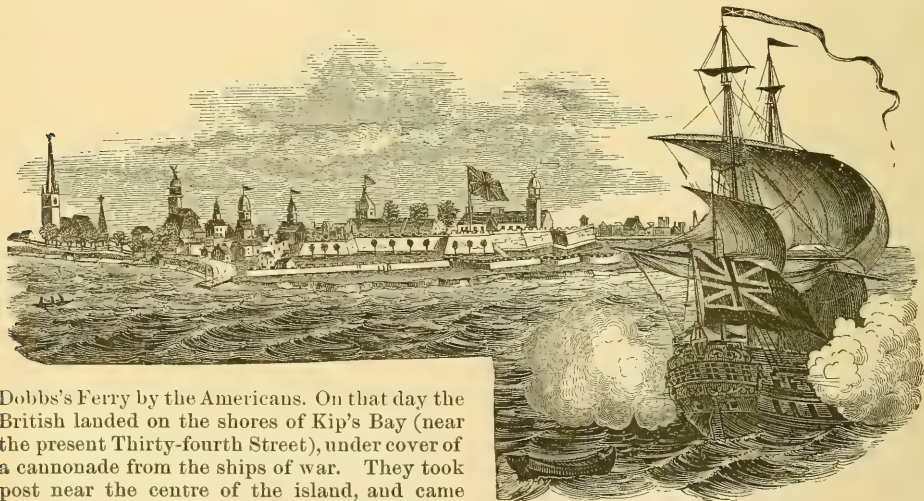
KIP'S HOUSE.

"Quebec!" the countersign was "Wolfe!" In the afternoon four armed ships, keeping up an incessant fire on the American batteries, passed them into the East River, and anchored, but no landing was attempted that day. On the next day, about sunset, six British vessels ran up the East River, and on the 15th three others entered the Hudson, and anchored off Bloomingdale. This put a stop to the removal of American stores to

instrument appeared so objectionable "that nothing but the fullest confidence of obtaining a revision of them by a General Convention and an invincible reluctance to separate from their sister states could have prevailed on a sufficient number to ratify, without stipulation for previous amendments." They recommended to the states to make application to the First National Congress, to meet in March, 1789, to authorize a new Constitutional Convention. This proposition was responded to by Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, and Rhode Island. A series of amendments to the Constitution had been proposed. The friends of that instrument looked upon the New York circular with alarm, and while they were willing to consider amendments, they strenuously opposed a convention, and the matter was, after much discussion, dropped.

New York City, GREAT FIRE IN. On Dec. 16, 1835, a fire broke out which swept the First Ward, east of Broadway and below Wall Street, destroying 529 buildings, most of them valuable stores; also the Merchants' Exchange and the South Dutch Church. The property destroyed was valued at more than \$20,000,000.

New York City, INCIDENTS OF THE CAPTURE OF. Washington's army had escaped capture on Long Island, but had to contend, in the city of New York, with deadlier foes, in the form of city temptations, sectional jealousies, insubordination, disrespect for superiors, drunkenness, and licentiousness, the fatal elements of dissolution. The British were evidently preparing to crush this weak army. Their ships occupied the bay and both rivers, and there



FORT GEORGE, FROM THE WATER FRONT OF THE PRESENT CASTLE GARDEN.

Dobbs's Ferry by the Americans. On that day the British landed on the shores of Kip's Bay (near the present Thirty-fourth Street), under cover of a cannonade from the ships of war. They took post near the centre of the island, and came very near cutting off the rear-guard of the American army, on its way to Harlem Heights, whither the troops under Washington had withdrawn.

New York Circular Letter, THE. The Convention of the State of New York, held at Poughkeepsie, adopted the national Constitution by a bare majority, and it addressed a circular letter to all the other ratifying states, in which they declared that several of the articles in that in-

were swarms of loyalists in New York and in Westchester County. At a council of war (Sept. 12, 1776) it was resolved to send the military stores to Dobbs's Ferry, on the Hudson, and to retreat to and fortify Harlem Heights, on the northern part of Manhattan Island. The sick

were taken over to New Jersey. The main body of the army, accompanied by a host of Whigs, left the city (Sept. 14) and moved towards Fort Washington, leaving a rear-guard of four thousand men, under General Putnam. On the 16th they were on Harlem Heights, and Washington made his headquarters at the house of Colonel Roger Morris, his companion-in-arms in the battle on the Monongahela. On the 15th the British and Germans crossed the East River at Kip's Bay (foot of Thirty-fourth Street), under cover of a cannonade from their ships. The American guard fled at the first fire, and two brigades that were to support them ran away in a panic. But the British were kept back long enough to allow Putnam, with his rear-guard, to escape along a road near the Hudson River, and gain Harlem Heights. This was done chiefly by the adroit management of Mrs. Murray, a Quakeress, living on the Ineleberg (now Murray Hill), who entertained the British officers with wines and other refreshments, and vivacious conversation. Putnam, on hearing of the landing at Kip's Bay, had struck his flag at Fort George, foot of Broadway, and made his way to Harlem Heights, sheltered from observation by intervening woods. Lord Dunmore, who was with the British fleet, went ashore and unfurled the British standard over the fort. On the same day British troops, under General Robertson, took possession of the city of New York, and held it seven years, two months, and ten days. Howe made his headquarters at the Beekman



BECKMAN'S MANSION.

mansion at about Fiftieth Street and East River. (See *New York City, Capture of*.)

NEW YORK, COLONY OF. The bay of New York and its great tributary from the north, with the Island of Manhattan, upon which New York city now stands, were discovered by Henry Hudson, in the early autumn of 1609. (See *Hudson, Henry*.) The Indians called the river Mahicannick, or "River of the Mountains." The Dutch called it Mauritius, in compliment to Prince Maurice, and the English gave it the name of Hudson's River, and sometimes North River, to distinguish it from the Delaware, known as South River. The country drained by Hudson's River, with the adjacent undefined territory, was claimed by the Dutch. The year after the discovery, a ship, with part of the crew of the *Half Moon*, was laden with cheap trinkets and other things suitable for traffic with the Indians, sailed from the Texel (1610), and en-

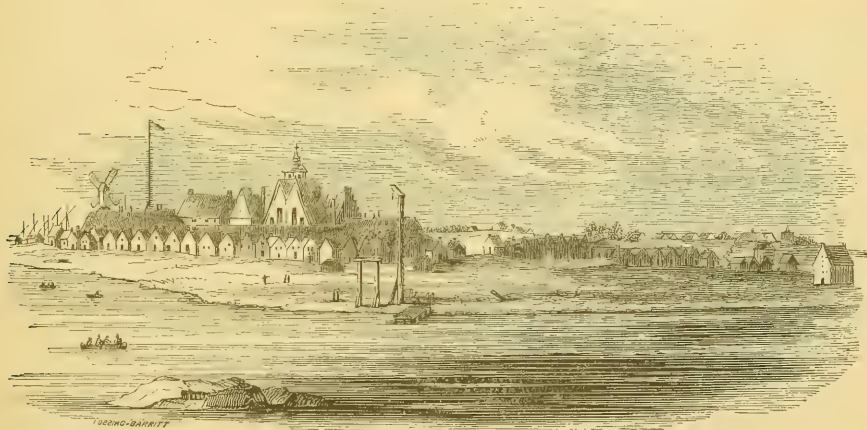
tered the mouth of the Mauritius. The adventurers established a trading-post at Manhattan, where they trafficked in peltries and furs brought by the Indians, from distant regions sometimes. Among the bold navigators who came to Manhattan at that time was Adrian Block, in command of the *Tigress*. He had gathered a cargo of skins, and was about to depart late in 1613, when fire consumed his ship and cargo. He and his crew built log-cabins at the lower end of Manhattan, and there constructed a rude ship during the winter, which they called *Ourst*—"unrest"—and this was the beginning of the great commercial mart, the city of New York. In the spring of 1614 Block sailed through the dangerous strait at Hell Gate, passed through the East River and Long Island Sound, discovering the Housatonic, Connecticut, and Thames rivers, and that the long strip of land on the south was an island (Long Island); saw and named Block Island, entered Narraganset Bay and the harbor of Boston, and, returning to Amsterdam, made such a favorable report of the country that commercial enterprise was so greatly stimulated that, in 1614, the States-General of Holland granted special privileges for traffic with the natives by Hollanders. A company was formed, and with a map of the Hudson's River region, constructed, probably, under the supervision of Block, they sent deputies to the Hague—the seat of government—to obtain a charter. It was obtained on Oct. 11, 1614, to continue four years. The territory included in this charter of privileges—between the parallels of latitude 40° and 45° north, as "lying between Virginia and New France"—was called New Netherland. At the expiration of the charter, the privilege of a renewal was denied, for a more extended and important charter was under contemplation. In the year 1602 Dutch merchants in the India trade had formed an association with a capital of \$1,000,000, under the corporate title of "Dutch East India Company." Their trading privileges extended over all the Indian and Southern oceans between Africa and America. In 1607 they asked for a charter for a Dutch West India Company, to trade along the coast of Africa from the tropics to the Cape of Good Hope, and from Newfoundland to Cape Horn along the continent of America. It was not then granted, for political reasons, but after the discovery of New Netherland the decision was reconsidered, and on June 3, 1620, the States-General chartered the Dutch West India Company, making it not only a great commercial monopoly, but giving it almost regal powers to colonize, govern, and defend, not only the little domain on the Hudson, but the whole unoccupied Atlantic coast of America and the western coasts of Africa. (See *Dutch West India Company*.) Meanwhile the Dutch had explored Delaware Bay and River, probably as far as Trenton, and had endeavored to obtain a four years' charter of trading privileges in that region, but it was regarded as a part of the English province of Virginia. At the same time the traders on Hudson's River had been very enterprising. They built a fort on an island just below the

site of Albany, enlarged their storehouse at Manhattan, went over the pine barrens from the Hudson into the Mohawk valley, and became acquainted with the nations of the Iroquois Confederacy, and made a treaty with them. The Plymouth Company complained that they were intruders on their domain. (See *Plymouth Company*.) King James growled, and Captain Dermer gave them a word of warning. (See *Dermer, Thomas*.) The Dutch West India Company was organized in 1622. Its chief objects were traffic and humbling Spain and Portugal, not colonization. But the attention of the company was soon called to the necessity of founding a permanent colony in New Netherland, in accordance with the English policy, which declared that the rights of eminent domain could only be secured by actual permanent occupation. King James reminded the States-General that Hollanders were unlawfully seated on English territory, but the Hollanders paid no more attention to his worst threats than to take measures for founding an agricultural colony. At that time Holland was the asylum for the oppressed for conscience' sake from all lands. There was a class of refugees there called Walloons, natives of the southern Belgic provinces, whose inhabitants, about forty years before, being chiefly Roman Catholics, had refused to join those of the northern provinces in a confederacy. The Protestants of these provinces (now Belgium) were made to feel the lash of Spanish persecution, and thousands of them fled to Holland. These were the Walloons, who spoke the French language. They were a hardy, industrious race, and introduced many of the useful arts into their adopted country. Some of them wished to emigrate to Virginia, but the terms of the London Company were not liberal, and they accepted proposals from the Dutch West India Company to emigrate to New Netherland. A ship of that name, of 260 tons burden, laden with thirty families (one hundred and ten men, women, and children), mostly Walloons, with agricultural implements, live-stock of every kind, and a sufficient quantity of household furniture, sailed from the Texel early in March, 1623, with Cornelius Jacobsus May, of Hoorn, as commander, who was also to remain as first director, or governor, of the colony. They took the tedious southern route, and did not reach Manhattan until the beginning of May, where they found a French vessel at the mouth of the Hudson, whose commander had been trying to set up the arms of France on the shore, and to take possession of the country in the name of the French monarch. The yacht *Mackereel* had just come down the river. With two cannons taken from the little fort at the southern end of the island, the Frenchman was compelled to desist. His vessel was convoyed to sea, when it went round to the Delaware, and there her commander attempted the same kind of proclamation of sovereignty. He was treated by the Dutch settlers there as at Manhattan, when he sailed for France. This ridiculous performance was the last attempt of the French to assert jurisdiction south of north latitude 45° until a long time afterwards. (See *Céloron's*

Expedition.) These emigrants were soon scattered to different points to form settlements—some to Long Island, some to the Connecticut River, others to the present Ulster County, and others founded Albany, where the company had just built a fortification, and called it Fort Orange. Four young couples, married on ship-board, went to the Delaware, and began a settlement on the east side of the river (now Gloucester), four miles below Philadelphia, where they built a small fortification, and called it Fort Nassau. Eight seamen, who went with them, remained and formed a part of the colony. The company, encouraged by successful trading, nurtured the colony. In 1626 they sent over Peter Minuit as governor, who bought Manhattan Island of the natives, containing, it was estimated, twenty-two thousand acres. At its southern end he built a fortification, calling it Fort Amsterdam, and the village that grew up near it was afterwards named New Amsterdam. The States-General constituted it a county of Holland, and its seal had a shield enclosed in a chain, denoting union, and bore an escutcheon on which was the figure of a beaver. The crest was the coronet of a count. So it was that, within fifteen years after the discoveries of Hudson, the foundations of this great commonwealth were firmly laid by industrious and virtuous families, most of them voluntary exiles from their native lands, to avoid persecution on account of theological dogmas. These were followed by others, equally good and industrious. In 1629 the company gave to the settlers a charter of "privileges and exemptions," which encouraged the emigration of thrifty farmers from the father-land. As much land was offered to such emigrants as they could cultivate, with "free liberty of hunting and fowling," under the directions of the governor. They also offered to every person who should "discover any shore, bay, or other fit place for erecting fisheries or the making of salt-ponds," an absolute property in the same. As the rural population of Holland were not generally rich enough to avail themselves of these privileges, grants of extensive domains, with manorial privileges, were offered to wealthy persons who should induce a certain number of settlers to people and cultivate these lands. (See *Patroons*.) Under this arrangement some of the most valuable part of the lands of the company passed into the possession of a few persons, and an aristocratic element was introduced. The colony was flourishing when Governor Minuit returned to Amsterdam, in 1632, and was succeeded next year by Walter Van Twiller, who had married a niece of Killian Van Rensselaer, a rich pearl-merchant, and who became a patroon. Van Twiller was stupid, but shrewd, and the colony prospered in spite of him. At the end of four years he was succeeded by William Kieft, a spiteful, rapacious, and energetic man, whom De Vries numbered among great rascals. His administration was a stormy one. He exasperated the surrounding Indian tribes by his cruelties, and so disgusted the colonists by his conduct that, at their request, he was recalled.

and sailed for Europe, with ill-gotten wealth, in the spring of 1647, and perished by shipwreck on the shores of Wales. (See *Kieft, William*.) Peter Stuyvesant succeeded Kieft. He was a brave soldier, who had lost a leg in battle, and came to New Netherland from Curaçoa, where he had been governor. He was then forty-four years of age, energetic, just, and so self-willed that Washington Irving called him "Peter the Headstrong." He conciliated the Indian tribes, and systematically administered the affairs of the colony. He came in collision with the Swedes on the Delaware and the English on the Connecticut River. (See *Swedes on the Delaware*.) During his administration he subdued the Swedes (1655), and annexed the territory to New Netherland. (See *New Sweden*.) Finally serious political troubles overtook the colony. From the beginning of the settlement the English claimed New Netherland as a part of Virginia, resting their claim upon the discovery of Cabot. (See *Cabot, John and Sebastian*.) In 1622 the English minister at the Hague demanded the abandonment of the Dutch settlements on the Hudson. Five years afterwards Governor Bradford, of Plymouth, gave notice to Governor Minuit that the patent of New England covered the domain of New Netherland. (See *Dutch at Plymouth*.) In the spring of 1664 Charles II. granted to his brother James, Duke of York, all New Netherland, including the region of country between the Hudson and Delaware rivers; and in August the same year an English fleet appeared before New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. (See *New Amsterdam*.) Governor Stuyvesant resisted for a while, but was compelled to comply, and the whole territory claimed by the Dutch passed into the possession of the English on the 8th of September, 1664.

of short duration, for, by treaty, it was re-surrendered to the English early in 1674. A new grant was made to the Duke of York in June the same year, which included all the domain west of the Connecticut to the eastern shore of the Delaware; also Long Island and a territory in Maine. (See *Pemaquid*.) At the treaty of peace between England and Holland, the Dutch were allowed to retain the colony of Surinam, in Guiana, England retaining New York. Edward Andros was appointed governor, and a formal surrender of the province occurred in October. In 1683 Thomas Dongan became governor, and, under instructions from the Duke of York, he called an Assembly of representatives chosen by the people, and a Charter of Liberties was given to the colonists. This was the foundation of representative government in New York; but James the king did not fulfil the promises of James the duke, and the privileges he had promised were denied. (See *Dongan, Thomas*.) When James was driven from the throne, and Nicholson, the lieutenant-governor, afraid of the people, fled, Jacob Leisler, a merchant of republican tendencies, administered the government for some time in the name of the new sovereigns, William and Mary. When Sloughter, the royal governor, came, the enemies of Leisler procured his execution by hanging. (See *Leisler, Jacob*.) During these political troubles western New York, then inhabited by the Seneca Indians, was invaded by the French, under De Nonville, Governor of Canada. (See *De Nonville's Expedition*.) Two years later (1689) the Five Nations retaliated by invading Canada. The retribution was terrible. More than one thousand French settlers were slain, and the whole province was threatened with destruction. The French then attacked the English. A party of Canadians and Indians

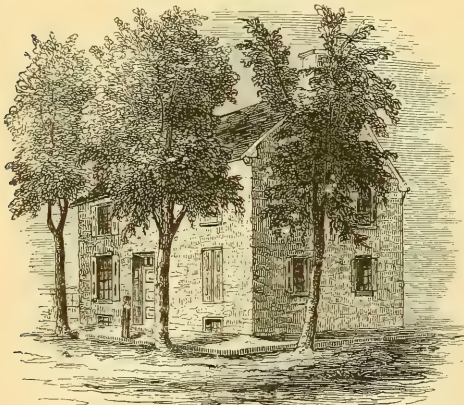


NEW YORK IN 1664.

(See *Stuyvesant*.) To New Amsterdam and New Netherland was then given the name of New York, in compliment to the proprietor. The former was retaken by the Dutch on the 9th of August, 1673, and the name of the city was changed to New Orange. Anthony Colve became governor. But the Dutch possession was

burned Schenectady (Feb. 9) in 1690, and murdered nearly all of the inhabitants. (See *Schenectady*.) The French invaded the Mohawk country in 1693, but the greater part of them perished before they reached Canada. Count Frontenac, Governor of Canada, prepared to attack the Five Nations with all his power, when the

governor of New York (Earl of Bellomont), declared that the English would make common cause with the Iroquois Confederacy. The colony was largely involved in debt by military movements during Queen Anne's War, in which the English and French were engaged from 1702 to 1713. The vicinity of Lake Champlain afterwards became a theatre of hostile events. In 1731 the French built Fort Frederick at Crown Point, for a defence at the natural pass between the Hudson and St. Lawrence; and in 1745 a party of French and Indians invaded the upper valley of the Hudson and destroyed Saratoga. Finally, in 1754, the English and French began their final struggle for supremacy in America, in which the Indians bore a conspicuous part. (See *French and Indian War*.) Meanwhile the colony had been the theatre of warm political strife between the adherents of royalty and democracy. The death of Leisler had created intense popular feeling against royal rule by deputies, and there was continual contention between the popular assembly and the royal governor. (See *Leisler, Jacob*.) There was a struggle for the freedom of the press, in which the people triumphed. (See *Zenger's Trial*.) A colonial convention was held at Albany in 1754, to devise a plan of union (see *Albany, Fourth Colonial Convention at*), and during the French and Indian War many of its most stirring events occurred in the province of New York. That war ended by treaty in 1763, and not long afterwards began the struggle of the English-American colonies against the oppressions of Great Britain. New York took a leading part in that struggle, and in the war for independence that ensued. In March, 1777, a state constitution was framed, after mature deliberation, in a plain house built of blue limestone, on



"THE CONSTITUTION HOUSE," KINGSTON.

the southwest corner of Maiden Lane and Fair Street, in Kingston, in which the convention of the province held its sessions. It was one of the few houses which escaped the conflagration kindled by the British in the autumn of the same year. (See *Kingston, Burning of*.)

New York Evacuated by Loyalists. The only place on the seaboard of the Republic occupied by British troops on the 1st of Novem-

ber, 1783, was the city of New York and its immediate vicinity. Sir Guy Carleton was ordered to evacuate that city. Delays in providing transportation for the loyalists to Nova Scotia postponed the evacuation until Nov. 25. (See *Evacuation of New York*.) There were more than a thousand of these unfortunate refugees who fled to a distant land to escape the righteous indignation of their countrymen. It was a sad sight. Many of them were families of wealth and social distinction, who had been the most bitter enemies of the patriots struggling for freedom. Now adverse circumstances impelled them to reap, in sorrow, the harvest of their unkind seed-sowing. They now had to encounter privations and distress they knew not of, leaving their estates behind to suffer confiscation. But there was one seemingly bitter Tory, more obnoxious to the Whigs than any one in the city, who was allowed to remain. He was James Rivington (which see), the "king's printer," who, in his newspaper, had abused the patriots for years without stint. Why this indulgence? It was clearly revealed afterwards, that while professing the warmest friendship for the British, he had secretly furnished Washington with important information concerning military affairs in the city. The indulgence was his reward for valuable services.

New York Excited. When Hardy's squadron appeared on the New England coast, in the summer of 1814, and a powerful British force appeared in Chesapeake Bay, the inhabitants of New York expected to be attacked, and were as much excited as were those of Boston. (See *Blockade, Actual and Proclaimed*.) The mayor of the city (De Witt Clinton) issued a stirring address to the people, setting forth reasons why New York would probably be attacked, and recommended the militia to be in readiness for duty. He also called upon the citizens to offer their personal services and means to aid in the completion of the fortifications around the city. A large meeting of citizens was held in City Hall Park on Aug. 9, when a committee of defence was chosen from the Common Council, with ample power to direct the efforts of the inhabitants in the business of securing protection. Men in every class of society worked daily in constructing fortifications at Harlem and Brooklyn. Members of various churches and of social and benevolent organizations went out in groups, as such, to the patriotic task; so, also, did different craftsmen under their respective banners, such as were described, as follows, by Samuel Woodworth:

"Plumbers, founders, dyers, tanners, shavers,
Sweeps, clerks and criers, jewellers, engravers,
Clothiers, drapers, players, cartmen, hatters, tailors,
Gaugers, sealers, weavers, carpenters, and sailors."

The zeal of the people was intense; and the city of New York was soon well defended by fortifications and numerous militia. Woodworth wrote a stirring poem, which was everywhere sung. The following is the concluding stanza:

"Better not invade; recollect the spirit
Which our dads displayed and their sons inherit.
If you still advance, friendly caution slighting,
You may get, by chance, a bellyful of fighting.

"CHORUS.—Pickaxe, shovel, spade, crow-bar, hoe, and barrow;
Better not invade; Yankees have the marrow."

The fortifications thrown up around New York were constructed under the skilful superintendence of General Joseph Swift (which see).

New York, FIRST ASSEMBLY OF. Thomas Dongan was sent by the Duke of York to be governor of New York in 1683, with instructions to call a popular assembly. This order was in response to a petition of the council, the Court of Assizes, and the corporation of the city of New York, to allow the people to have a share in the government. The Assembly convened on the 17th of October, 1683. It was composed of ten councillors and seventeen deputies elected by the freeholders, who, with the governor, constituted the legislative and executive power of the province. They passed a tax-bill, and adopted a declaration of rights, in which they claimed, among other things, that no tax ought to be assessed except by consent of the Assembly. The colony was, at that session, divided into twelve counties—namely, New York, Richmond, King's, Queen's, Suffolk, Orange, Ulster, Albany, Dutchess, Westchester, Duke's, and Cornwall. The last two were soon detached from the province, the former now in Massachusetts, the latter in Maine. (See *New York, Political Division of*.)

New York first Proposes a General Congress. The Sons of Liberty in New York—called by the loyalists the "Presbyterian Junto"—roused by the injustice of the Boston Port Bill (which see), by their representative committee, in May, 1774, proposed a General Congress of delegates from the several colonies. They forwarded their proposal to Boston, exhorting Massachusetts to stand firm. They also sent the recommendation to the Philadelphia committee, and through them to all the southern colonies. All New England received the same. This was the inception of the first Continental Congress.

New York Petition (1775). While the British Parliament, for a sinister purpose, was exempting New York from the operations of the Mutiny Act (which see), the Assembly of that province were preparing a petition to the king, wherein they enumerated grievances, and declared themselves interested in the welfare of the other colonies; deplored the distress inflicted on Massachusetts by the Boston Port Bill; and remonstrated against that measure. "We claim," they said, "but a restoration of those rights which we enjoyed, by general consent, before the close of the last war [French and Indian]; we desire no more than a continuation of that ancient government to which we are entitled by the principles of the British Constitution, and by which alone can be secured to us the rights of Englishmen." Edmund Burke, the agent of the colony, presented this petition to Parliament, and highly eulogized the province of New York for its loyalty. He moved to have the petition brought up in Parliament, but the proposition was rejected.

New York Plan of Accommodation. Standing face to face with civil war and all its horrors, and still feeling a lingering affection for Great Britain, the New York Provincial Congress, in June, 1775, proposed a plan of concilia-

tion with Great Britain, which they urged their representatives in the Continental Congress to press with zeal. "Use every effort," they said, "for compromising this unhappy quarrel, so that, if our well-meant endeavors should fail of effect, we may stand unreproachable by our own consciences in the last solemn appeal to the God of battles." They proposed a repeal of the obnoxious acts of Parliament; the undisturbed exercise, by the colonies, of the power of internal legislation and taxation, and the free enjoyment of the rights of conscience; conceded to Great Britain the power to regulate the trade of the whole empire; and promised, on proper requisitions, assistance in the general defence, either from the colonies severally, or through a Continental Congress under a president appointed by the crown.

New York, POLITICAL DIVISION OF. In 1691 the province of New York was re-divided into ten counties—namely, New York, Westchester, Ulster, Albany, Dutchess, Orange, Richmond, King's, Queen's, and Suffolk. Cornwall County, in Maine, and Duke's County, in Massachusetts, forming a part of the domain of New York, were transferred to those colonies under its new charter.

New York, POSITION OF, ON INDEPENDENCE. The conservatism of New York disappeared when it was evident that the door of reconciliation had been closed by the king. On May 24, the convention referred the vote of the Continental Congress of the 15th, on the establishment of independent state governments, to a committee composed of John Morin Scott, Haring, Remsen, Lewis, Jay, Cuyler, and Broome. They reported in favor of the recommendation of the Congress. On the 31st, provision was made for the election of new deputies, with ample power to institute a government which should continue in force until a future peace with Great Britain. Early in June the Provincial Congress had to pass upon the subject of independence. Those who had hitherto hesitated, with a hope of conciliation, now fell into line with the radicals, and on the 11th the Provincial Congress, on motion of John Jay, called upon the freeholders and electors of the colony to confer on the deputies to be chosen full powers for administering government, framing a constitution, and deciding the important question of independence. The newly instructed Congress was to meet at White Plains on July 9 (1776). Meanwhile the Continental Congress, by the vote of eleven colonies, had adopted (July 2) a resolution for independence, and a declaration of the causes for the measure on July 4. The new Congress of New York assembled at White Plains on the 9th, with Nathaniel Woodhull as President; and on the afternoon of that day, when thirty-five delegates were present, John Jay made a report in favor of independence. The convention approved it by a unanimous vote, and directed the Declaration adopted at Philadelphia to be published with beat of drum at White Plains, and in every district of the colony. They empowered their delegates in Congress to join heartily with the others in moving on the car of revolution, and called

themselves the representatives of the State of New York. So the vote of the thirteen colonies on the subject of independence was made complete, and New York never swerved from the path of patriotic duty then entered upon.

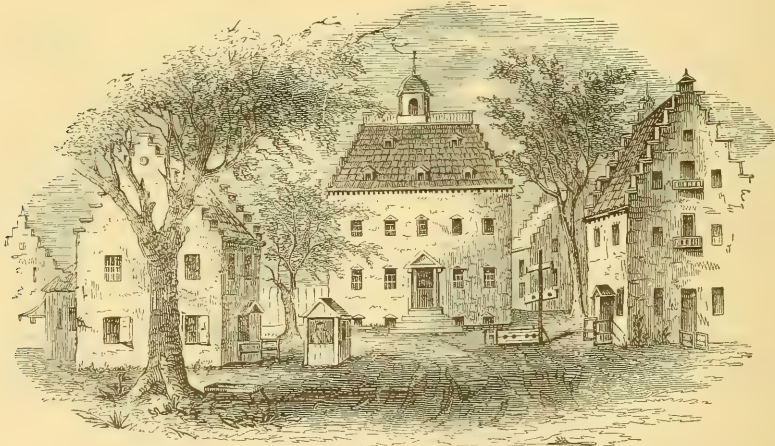
New York Proposes Union. In December, 1769, the New York Assembly, under a pretext of enacting laws for the regulation of trade with the Indians, and with the concurrence of the lieutenant-governor (Colden), invited each province to elect representatives to a body which should exercise legislative power for them all. This was a long stride towards the American Union. Virginia chose representatives for the Congress, but the British ministry, who saw in the movement a prophecy of independence, defeated the scheme.

New York, RECONQUEST OF, BY THE DUTCH. In 1673, the English and Dutch were again at war. A Dutch squadron, after capturing many English trading vessels returning from Virginia, appeared before New York. The governor, Francis Lovelace, was absent in Connecticut, and Colonel John Manning was in command of Fort Amsterdam, which the English had named Fort James. English despotism had weakened the allegiance of the inhabitants of the city, who were mostly Dutch, and who found that their expectations of enjoying "English liberty" were not gratified. When they demanded of the governor more liberty and less taxation, he had unwisely declared, in a passion, that they should have "liberty for no thought but how to pay their taxes." This was resented; and when the Dutch squadron came (July 30, 1673), nearly all the Hollanders in the city regarded their countrymen as liberators. The city was virtually reconquered when the summons to surrender

returned the fire, and shot the enemy's flag-ship "through and through." Then 600 soldiers landed on the shores of the Hudson above the town, where they were joined by 400 Dutch citizens in arms, who encouraged them to storm the fort. They were marching down Broadway for that purpose, when they were met by a messenger from Manning with a proposition to surrender it if his troops might be allowed to march out with the honors of war. The proposition was accepted. The English garrison marched out and the Dutch troops marched in. The flag of the Dutch Republic waved over Fort James, which was now named Fort William Hendrick, and the city was called New Orange, both in honor of William, Prince of Orange, the chief magistrate of Holland. The province was again called New Netherland. (See *New York, Colony of*). Colonel Manning was suspected and even accused of treachery, but he seems to have been more unfortunate than sinful in his defence of the fort.

New York Restraining Act. The Provincial Assembly of New York steadily refused compliance with the demands of the "Mutiny Act" and the "Quarantine Act" (which see), and early in 1767 Parliament passed an act "prohibiting the governor, Council, and Assembly of New York passing any legislative act for any purpose whatsoever." Partial concessions were made; but a new Assembly, convened in February, 1768, composed of less pliable materials, would not recede from its position of independence, though the province was made to feel the full weight of the royal displeasure. In May, 1769, the Assembly yielded, and made an appropriation for the support of the troops.

New York State Convention, SITTINGS OF



STATE HOUSE IN NEW YORK.

was made. When Manning beat the drums for volunteers to defend the town, few came, and those not as friends, for they spiked the cannons in front of the State-house. Manning sent an express for Lovelace; and when the Dutch ships came up and fired broadsides upon the fort, he

THE. The seizure of New York Island, the military operations in lower Westchester, and the activity of the numerous Tories in New York and New Jersey, who threatened to rise in arms and openly join the British, kept the New York State Convention in a state of continual anx-

jety, and sometimes of alarm. They were frequently compelled to change the place of sitting, and for some months the sessions were held, at different times, at Harlem, Kingsbridge, Philipse Manor, White Plains, Croton River, Fishkill, and Kingston. The convention appointed a committee, with John Jay as chairman, for "inquiring into, detecting, and defeating conspiracies." Many arrests of Tories were made, who were sent into Connecticut for safe keeping. The jails and some churches were crowded with prisoners for a while, who were generally released on their parole.

New York, THE STATE OF, was organized in the summer of 1777, a constitution having been adopted in March by the Provincial Congress, sitting at Kingston. In October following, a British marauding force went up the Hudson and burned that place. (See *Kingston, Burning of*.) The records were removed first to the interior of Ulster County, and thence to Poughkeepsie, at which latter place the legislators reassembled early in 1778. That place was the state capital

until 1784, when it was removed to the city of New York. In 1797 Albany was made the permanent state capital. The state constitution was revised in 1801, 1821, 1846, and an unsuccessful attempt at revision was made in 1867-69. During the War of

Amendment to the national Constitution. In 1870 this action was annulled by a resolution, and the latter was rescinded in 1872. Slavery, which had been much restricted by the first constitution, was abolished in 1817, but a few aged persons continued in nominal slavery several years later. Population in 1890, 5,997,853.

New York, THE STATE OF, ORGANIZED. On the 1st of August, 1776, the new Provincial Convention, sitting at White Plains, Westchester Co., appointed a committee to draw up and report a constitution for the state. John Jay was the chairman of this committee. The convention was made migratory by the stirring events in the ensuing autumn and winter, and it sat, after leaving White Plains, at Fishkill, Dutchess Co., and at Kingston, Ulster Co. At the latter place the committee reported a draft of a constitution, written by Mr. Jay. It was under consideration in the convention more than a month, and was finally adopted April 20, 1777. Under it a state government was established by an ordinance passed in May, and the first session of the Legislature was held in July. Meanwhile, elections were held in all the counties excepting New York, King's, Queen's, and Suffolk, then held by the British troops. Brigadier-general George Clinton was elected governor, and Pierre Van Cortlandt, President of the Senate, became lieutenant-governor. John Jay was made chief-justice, Robert R. Livingston, chancellor, and Philip Livingston, James Duane, Francis Lewis, and Gouverneur Morris, delegates to the Continental Congress. By the provisions of the constitution, the governor was to be elected by the people for the term of three years, the legislative department, vested in a Senate and Assembly, deriving their powers from the same source; all inferior offices to be filled by the governor and a council of four senators, one from each district; and to a council of revision, similarly constituted, was assigned the power to pass upon the validity and constitutionality of legislative acts.

New York State, POSITION OF (1861). At the beginning of January, 1861, the Legislature of New York assembled, when the governor (Edwin D. Morgan), in a conciliatory message, offered concessions to the complaining politicians of the South. The Legislature was less yielding, and, on the 11th of January, 1861, a preamble and resolutions were adopted, which spoke out plainly the sentiments of the patriotic people of the state. The preamble spoke of the "insurgent state of South Carolina," and its act of war in firing upon the *Star of the West*; the seizure of forts and arsenals elsewhere, and the treasonable words of the representatives of Southern States in Congress. The first resolution declared that the people of New York were firmly attached to the Union, and the Legislature tendered to the President, through the governor, whatever aid in men and money might be required to enable him to enforce the laws. They directed the governor to send a copy of these resolutions to the governors of all the states. They produced much irritation in



STATE SEAL OF NEW YORK.

tiers of New York were almost continually scenes of hostilities. New York was the pioneer in establishing canal navigation. In 1796 the "Western Inland Lock Navigation Company" was incorporated, and improved the bateau-navigation of the Mohawk River, connecting its waters with Oneida Lake by a canal, so that boats laden with merchandise could pass from the ocean to that lake, and then by its outlet and Oswego River to Lake Ontario. In 1800 Gouverneur Morris conceived a plan for connecting Lake Erie with the ocean by means of a canal, and the great Erie Canal that accomplished it was completed in 1825. In 1853-54 the constitution was amended, so as to enable the state to borrow \$9,000,000 to facilitate the completion of its other canals. In November, 1874, several amendments proposed by the Legislature were ratified by a vote of the people. These removed the property qualifications of colored voters; restricted the power of the Legislature to pass private or local bills; made changes in the executive departments; prescribed an oath of office in relation to bribery; established safeguards against official corruption; and removed restrictions imposed upon the Legislature in regard to selling or leasing certain of the state canals. During the late Civil War, the State of New York furnished to the National army 455,568 troops. Of that number the city of New York furnished 267,551. In 1869 the Legislature ratified the Fifteenth

the slave-labor states, and, at the same time, profoundly impressed the thinking people there with a distrust of the assurance of their politicians that secession would be peaceful and that there would be no war. (See *Georgia Ordinance of Secession*.) At that time the population of New York State was nearly four millions.

New York, UNFORTUNATE POSITION OF (1775). On the 15th of May, 1775, the city and county of New York asked the Continental Congress how to conduct themselves with regard to royal regiments which were known to have been ordered to that place. The Congress instructed them not to oppose the landing of troops, but not to suffer them to erect fortifications; to act on the defensive, but to repel force by force, if it should be necessary, for the protection of the inhabitants. Indeed, they had no means for preventing their landing. But this advice of the Continental Congress produced embarrassments, for it virtually recognized the royal authority of every kind in the Province of New York; and when its Provincial Congress met it could only conform to the advice. All parties seemed to tacitly agree to a truce in the use of force. There was respect shown towards the crown officers of every kind, and everything that could possibly be done, with honor, was done to avoid collision and make reconciliation possible. The British ship of war *Asia* was allowed supplies of provisions. The Provincial Congress disapproved the act of the people in seizing the king's arms; offered protection to Guy Johnson, the Indian agent, if he would promise neutrality on the part of the Indians; and, while they sent to the patriots of Massachusetts the expression of their warmest wishes for the cause of liberty in America, they labored hard for the restoration of harmony between the colonies and Great Britain. This timid or temporizing policy was the fruit of a large infusion of the Tory element that marked the aristocratic portion of the inhabitants of New York. In playing the rôle of peace-maker they committed an almost fatal mistake. Edmund Burke, who had been the agent for New York in England, expressed his surprise at "the scrupulous timidity which could suffer the king's forces to possess themselves of the most important port in America."

New York Unrepresented in the Federal Convention. In the Federal Convention at Philadelphia (see *National Constitution*), in 1787, Alexander Hamilton, after submitting his plan of government (which see), in writing, withdrew from the convention for six weeks. His colleagues from New York (Robert Yates and John Lansing, Jr.) were such strong "State Rights" men that, when it was agreed to have a proportionate representation in the House of Representatives, they left the convention in disgust and went home. (See *State Rights Party*.)

Nez Percés (Pierced Noses). This family of the Sahaptin nation (see *Sahaptin*) derived their name, given by the Canadians, it is said, from a practice of piercing their noses for the intro-

duction of a shell ornament. This may have been an early custom of the tribe, but they do not practise it now. Lewis and Clarke passed through their country in their explorations early in this century (see *Lewis and Clarke Expedition*), and made a treaty of peace, which they kept inviolate for full fifty years. They had a fine grazing country on the Clearwater and Lewis rivers, in the territories of Idaho and Washington, and their number was estimated at eight thousand. In 1836 missions and schools were established among them by the American Board of Missions, and efforts were made to induce them to till the ground and have an organized government. They were then about four thousand strong. But they preferred to live in the heathen state, and, so late as 1857, they had only fifty acres under cultivation. The mission was suspended in 1847, after the murder of the Rev. Mr. Whitman by a band of another tribe of Sahaptins. In the Indian war in Oregon, in 1855, the Nez Percés were friends of the white people, and saved the lives of Governor Stevens and others. A treaty had been made the year before for ceding their lands and placing them on a reservation, but a part of the tribe would not consent, and remained in their own beautiful country. By the terms of this treaty (1854) a part of the Nez Percés went on their reservation; the others hunted buffaloes and fought Sioux. Finally, those on the reservation were disturbed by gold-seekers. The advent of these men was followed by the introduction of intoxicating liquors, and a general demoralization ensued. They have two reservations—one (the Lapwai) is a fertile region in the northwestern part of Idaho, and the Kamiah, in northeastern Oregon. There were fifteen hundred and fifty on these reservations in 1874. There were, also, nine hundred Nez Percés in the Wallowa valley, who would not give up their lands. Upon these white settlers intruded, and answers to their remonstrances were gatherings of United States troops to drive them into enforced exile. Finally, in 1877, their chief, Joseph, bearing oppression as long as possible and seeing the crisis before him, broke the long-observed treaty of peace and made war. The struggle was brief. Joseph and his band were defeated; and this always friendly tribe of Indians became the bitter enemies of the white people.

Niagara, FORT, CAPTURE OF (1759). Accompanied by Sir William Johnson as his second in command, General John Prideaux collected his forces (chiefly provincial) at Oswego, for an attack on Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara River. The influence of Sir William made the Six Nations disregard their late treaty of neutrality with the French (see *Oswego*), and a considerable number joined Prideaux's forces. Sailing from Oswego, the troops reached their destination, and landed, without opposition, on the 7th of July, and immediately began a siege. On the 19th Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a cannon, and the command devolved on Johnson. The garrison, expecting reinforcements from the southern and western French forts, held out for three weeks, when the expect-

ed succor appeared (July 24)—twelve hundred French regulars and an equal number of Indians. Prepared for their reception, Johnson totally routed this relieving force. A large portion of them were made prisoners, and the next day (July 25) the fort and its dependencies, with the garrison of seven hundred men, were surrendered to the English. This connecting-link of the French military posts between Canada and Louisiana was thus effectually broken, and was never reunited. The encumbrance of prisoners and lack of transportation prevented Johnson from joining Amherst at Montreal, and, after garrisoning Fort Niagara, he returned home.

Niagara, FORT, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1755).

The plan of the campaign of 1755 (see *French and Indian War*) contemplated an expedition against forts Niagara and Frontenac, to be led in person by General Shirley. With his own and Pepperell's regiments, lately enlisted in New England, and some irregulars and Indians drawn from New York, Shirley marched from Albany to Oswego, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario, where he intended to embark for Niagara. It was a tedious march, and he did not reach Oswego until Aug. 21. The troops were then disabled by sickness and discouraged by the news of Braddock's defeat. Shirley's force was twenty-five hundred in number on the 1st of September. He began the erection of two strong forts at Oswego, one on each side of the river. The prevalence of storms, sickness in his camp, and the desertion of a greater part of his Indian allies, caused him to relinquish the design against Niagara; so, leaving a sufficient number of men at Oswego to complete and garrison the forts, he marched the remainder back to Albany, where they arrived Oct. 24.

Niagara Frontier, EVENTS ON THE (1814). On the retirement of General Wilkinson, General Brown, who had been promoted to a major-general, became commander-in-chief of the Northern Department. He had left French Mills (Feb. 15), on the Salmon River, where the army had wintered, with most of the troops there (2000 in number), and on reaching Sackett's Harbor received an order from the Secretary of War to march with them to the Niagara frontier, to which line Generals Scott and Ripley had already gone. The object was to recover Fort Niagara, restrain British enterprises westward, and, if possible, to invade Canada. Brown, however, did not go to that frontier until many weeks afterwards, owing to menaces of the British on the northern border. It was during Brown's suspense that Oswego was attacked and captured. (See *Oswego, Attack upon*.) General Scott had finally led the army to the Niagara and made his headquarters at Buffalo, at which place General Brown appeared at the close of June, 1814. On the morning of July 3, Generals Scott and Ripley crossed the Niagara River with a considerable force and captured Fort Erie, nearly opposite Black Rock. The garrison withdrew to the intrenched camp of General Riall at Chippewa, a few miles below. The Americans pressed for-

ward, and in the open fields near Chippewa they fought Riall's army (July 5), and drove the British in haste to Burlington Heights. (See *Chippewa, Battle of*.) Lieutenant-general Drummond then gathered all available troops and advanced to the Niagara River. He met the Americans near the great cataract of the Niagara, and there, on the evening of a sultry day (July 25, 1814), one of the most sanguinary battles of the war was fought, beginning at sunset and ending at midnight. (See *Lundy's Lane, Battle at*.) The Americans were left in quiet possession of the field. Brown and Scott were both wounded, and the command devolved on General Ripley, who withdrew to Fort Erie. Drummond again advanced with 5000 men, and appeared before Fort Erie on Aug. 4 and prepared for a siege. There was almost incessant cannonading from the 7th to the 14th. On the 15th Drummond attempted to carry the place by assault, but was repulsed with heavy loss. (See *Siege of Fort Erie*.) Nearly a month elapsed without much being done, when General Brown, who had resumed the chief command, ordered a sortie from the fort. It was successful (Sept. 17). The Americans pressed the besiegers back towards Chippewa. (See *Sortie at Fort Erie*.) Informed that General Izard was approaching with reinforcements for Brown, Drummond retired to Fort George. The Americans abandoned and destroyed Fort Erie Nov. 5, crossed the river, and went into winter-quarters at Black Rock, Buffalo, and Batavia.

Niça, MARCO DE. When Coronado (which see) was sent northward from Mexico to search for mules, he sent Father Niça in advance with a negro companion. The latter was one of the four men of Narvaez's expedition into Florida who made a perilous journey across the continent. Niça returned to Coronado and announced that he had discovered from a mountain-top seven cities, and that he visited one which was called Cibola. It was garnished with gold and pearls. There, he alleged, his negro companion, whom he had sent before, was murdered by the jealous inhabitants. Coronado, in further explorations, found well-built houses in groups—pueblos—"three or four lofty high, with good lodgings and fair chambers, and ladders instead of stairs." He said seven cities were within four leagues of each other, and formed the kingdom of Cibola; but he did not find gold and turquoises. The narrative of Niça was much of it pure fiction. Remains of these pueblos are found in the region traversed by Niça and Coronado.

Nicaragua, INVASION OF. Baffled in an attempt to revolutionize or seize Cuba, ambitions and unpatriotic American politicians turned their attention to Mexico and Central America, coveting regions within the Golden Circle (which see). Their operations first assumed the innocent form of an armed emigration—armed merely for their own protection—and their first theatre was a region on the great isthmus inhabited chiefly by a race of degraded natives. It belonged to the State of Nicaragua, and was known as the Mosquito Coast. It promised to be a territory of great commercial importance. Under

the specious pretext that the British were likely to possess it, and appealing to the "Monroe Doctrine" (which see) for justification, armed citizens of the United States emigrated to that region. Already the great guns of the American navy had been heard there as heralds of coming power. (See *Greytown, Attack upon*.) The first formidable "emigration" took place in the autumn or early winter of 1854. It was alleged that the native king of the Mosquito country bordering on the Caribbean Sea had granted to two British subjects a large tract of the territory, the British having for some time been trying to get a foothold there, and having induced the half-barbarian chief to assume independence of Nicaragua. By a pretended arrangement with the British settlers there, Colonel H. L. Kinney led a band of armed emigrants and proceeded to settle on the territory. The governor of Nicaragua protested against this invasion by citizens of the United States. The Nicaraguan minister at Washington called the attention of the United States government to the subject (Jan. 16, 1855), and especially to the fact of the British claim to political jurisdiction there, and urged that the United States, while asserting the Monroe Doctrine as a correct political dogma, should not sanction the act complained of, as it was done under guarantees of British protection. The United States government so mildly interfered (as a matter of policy) that the "emigration" movement was allowed to go on and assume more formidable proportions and aspects. An agent of the conspirators against the peace and rights of a neighbor of the United States named William Walker, who had already with a few followers invaded the Mexican state of Sonora from California and been repulsed, now appeared on the scene in connection with Kinney, who invited him to assist in "improving the lands and developing the mineral resources" of his grant on Lake Nicaragua. For that purpose, ostensibly, Walker left San Francisco with three hundred men, and arrived on the coast of Nicaragua on June 27, 1855. On the following day he cast off all disguise and attempted to capture the town of Rivas, under an impression that a revolutionary faction there would join him in his scheme of conquest. He was mistaken. He had been joined on his march by one hundred and fifty Central Americans under General Castellon, but when these saw the Nicaraguan forces coming against them, they deserted Walker. The latter and his followers fled to the coast and escaped in a schooner. Walker reappeared with armed followers on the coast of Nicaragua in August following, and on Sept. 5 the "emigrants" in the Mosquito country, assuming independence, organized civil government there by the election of Kinney as chief magistrate with a council of five assistants. At that time Nicaragua was convulsed by revolution, and the government was weak. Walker, taking advantage of this state of things, had two days before vanquished in battle four hundred government troops on Virgin Bay. He captured Granada, the capital of the state, on Oct. 12, and placed General Rivas, a Nicaraguan,

in the presidential chair. Treating Kinney with contempt, Walker drove him from the Mosquito country, and attempted to strengthen his military power by "emigration" from the United States. A British consul recognized the new government of Nicaragua, and the American minister there (John H. Wheeler) gave countenance to the usurpation. These movements in Nicaragua created alarm among the other governments on the isthmus, and in the winter of 1856 they formed an alliance. Early in March, Costa Rica made a formal declaration of war against the usurpers of Nicaragua, and on the 10th of the same month, Walker, who was the real head of the state, made a corresponding declaration against Costa Rica. He shamelessly declared that he was there by the invitation of the liberal party in Nicaragua. War began on March 20, when the Costa Ricans marched into Nicaragua. Walker gained a victory in a sanguinary battle (April 11, 1856), and became extremely arrogant. He levied a forced loan on the people in support of his power. Rivas, becoming disgusted with this "gray-eyed man of destiny," as his admirers called him, left the presidency and proclaimed against Walker. Walker became his successor in office (June 24), and was inaugurated President of Nicaragua on July 12. So the first grand act of a conspiracy against the life of a weak neighbor was accomplished. The government at Washington hastened to acknowledge the independence of the new nation, and Walker's ambassador, in the person of Vijil, a Roman Catholic priest, was cordially received by President Pierce and his cabinet. So strengthened, Walker ruled with a high hand, and by his interference with trade offended commercial nations. The other Central American states combined against him, and on May 20, 1857, he was compelled to surrender two hundred men, the remnant of his army, to Rivas; but by the interference of Commodore Davis, of the United States Navy, then on the coast, Walker and a few of his followers were borne away unhurt. But this restless adventurer fitted out another expedition at New Orleans, landed on the Nicaraguan coast (Nov. 25, 1857), and was seized by Commodore Paulding, United States Navy (Dec. 3), with two hundred and thirty of his followers, and taken to New York as prisoners. James Buchanan was then President of the United States. He *privately* commended Paulding's act, but for "prudential reasons," he said, he publicly condemned the commodore in a special message to Congress (Jan. 7, 1858) for thus "violating the sovereignty of a foreign country!" Buchanan set Walker and his followers free, and they traversed the then slave-labor states, preaching a new crusade against Central America, and collecting funds for a new invasion. Walker sailed from Mobile on a third expedition, but was arrested off the mouth of the Mississippi River, but only for having left port without a clearance! He was tried at New Orleans by the United States Court and acquitted, when he hastened to Central America, and after making much mischief there, was captured and shot at Truxillo, Sept. 12, 1860.

Nicholas, ROBERT CARTER, was born in Virginia in 1715; died at Hanover, Va., in 1780. He was educated at the College of William and Mary, and while quite young represented James City in the House of Burgesses, in which he continued until the House of Delegates was organized in 1777. In 1779 he was appointed Judge of the High Court of Chancery. All through the controversy with Great Britain Nicholas had worked shoulder to shoulder with Peyton Randolph, Bland, and other patriots, but voted against Patrick Henry's resolutions (which see) against the Stamp Act in 1765. He was treasurer of the colony (1766-77), and in 1773 was a member of the Virginia Committee of Correspondence.

Nicholas, WILSON CARY, son of Robert Carter Nicholas, was born at Hanover, Va.; died at Milton, Va., Oct. 10, 1820. He was educated at the College of William and Mary. He served as an officer in the war for independence, and was commander of Washington's Life-guard at the time of its disbandment in 1783. He was United States Senator from 1799 to 1804; a member of Congress from 1807 to 1809; collector of the ports of Norfolk and Portsmouth from 1804 to 1807; and governor of Virginia from 1814 to 1817.

Nicholson, JAMES, was born at Chestertown, Md., in 1737; died in New York, Sept. 2, 1804. He went to sea early, and was at the capture of Havana by the English in 1762. He entered the Continental navy in 1775, and in March, 1776, was in command of the *Defence*, with which he re-captured several vessels which the British had taken. In January, 1777, he succeeded Esek Hopkins as senior commander in the navy. He served a short time in the army, when he could not get to sea, and was in the battle at Trenton. On June 9, 1780, in command of the *Trumbull*, he had a severe action with the *Wyatt*, losing thirty men, with no decisive results. Off the capes of the Delaware, in August, 1781, his vessel was dismantled by two British cruisers, and he was compelled to surrender. After the war Captain Nicholson resided in New York, where, in 1801, he was commissioner of loans. Albert Gallatin (which see) married one of his daughters, William Few (which see), of Georgia, another, and John Montgomery a third.

Nicholson, SAMUEL, was born in Maryland in 1743; died at Charlestown, Mass., Dec. 29, 1811. He was a lieutenant under John Paul Jones in the famous battle of the *Bonhomme Richard* with the *Serapis*, and was made captain immediately afterwards. He cruised in the *Deane*, 32, successfully. After the reorganization of the navy in 1794 he was appointed captain, and was the first commander of the *Constitution* frigate.

Nicholson, SIR FRANCIS, a colonial governor, died in London, March 5, 1728. He was lieutenant-governor of New York under Andros, and acting governor from 1687 to 1689. From 1694 to 1699 he was governor of Maryland; from 1690 to 1692, and from 1699 to 1705, he was governor of Virginia. In 1710 he was commander of the

forces that captured Port Royal, Nova Scotia. Then he went to England, taking with him five Iroquois chiefs (who were presented to Queen Anne), to urge another attempt to conquer Canada. He commanded an unsuccessful expedition to that end the next year. From 1712 to 1717 he was governor of Nova Scotia, and in 1720 was knighted. From 1721 to 1725 he was governor of South Carolina, and on his return to England in the latter year he was made lieutenant-general.

Nicolls, RICHARD, Deputy-governor of New York and New Jersey from 1664 to 1667. He was one of the royal commissioners (which see) to inquire into the state of the English-American colonies, and to seize the province of New Netherland. (See *New Netherland, Conquest of.*) Nicolls conducted the administration of affairs in New York with prudence and moderation, and was succeeded in 1667 by Colonel Lovelace. He resigned the government of New Jersey to Cartaret in 1666.

Niles, HEZEKIAH, was born in Chester County, Penn., Oct. 10, 1777; died at Wilmington, Del., April 2, 1839. He learned the trade of a printer, became a master workman in Wilmington, and for six years edited a daily paper in Baltimore. In 1811 he founded that useful periodical called *Niles's Register*, a weekly journal published in Baltimore. He was its editor until 1836. He republished the *Register* in thirty-two volumes, extending from 1812 to 1827, and it was continued by his son until 1849, making seventy-six volumes. He compiled a useful publication entitled *Principles and Acts of the Revolution*.

Ninegret, a chief of the Narragansets, and uncle of Miantonomoh. He aided the English in the Pequot War (1637), and because he visited the Dutch governor at Manhattan (see *Dutch and Indian Plot*), he was suspected of conspiring against the English. Ninegret waged war with the Long Island Indians in 1653, and, refusing to obey a summons to appear at Hartford, war was declared against him in 1654; but he avoided a collision with the English. Keeping aloof from King Philip's War, he escaped the ruin that fell upon other tribes.

Ninegret, WAR WITH. Because of a supposed plot between Ninegret, the Niantic sachem, and the Dutch, the commissioners or Congress of the New England Confederation deemed it advisable to make war upon him. They voted two hundred and fifty foot-soldiers (1653). The commissioners of Massachusetts did not agree with the others in the measure. Ninegret prosecuted a war with the Long Island Indians, who had placed themselves under the protection of the English. In September, 1654, the commissioners sent a message to Ninegret, demanding his appearance at Hartford, where they were convened, and the payment of tribute long due for the Pequods under him. He refused to appear, and sent them a haughty answer. They therefore determined again to make war on him. They raised two hundred and seventy infantry and forty horsemen. Major Simon Willard was

appointed commander-in-chief of these forces, with instructions to proceed directly to Nine-gret's quarters and demand of him the Pequods who had been put under him and the tribute still due; also a cessation of war upon the Long Island Indians. On the approach of the troops, Ninegret fled to a distant swamp and was not pursued.

Ninety-six, SIEGE OF FORT. This fort, on the site of the village of Cambridge, in Abbeville District, S. C., was so named because it was ninety-six miles from the frontier fort, Prince George, on the Keowee River, one hundred and forty-seven miles northwest from Charleston. On May 22, 1781, General Greene commenced the siege of this fort. It was garrisoned by American loyalists, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Cruger. Greene had less than one thousand regulars and a few raw militia. The fort was too strong to be captured by assault, and regular approaches by parallels were made under the direction of Kosciuszko. The work of the siege was interrupted by an occasional sortie for about a month, when Greene, hearing of the approach of Rawdon with a strong force to relieve Cruger, made an unsuccessful effort (June 18) to take the place by storm. On the following evening Greene raised the siege and retreated beyond the Saluda River. Rawdon pursued them a short distance, when he wheeled and marched to Orangeburg. Soon afterwards Ninety-six was abandoned, and the garrison joined Rawdon's troops on their march to Orangeburg, followed by a train of frightened Tory families. Greene also followed, but soon retired to the high hills of Santee (which see) to refresh his troops.

"Ninety-two" and "Forty-five." John Wilkes, an able political writer, edited and published in London a newspaper called *The North Briton*. In number forty-five (1763) he made a severe attack upon the government, for which he was prosecuted and committed to the Tower, but was acquitted and awarded \$5000 damages for the imprisonment. He was regarded as the great champion of the people, and considered a martyr to their cause. This blow at the freedom of speech caused violent political excitement, and "Forty-five!" the number of *The North Briton* in which the attack appeared, became the war-cry of the Democratic party in England. After ninety-two members of the Massachusetts Assembly refused to rescind the famous circular letter in 1774 (see *Circular Letter of Massachusetts*), "Ninety-two" became a political catch-word in the colonies. When the Americans in London heard of the action of the Massachusetts Assembly, their favorite toast became "May the unrescinding ninety-two be forever united in idea with the glorious Forty-five." "These numbers were combined in an endless variety in the colonies," says Frothingham. "Ninety-two patriots at a festival would drink forty-five toasts. The representatives would have forty-five or ninety-two votes. The ball would have ninety-two jigs and forty-five minuets. The Daughters of Liberty would, at a quilting-party, have their garment of forty-five pieces

of calico of one color and ninety-two of another. Ninety-two Sons of Liberty would raise a flag-staff forty-five feet high. At the dedication of a Liberty-tree in Charleston forty-five lights hung on its branches, forty-five of the company bore torches in the procession, and they joined in the march in honor of the Massachusetts ninety-two. At the festival forty-five candles lighted the table, and ninety-two glasses were used in drinking toasts; and the president gave as a sentiment, 'May the ensuing members of the Assembly be unanimous, and never recede from the resolutions of the Massachusetts ninety-two.'

Nino, ALONZO, who served under Columbus on his third voyage, fitted out two ships, in company with Christopher Guerra, to make discoveries in the Western World. He was a merchant of Seville. They sailed to the coast of Para, in northern Brazil, but made no important discovery. They carried home with them such a quantity of gold and pearls that the desire for engaging in similar enterprises greatly excited their countrymen.

Nixon, JOHN, was born at Framingham, Mass., March 4, 1725; died at Middlebury, Vt., March 24, 1815. He was a soldier at the capture of Louisburg in 1745, serving in the army and navy seven years. He fought at Ticonderoga under Abercrombie, leading a company as captain. He led a company of minute-men (which see) at Lexington, and commanded a regiment at Bunker's Hill, receiving a wound from which he never fairly recovered. He was made a brigadier-general in 1776, and commanded a brigade in the battle of Stillwater, in which engagement a cannon-ball passed so near his head that it permanently impaired the sight of one eye and the hearing of one ear. He resigned Sept. 12, 1780. He lived a few days more than ninety years.

Noailles (Viscount de), LOUIS MARIE, was born April 17, 1756; died Jan. 9, 1804. He was a distinguished military officer under Rochambeau in the siege of Yorktown, Va., where he commanded a regiment. De Noailles was one of the commissioners to arrange articles of capitulation for the surrender of Cornwallis (which see). He was brother-in-law of Lafayette; and in 1789, with other nobles, laid aside his titles and sat with the Third Estate, or Commons, in the French Parliament. As the Revolution assumed the form of a huge tyranny, he left the army and came to the United States. Re-entering the French service in 1803, he was sent to Santo Domingo in that year, where he was mortally wounded in an action with an English vessel. During his absence in America his wife was guillotined.

Noddle's Island, SKIRMISH ON. Noddle's Island (now East Boston) and Hog Island abounded with hay, horned cattle, sheep, and horses belonging to the British. On the morning of May 27, 1775, about twenty-five men went to these islands and carried away or destroyed much of the stock. A party of marines was sent from the British squadron in the harbor on

a sloop and schooner to arrest them. The Americans retreated from Noddle's Island to Hog Island, and took from the latter three hundred sheep, besides cows and horses. Then they drew up in battle order on Chelsea Neck, and by nine o'clock in the evening they were reinforced with two 4-pounders, and were led by Dr. Joseph Warren, with General Putnam as chief commander. They kept up a cannonade on the schooner until eleven o'clock at night, when the British deserted her, and at dawn the Americans boarded her, carried off four 4-pounders and twelve swivels, and then set her on fire. In this skirmish the British lost twenty killed and fifty wounded; the Americans had four slightly wounded.

Non-conformists. This was a title of all those Protestants of England who refused to conform to the doctrines and ceremonials of the Established Church in that country. This name was first given to them in 1572. Ninety years afterwards (1662) about two thousand ministers of the Established Church, unwilling to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles of Faith, seceded, and were called Dissenters, a name used at the present time in speaking of all British Protestants who are not attached to the Church of England. The English-American colonies were first peopled chiefly by Non-conformists and Dissenters.

Non-importation Act (1806). An act of Congress became a law April 18, 1806, prohibiting the importation from Great Britain or her dependencies, or from any other country, of the following articles of British manufacture: all articles of which leather, silk, hemp, or flax, and tin and brass (except in sheets), were of chief value; woollen cloths, where the invoice prices should exceed five shillings sterling a yard; woollen hosiery of all kinds; window-glass, and all the manufactures of glass; silver and plated ware; paper of every description; nails and spikes; mats and clothing ready made; millinery of all kinds; playing-cards; beer, ale, and porter; and pictures and prints. To give time for intermediate negotiations, the commencement of the prohibition was postponed until the middle of November next ensuing. In December the act was further suspended until July following. (See *Impress, The*.)

Non-importation League (1765). The commerce between Great Britain and her American colonies had become very important, and any measure which might interrupt its course would be felt by a large and powerful class in England, whose influence would be felt in Parliament. Few dared to think of positive rebellion. A bright thought occurred to some one at a meeting of merchants in New York on Oct. 31, 1765, the day before the Stamp Act was to go into operation. It was proposed at that meeting that the merchants should enter into an agreement not to import from England certain enumerated articles after the 1st day of January next ensuing. At another meeting (Nov. 6) a committee of correspondence was appointed, who soon set the ball in motion. The merchants

of Philadelphia readily responded to the measure, and on Dec. 9 those of Boston entered into a similar agreement. These pledges were not confined to the merchants alone, but the people in general ceased using foreign luxuries; and at the same time, as a part of the same plan, a combination was entered into for the support of American manufactures, the wearing of American cloths, and the increase of sheep by ceasing to eat lamb or mutton. This was the beginning of that system of non-importation agreements resorted to by the Americans which hurled back upon England with great force the commercial miseries she had inflicted upon her colonies, and established there a large and powerful class who sympathized with the Americans. In the case in question, petitions for the repeal of the Stamp Act poured into the House of Commons from the merchants and traders of London, whose interests were severely smitten, so that Parliament felt compelled to listen; and a few months after the Non-importation League in New York was formed the obnoxious act was repealed.

Non-importation League in Virginia. When, in May, 1769, the House of Burgesses in Virginia passed a series of resolutions maintaining the right of the colonists to self-taxation, to petition and remonstrance, and to be tried in all cases by a jury of the vicinity (see *Parliament, American Affairs in*), Governor Lord Botetourt, as in duty bound, dissolved the House. The members met the next day in the Apollo Room of the Raleigh Tavern, in Williamsburg, formed themselves into a voluntary convention, with Peyton Randolph as chairman, drew up and signed an agreement against the importation of merchandise from Great Britain, and recommended such a course to the people, and then repaired to their several counties. All who participated affirmatively in the proceedings of the convention were re-elected to the next General Assembly.

Non-intercourse Act. While the Embargo Act (which see) was to be repealed, a substitute was given in the form of a Non-intercourse Act, which was passed in February, 1809. It did not satisfy everybody, but seemed the best attainable, and it received eighty-one votes against forty. The embargo remained in force until March 15, 1809, so far as related to all countries excepting France and Great Britain and its dependencies; and to them also after the end of the next session of Congress.

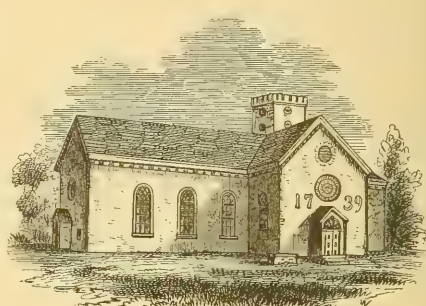
Non-intercourse with France. On June 12, 1798, Congress passed an act suspending all commercial intercourse with France and her dependencies. This widened the rupture between the two countries.

Nordhoff, CHARLES, an American author and journalist, was born in Westphalia, Prussia, Aug. 31, 1830, and came with his parents to the United States in 1835. He received a common-school education in Cincinnati, and at the age of thirteen years was apprenticed to a printer. He did not remain with him long, but at the age of fourteen made his way to Philadelphia, shipped in the United States Navy, and made a voyage around

the world. He remained on the sea—in the naval, merchant, and whaling service—about eleven years, when he found employment, first in a newspaper office in Philadelphia, and afterwards in Indianapolis. From 1857 to 1861 he was in the editorial employment of Harper & Brothers, and from 1861 to 1871 was connected with the *New York Evening Post*. He afterwards visited California and the Sandwich Islands, and has published several valuable books giving an account of his travels, especially in California. He has also published a notable work on *The Communistic Societies of the United States*, and also a useful little book entitled *Politics for Young Americans*. The two last-named works were published in 1874.

Norfolk (Va.), DESTRUCTION OF (1776). The repulse at the Great Bridge greatly exasperated Dunmore, who had remained in safety at Norfolk (see *Great Bridge, Battle at the*), while his motley forces (see *Dunmore's War on the Virginians*) were greatly dispirited. The Virginians were elated, and five days after the battle they entered Norfolk in triumph, where they were joined by a North Carolina regiment under Colonel Robert Howe. Dunmore had abandoned his intrenchments at Norfolk, after spiking his twenty pieces of cannon, and invited the loyalists of the city to take refuge with him on the fleet, for he had determined to destroy the town. The poor negroes whom he had coaxed into his service were left without protection, and many of them starved to death. Parties sent on shore to procure provisions were cut off, and famine menaced the fleet, for the multitude of mouths to be filled increased. The vessels were also annoyed by firing from the shore. A British frigate arriving at that juncture emboldened Dunmore, and he sent a flag to General Howe with a threat to burn the town if the firing did not cease and provisions were not sent to the fleet. A flat refusal was given. On the morning of Dec. 31 Dunmore gave notice that he should cannonade the town, so that women and children and loyalists might leave it. The cannonade was opened at four o'clock the next morning (Jan. 1, 1776), and marines and sailors were sent on shore to set fire to the city. The wind was blowing from the water, and the buildings being chiefly of wood, a greater portion of the most compact part of the town was laid in ashes. The conflagration raged about fifty hours, and hundreds of wretched people were left shelterless in the cold winter air. During the conflagration the cannonade was kept up, and parties of musketeers attacked shivering and starving groups of defenceless inhabitants. Strange to say, during the three days of horror not one of the patriot troops was killed, and only three or four women and children were slain in the streets. General Stevens, of the Virginia militia, remained on the spot until February, and, after all the families were removed, he burned the rest of the town that it might not afford shelter for the enemy. Thus a flourishing city was temporarily wiped out. Almost the only building that escaped the perils of that day of terror in Norfolk is ancient

St. Paul's Church, cruciform in shape and built of imported bricks. On the street front of the church, near the southwest corner, was left a



ST. PAUL'S CHURCH, NORFOLK.

large cavity made by a cannon-ball hurled from one of the ships during the attack.

Norfolk (Va.), EVACUATION OF (1862). General Wool, at Fortress Monroe, saw the eminent advantage of the James River as a highway for supplies for McClellan's army moving up the Peninsula, and urged the government to allow him to capture Norfolk, and so secure the free navigation of that stream. After the evacuation of Yorktown, President Lincoln and Secretary Stanton visited Fortress Monroe and granted Wool's request. Having made personal reconnaissance, he crossed Hampton Roads with a few regiments, landed in the rear of a Confederate force on the Norfolk side of the Elizabeth River, and moved towards the city. General Huger, of South Carolina, was in command there. He had already perceived his peril, with Burnside in his rear and McClellan on his flank, and immediately retreated, turning over Norfolk to the care of Mayor Lamb. Norfolk was surrendered May 10, and General Viele was appointed military governor. The Confederates fled towards Richmond, first setting fire to a slow match attached to the Merrimac and other vessels at the navy-yard, which blew the monster ram into fragments. The Confederate gunboats on the James River fled to Richmond, closely pursued by a National flotilla under Commodore Rodgers. They were checked by strong fortifications at Drewry's Bluff, below Richmond.

Norridgewock, EXPEDITION TO. The Jesuit mission under the charge of Father Rale, or Rasles, at Norridgewock, on the upper Kennebec, had been an object of suspicion in Massachusetts for almost twenty years, for it was known that Rale had accompanied the French and Indians in their forays in the early part of Queen Anne's War. The Eastern Indians were in a very bad humor in 1720 on account of encroachments upon their lands, and there were signs of hostility on the part of the barbarians, which, it was believed, had been excited by the Jesuit missionary. Finally, Father Rale was formally accused of stimulating the Eastern Indians to make war, and in August, 1721, the governor and Council of Massachusetts agreed to send a secret expedition to Norridgewock to

seize him. The expedition moved in January, 1722, but did not succeed in capturing Father Rale. His papers, seized by the assailants, who pillaged the chapel and the missionary's house, confirmed the suspicion. The Indians retorted for this attack by burning Brunswick, a new village recently established on the Androscoggin. The tribes in Nova Scotia joined in the war that had been kindled, and seized seventeen fishing-vessels in the Gut of Canso (July, 1722) belonging to Massachusetts. Hostilities continued until 1724, when, in August of that year, an expedition surprised Norridgewock, and Rale and about thirty Indian converts were slain, the chapel was burned, and the village broken up. (See *Eastern Indians, War with the.*)

North, FREDERICK, second Earl of Guilford, and eighth Baron North, was born April 13, 1733; died Aug. 5, 1792. Educated at Eton, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, he made a lengthened tour on the Continent. In 1754 Lord North entered Parliament for Banbury, which he represented almost thirty years. He entered the cabinet under Pitt, in 1759, as Commissioner of the Treasury. He warmly supported the Stamp Act (1764-65) and the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. In 1766 he



FREDERICK NORTH.

was appointed paymaster of the forces, and the next year was made Chancellor of the Exchequer, succeeding Charles Townshend as leader of the House of Commons. He became prime-minister in 1770, and he held that position during our war for independence. The events of his administration were very calamitous to his country. His efforts to coerce the colonists into submission to Parliament caused the dismemberment of the British empire and the loss of a vast domain. In 1783 he returned to office, after a brief absence, as joint Secretary of State in the famous "coalition" ministry, and at the close of that brief-lived administration he retired from public life. In 1790 he succeeded to the title of Earl of Guilford.

North, WILLIAM, was born at Fort Frederick, Pemaquid, Me., in 1755; died in New York, June

3, 1836. He entered the army of the Revolution in 1775; led a company in the battle of Monmouth, and, in 1779, became an aid to Baron de Steuben. He accompanied the baron into Virginia, and was at the surrender of Cornwallis. North was so beloved by Steuben that the latter willed him half his property. From July, 1798, to June, 1800, he was adjutant and inspector-general of the United States Army, with the rank of brigadier-general. He was a member and speaker of the New York Assembly; United States Senator in 1798; one of the first canal commissioners of New York; and, in 1812, declined the appointment of adjutant-general of the army.

North Carolina, BRITISH INVASION OF (1780).

Regarding the subjugation of South Carolina as complete, Cornwallis commenced a march into North Carolina early in September, 1780. The main army was to advance by way of Charlotte, Salisbury, and Hillsborough, through the counties where Whigs most abounded. Tarleton was to move up the west bank of the Catawba River with the cavalry and light troops; while Ferguson, with a body of loyalist militia which he had volunteered to embody and organize, was to take a still more westerly route along the eastern foot of the mountain-ranges. Ferguson's corps was annihilated (Oct. 7) in an engagement at King's Mountain (which see); and this so discouraged the Tories and the backwoodsmen that they dispersed and returned home. Cornwallis had then reached Salisbury, in which district he found the Whigs numerous and intensely hostile. Having relied much on the support of Ferguson, he was amazed and puzzled when he heard of his death and defeat. Alarmed by demonstrations on his front and flanks, Cornwallis commenced a retrograde movement, and did not halt until he reached Wainsborough (Oct. 27, 1780), S. C., between the Broad and Catawba rivers. Here he remained until called to the pursuit of Greene a few weeks later.

North Carolina, CAPITAL OF. In 1791 the General Assembly of North Carolina passed an act for fixing the seat of the state government, and appropriating money for the erection of public buildings. A town was laid out in an elevated and healthful region, six miles west of the Neuse River, and named Raleigh, in honor of the English statesman who first attempted to plant a settlement on the shores of North Carolina.

North Carolina Coast; EVENTS ON THE (1862-63). General Burnside, when called to the Army of the Potomac, left General J. G. Foster in command of the National troops in eastern North Carolina. That region had barely sufficient National troops to hold the territory against the attempts of the Confederates to repossess it. These attempts were frequently made. The little garrison at the village of Washington, on the Pamlico River, were surprised by Confederate cavalry at early dawn on a foggy September morning (the 5th), who swept through the village almost unopposed. They

were supported by two Confederate gunboats on the river. The garrison, after a sharp street-fight for nearly three hours, expelled the assailants, killing 33 and wounding 100. The Nationals lost 8 killed and 36 wounded. Foster was reinforced later, and determined to strike some aggressive blows that might intimidate his antagonists. Early in November he made an incursion in the interior and liberated several hundred slaves. With a larger force he set out from New Berne (Dec. 11, 1862) to strike and break up the railway at Goldsborough that connected Richmond with the Carolinas, and form a junction with the National forces at Suffolk and Norfolk. His passage of a large creek was disputed by General Evans and 2000 Confederates, with three pieces of artillery. They were routed, and Foster passed on, skirmishing heavily. When near Kinston he encountered (Dec. 14) about 6000 Confederates, well posted, and, after a sharp fight, they were driven across the river, firing the bridge behind them. The flames were put out, and 400 of the fugitives were captured. Foster pushed on towards Goldsborough, and near that place was checked by a large Confederate force under General G. W. Smith. Foster destroyed the railroad bridge over the Neuse, six miles of the railway, and a half-finished iron-clad gunboat, returning to New Berne at the end of eight days with a loss of 507 men, of whom 90 were killed. The Confederate loss was near 900, full one half of whom were prisoners. In the winter of 1863 Foster sent out raiding expeditions, liberating many slaves. The raids aroused General D. H. Hill, who concentrated a considerable force. He attacked New Berne with twenty guns, but was repulsed, when he marched on Little Washington, and on March 30 (1863) began a siege of the place. He planted heavy cannons at commanding points and cut off the supplies of the garrison of 1200 men. General Spinola attempted to raise the siege, but failed. The transport *Escort*, bearing one of Spinola's regiments, accompanied by General Palmer and others, ran the gauntlet of batteries and sharpshooters and carried supplies and troops to the beleaguered garrison. At the middle of April, Hill, expecting an expedition against him, abandoned the siege and fled. In May an expedition, led by Colonel J. R. Jones, attacked the Confederates eight miles from Kinston, capturing their intrenchments, with 165 prisoners. They were afterwards attacked (May 23) by the Confederates, but repulsed their assailants. Colonel Jones was killed. Near the end of the month General E. A. Potter led a cavalry expedition, which destroyed much property at Tarborough and other places. The country was aroused by this raid, and Potter was compelled to fight very frequently with Confederates sent against him. Yet his loss during his entire raid did not exceed twenty-five men. Soon afterwards (July) Foster's department was enlarged, including lower Virginia, and, leaving General Palmer in command at New Berne, he made his headquarters at Fortress Monroe.

North Carolina Flag. The Secession Con-

vention of North Carolina adopted a flag for the new "sovereign state," composed of red, white, and blue colors, arranged as follows: The red formed a broad bar running parallel to the staff, on which was a single star and the dates "May 20, 1775," the alleged date of a declaration of independence (see *Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence*), and "May 20, 1861," the date of the Ordinance of Secession. The remainder of the flag was composed of a single white and blue horizontal bar.

North Carolina Grantees. (See *Grantees of North Carolina*.)

North Carolina Loyalists. The Tories were numerous in North Carolina, where there was a large Scotch population. The Whigs, however, were largely in the majority, and in 1780 they treated their Tory neighbors with unendurable severity. Cornwallis, in command of the British in South Carolina, had sent emissaries among them, who advised them to keep quiet until they had gathered their crops in autumn, when the British army would march to their assistance. They were impatient of the severities to which they were exposed, and flew to arms at once. Of two considerable parties that assembled, one was attacked and dispersed at Ramsour's Mills, on the south fork of the Catawba, on June 20, 1780, by five hundred North Carolina militia, under General Rutherford. The other party succeeded in reaching the British posts. These amounted to about eight hundred men.

North Carolina Ordinance of Secession. There were early movements but late effectual action in North Carolina in favor of secession. Her United States Senator (T. L. Clingman) and her governor (J. W. Ellis) made early efforts to arouse the people of that state to revolt; but the love for the Union was so strong among the people that they did not readily follow such leaders. The Legislature that met on Nov. 19 passed an act providing for a convention, but directing that "no ordinance of said convention dissolving the connection of the State of North Carolina with the Federal government, or connecting it with any other, shall have any force or validity until it shall have been submitted to and ratified by a majority of the qualified voters of the state," to whom it should be submitted at least a month after such submission should be advertised. Although there was no pretence of secession until full four months later, the governor seized the United States forts within its borders and the arsenal at Fayetteville, which Floyd had filled with arms. (See *Floyd's Disloyal Acts*.) These movements the people condemned. Finally the Legislature, influenced by the disunion politicians, authorized a convention, and ordered the election of delegates on the 13th of May, 1861. At the same time it gave the governor authority to raise 10,000 men, and the state treasurer the power to issue \$500,000 in bills of credit, in denominations as low as three cents. It defined the act of treason to be levying war against the state. The convention assembled May 20, and on the same day issued an Ordinance of Seces-

sion by a unanimous vote. On the same day the governor issued orders for the enrolment of 30,000 men, and within three weeks not less than 20,000 were under arms. The forts were again seized; also the United States Mint at Charlotte. The loyal "North State," placed between Virginia and South Carolina, could not withstand the pressure of the untiring disunionists of those two commonwealths.

North Carolina, POSITION OF (1861). Great efforts were made by the enemies of the Republic to force North Carolina into revolution. Her governor (Ellis) favored the movement, but the loyal people opposed it. The South Carolinians taunted them with cowardice; the Virginia Secessionists treated them with coldness; the Alabamians and Mississippians coaxed them by the lips of commissioners. These efforts were in vain. Thereupon the disloyal Secretary of the Interior, acting as commissioner for Mississippi, went back to Washington convinced that the radical Secessionists of North Carolina were but a handful. The Legislature, in authorizing a convention, directed the people, when they elected delegates for it, to vote on the question of "Convention" or "No Convention." Of 128 members of the convention elected (Jan. 28, 1861), 82 were Unionists. The people, however, had voted against a convention. The Legislature, which leaned towards secession, appointed delegates to the Peace Congress (which see), and also appointed commissioners to represent the state in the proposed general convention at Montgomery, Ala., but with instructions to act only as "mediators to endeavor to bring about a reconciliation." They declared, by resolution (Feb. 4, 1861), that if peace negotiations should fail, North Carolina would go with the slave-labor states. They also provided for arming 10,000 volunteers and the reorganization of the militia of the state. Further than this the legislative branch of the government refused to go; and the people, determined to avoid war if possible, kept on in the usual way until the clash of arms at Fort Sumter and the call of the President for 75,000 armed men to suppress the insurrection filled the people of that staid state with excitement and alarm. Taking advantage of this state of public feeling, the enemies of the Union succeeded in having an Ordinance of Secession passed. (See *North Carolina Ordinance of Secession*.)

North Carolina Sanctions Independence (1776). The appearance of Clinton on the coast of North Carolina, and the conduct of Governor Martin, had aroused the feeling of resistance to British rule among the people to a great pitch; and when the Provincial Congress met at Halifax on April 4, 1776, a select committee was appointed, with Cornelius Harnett at its head, to consider the usurpations and violences of the British government. On the 12th, after listening to the report of this committee, they unanimously "empowered their delegates in the Continental Congress to concur with the delegates of the other colonies in declaring independence and forming foreign alliances." This was the

first sanction of independence officially given by any colony.

North Carolina, STATE OF. In December, 1776, the province of North Carolina adopted a state constitution, and elected Richard Caswell governor. The national Constitution was adopted in 1789. In 1784 the state ceded to the United

States the territory now embraced in the State of Tennessee. The popular sentiment in North Carolina was with the Union at the breaking-out of the Civil War, and in February, 1861, the people voted, by a small majority, not to call a state convention to consider the



STATE SEAL OF NORTH CAROLINA.

question of secession. But after the attack on Fort Sumter the governor raised troops, and seized forts and other national property, including the mint at Charlotte and the arsenal at Fayetteville. (See *North Carolina Ordinance of Secession*.) Early in 1865 Fort Fisher was captured, and General Sherman made his victorious march through the State of North Carolina, which ended in the surrender of Johnston's Confederate army in May. W. W. Holden was appointed (May 29, 1865) provisional governor of the state, and a convention of delegates, assembled at Raleigh, adopted resolutions (Oct. 2) declaring the Ordinance of Secession null, abolishing slavery, and repudiating the state debt created in aid of the great insurrection. A new Legislature was elected, which ratified the amendment to the national Constitution abolishing slavery. The new government of North Carolina did not meet the approval of Congress; nor were the representatives of the state admitted to that body. In 1867 a military government for North Carolina was instituted, and measures were taken for a reorganization of the state government. In the election that followed colored people voted for the first time, when sixty thousand of their votes were given. In January, 1868, a convention adopted a new constitution for the state, which was ratified by the people in April. It was approved by Congress, and North Carolina was declared (June, 1868) to be entitled to representation in that body. On July 11, 1868, the President proclaimed that North Carolina had resumed its place in the Union. The Fifteenth Amendment to the national Constitution was ratified March 4, 1869, by a large majority. During that year and the next the peace of the state was much disturbed by the outrages committed by a lawless body of men called the "Ku-Klux Klan." They were masked outlaws. Governor Holden declared martial law in two counties; and for this act articles of impeachment were preferred against him, and he was removed from office. Population in 1890, 1,617,340.

North Carolina, THE COLONY OF, was one of

the original thirteen states of the Union. Its coasts were discovered, it is supposed, by Cabot (1498) and Verazzani (1524), and later by the people sent out by Walter Raleigh. The first attempt at settlement in that region was made by one hundred and eight persons under Ralph Lane, who landed on Roanoke Island in 1585. It was unsuccessful. (See *Virginia*.) Other colonies were sent out by Raleigh, and the last one was never heard of afterwards. No other attempts to settle there were made until after the middle of the 17th century. So early as 1609 some colonists from Jamestown seated themselves on the Nansemonk, near the Dismal Swamp; and in 1622 Porey, Secretary of the Virginia colony, penetrated the country with a few friends to the tide-waters of the Chowan. (See *Porey*.) In 1630 Sir Robert Heath, the Attorney-general of Charles I., obtained from that monarch a patent for a domain south of Virginia six degrees of latitude in width, but it was declared void in 1663. Ten years before, a few Presbyterians from Jamestown, under Roger Green, suffering persecution there, settled on the Chowan, near the site of Edenton. Other non-conformists followed. The New England hive of colonists had begun to swarm, and some Puritans appeared in a vessel in the Cape Fear River (1661) and bought lands of the Indians. They were planting the fruitful seeds of a colony, when news reached them that Charles II. had given the whole region to eight of his courtiers (see *Grantees of North Carolina*) and called it "Carolina." Nearly all of the New-Englanders left. Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, was authorized to extend his authority over the few settlers on the Chowan. He organized a separate government instead, calling it "Albemarle County" colony, in compliment to one of the proprietors, and appointed William Drummond, a Presbyterian from Scotland (settled in Virginia), governor. (See *Bacon's Rebellion*.) Two years later some emigrants came from Barbadoes, bought land of the Indians on the borders of the Cape Fear River, and, near the site of Wilmington, founded a settlement, with Sir John Yeamans as governor. This settlement was also organized into a political community, and called the "Clarendon County" colony, in compliment to one of the proprietors. (See *Grantees of North Carolina*.) Yeamans's jurisdiction extended from the Cape Fear to the St. John's River, in Florida. This settlement became permanent, and so the foundations of the commonwealth of North Carolina were laid. In 1674 the population was about four thousand. Settlements had been begun farther south (see *South Carolina*), and the proprietors had gorgeous visions of a grand empire in America. The philosopher John Locke and the Earl of Shaftesbury prepared (1669) a scheme of government for the colony, which contemplated a feudal system wholly at variance with the feelings of the settlers, and it was never put into practical operation. (See *Fundamental Constitutions*.) Excessive taxation and other causes had made wide-spread discontent, and in 1677 the people of Albemarle County colony revolt-

ed, seized the governor and the public funds (Dec. 10), imprisoned him and six of his council, called an assembly, appointed a new governor and judges, and for two years conducted public affairs independent of foreign control. Then was enforced the political idea of Holland—"Taxation without representation is tyranny." In 1683 Seth Sothel appeared in North Carolina as governor. He ruled the colony six years, when his rapacity and corruption could no longer be endured, and they seized and banished him. Perfect quiet was not restored until the good Quaker John Archdale came as governor in 1695, when the colony started on a prosperous career. In 1705 Thomas Carey was appointed governor, but was afterwards removed, whereupon he incited a rebellion, and, at the head of an armed force, attacked Edenton, the capital. The insurrection was suppressed (1711) by regular troops from Virginia. The province had become involved in war with the Indians, led by the Tuscaroras (see *Iroquois Confederacy*), and in one night (Oct. 2, 1711) one hundred and thirty persons were massacred by the barbarians. Troops and friendly Indians from South Carolina came to the relief of the white people, and hostilities ceased; but the Indians, badly treated, made war again, and again help came from South Carolina. The war was ended when eight hundred Tuscaroras were captured (March, 1713), and the remainder joined their kindred, the Iroquois, in New York. In 1729 Carolina became a royal province, and was divided permanently into two parts, called, respectively, North and South Carolina. Settlements in the North State gradually increased, and when the disputes between Great Britain and the English-American colonies began the people were much agitated. In 1769 the Assembly of North Carolina denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonists without their consent. In the interior of the colony an insurrectionary movement began (see *Regulators*); and in 1774 North Carolina sent delegates to the First Continental Congress. Finally an association was formed in Mecklenburg County for its defence; and in May, 1775, they virtually declared themselves independent of Great Britain. (See *Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence*.) Alarmed at the state of affairs, the royal governor (Martin) abdicated, and took refuge on board a man-of-war in the Cape Fear River. A provincial convention assumed the government and organized a body of troops. (See *Moore's Creek Bridge, Battle at*.) A state constitution was adopted in a congress at Halifax (Dec. 18, 1776), and the government was administered by a Provincial Congress and a Committee of Safety until 1777, when Richard Caswell was chosen the first governor of the state.

North Point, BATTLE OF (1814). The humiliating events of the capture of Washington created intense excitement throughout the country, but were somewhat atoned for by the able defence of Baltimore, which soon afterwards occurred. While Washington was suffering, Baltimore was threatened. All the shores of Chesapeake Bay were menaced with plunder and devastation.

The British fleet finally sailed for the mouth of the Patapsco River, on the bank of which Baltimore stands, ten miles from the Chesapeake. At every light-house and signal-station on land alarm-guns were fired, and general consternation prevailed among the inhabitants. On Sunday, July 11, 1814, the British fleet appeared off Patapsco Bay with a large force of land-troops, under the command of the victorious General Ross. At sunrise the next morning he landed 9000 troops at North Point, twelve miles above Baltimore, and at the same time the British fleet entered the Patapsco to bombard Fort McHenry, which guarded the harbor of Baltimore, a city of 40,000 inhabitants at that time, and a place against which the British held a grudge, because of the numerous privateers, of the swift-sailing, clipper order, which had been sent out to depredate on British commerce afloat. The citizens of Baltimore had

stances might require. Some volunteers and militia were also sent to co-operate with Stricker. Feeling confident of success, Ross, accompanied by Admiral Cockburn, rode gayly in front of the troops as they moved towards Baltimore. They had marched about an hour, when they halted and spent another hour in resting and careless carousing at a tavern. From Colonel Sterett's regiment General Stricker had sent forward companies led by Captains Levering and Howard, 150 in number, and commanded by Major R. K. Heath. They were accompanied by Asquith's (and a few other) riflemen, seventy in number, a small piece of artillery, and some cavalry, under Lieutenant Stiles. They met the British advancing at a point about seven miles from Baltimore. Two of Asquith's rifle-men, concealed in a hollow, fired upon Ross and Cockburn as they were riding ahead of the troops, when the former fell from his horse, mortally wounded, and he died in the arms

of his favorite aid, Duncan McDougall, before his bearers reached the boats. The command now devolved on Colonel A. A. Brooke. Under his direction the entire invading force pressed forward, and, at about two o'clock (Sept. 12, 1814), met the first line of General Stricker's main body, when a severe combat began. The battle raged for two hours, when the superior force of the British compelled the Americans to fall back towards Baltimore; and at Worthington's Mill, about half a mile in front of the intrenchments cast up by the citizens, they were joined by General Winder and his forces. The British halted and bivouacked for the night on the battle-field. Meanwhile, the British fleet had prepared to attack Fort McHenry, and, on the morning of the 13th, began a bombardment, which was kept up until the next morning. At the same time the land-force began to move on Baltimore. Their movements were very cautious, and, at evening, Colonel Brooke had an interview with Admiral Cochrane. It was decided that the movements of the British on land and water were failures,



JOHN STRICKER.

wisely provided for the emergency. A large number of troops were gathered around the city. Fort McHenry was garrisoned by 1000 men, under Major George Armistead, and supported by batteries. The citizens had constructed a long line of fortifications on what is now Patterson Park. Intelligence of the landing of the British at North Point produced great alarm in Baltimore. A large number of families, with such property as they could carry with them, fled to the country, and inns, for a hundred miles north of the city, were filled with refugees. The veteran general Samuel Smith was in chief command of the military at Baltimore, then about 9000 strong. Gen. Winder had joined him (Sept. 10) with all the forces at his command. When news of the landing of the British came, General Smith sent General Stricker with 3200 men in that direction to watch the movements of the invaders and act as circum-

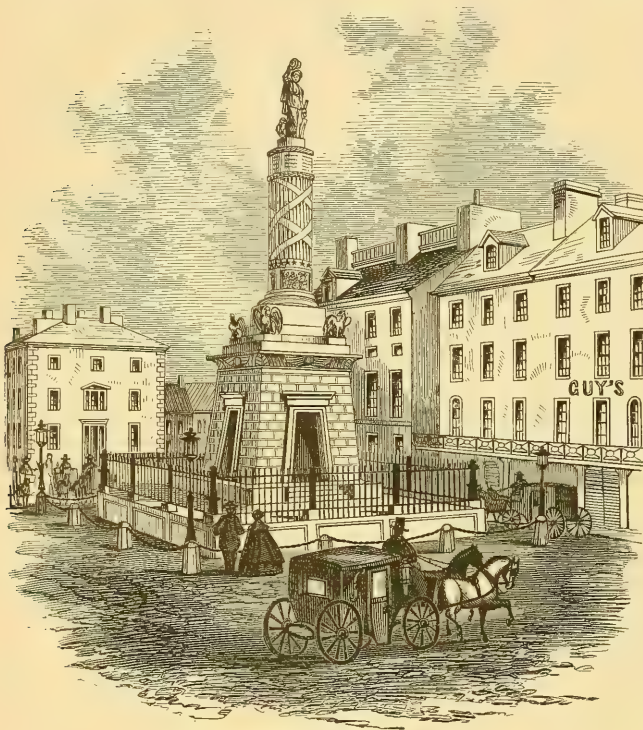
stances might require. Some volunteers and militia were also sent to co-operate with Stricker. Feeling confident of success, Ross, accompanied by Admiral Cockburn, rode gayly in front of the troops as they moved towards Baltimore. They had marched about an hour, when they halted and spent another hour in resting and careless carousing at a tavern. From Colonel Sterett's regiment General Stricker had sent forward companies led by Captains Levering and Howard, 150 in number, and commanded by Major R. K. Heath. They were accompanied by Asquith's (and a few other) riflemen, seventy in number, a small piece of artillery, and some cavalry, under Lieutenant Stiles. They met the British advancing at a point about seven miles from Baltimore. Two of Asquith's rifle-men, concealed in a hollow, fired upon Ross and Cockburn as they were riding ahead of the troops, when the former fell from his horse, mortally wounded, and he died in the arms of his favorite aid, Duncan McDougall, before his bearers reached the boats. The command now devolved on Colonel A. A. Brooke. Under his direction the entire invading force pressed forward, and, at about two o'clock (Sept. 12, 1814), met the first line of General Stricker's main body, when a severe combat began. The battle raged for two hours, when the superior force of the British compelled the Americans to fall back towards Baltimore; and at Worthington's Mill, about half a mile in front of the intrenchments cast up by the citizens, they were joined by General Winder and his forces. The British halted and bivouacked for the night on the battle-field. Meanwhile, the British fleet had prepared to attack Fort McHenry, and, on the morning of the 13th, began a bombardment, which was kept up until the next morning. At the same time the land-force began to move on Baltimore. Their movements were very cautious, and, at evening, Colonel Brooke had an interview with Admiral Cochrane. It was decided that the movements of the British on land and water were failures, and that prudence demanded an immediate abandonment of the enterprise. At three o'clock on the morning of the 14th, in the midst of darkness and rain, the land-troops stole away to their ships, and, at an early hour, the bombardment of the fort ceased and the British ships withdrew. Baltimore was saved. The British had lost, in killed and wounded, 289 men; the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, 213. The grateful citizens of Baltimore devised a memorial of the salvation of their city and of the actors in it, as enduring as marble could make it. For them Maximilian Godefroy designed the beautiful structure which stands in Calvert Street, almost in the centre of the city, which contained in 1880 a population of 332,213. This monument is a cenotaph, as seen in the engraving (page 1014), surmounted by a column representing the Roman fasces. The whole monument, including the exquisitely wrought fe-

male figure at the top, symbolizing the city of Baltimore, is almost fifty-three feet in height. It was erected in 1815, at a cost of \$60,000.

Northeastern Boundary. A dispute concerning the exact boundary between the United States and the British possessions on the east, as defined by the treaty of peace in 1783, was still unsettled at the close of President Jackson's administration, in 1837. In conformity with the treaty of Ghent (1814), the question concerning that boundary was, in 1829, sub-

caused great heat concerning the northeastern boundary. The people of Maine were much excited, and armed in defence of what they deemed their rights. In fact, there were preparations for war in both Maine and New Brunswick, and the peaceful relations between Great Britain and the United States were threatened with rupture. President Van Buren sent General Scott to that frontier in the winter of 1839, and, by his wise and conciliatory conduct, quiet was produced and bloodshed was prevented. The whole dispute was finally settled by a treaty (Aug. 20, 1842) negotiated at Washington, D. C., by Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, and Lord Ashburton, acting for Great Britain, who had been sent as a special minister for that purpose. Besides settling the boundary question, the treaty provided for the final suppression of the slave-trade and for giving up criminal fugitives from justice in certain cases.

Northeastern Passage to India sought. The Dutch had large commercial interests in the East Indies. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602, and the establishment of similar companies to trade with the West Indies had been suggested by William Usselinx, of Antwerp. The Dutch had watched with interest the efforts of the English and others to find a northwest passage to India; but Linschooten, the eminent Dutch geographer, believed that a more feasible passage was to be found around the north of Europe. There was a general belief in Holland



BATTLE MONUMENT. (See p. 1013.)

mitted to the King of the Netherlands for arbitration. Instead of deciding the question submitted to him, he fixed a new boundary (January, 1837) not contemplated by either party. The American minister at the Hague immediately protested against the decision, but, as it gave territory in dispute to Great Britain, that government accepted the decision. The State of Maine, bordering on the British territory of New Brunswick, protested against the award. Collisions occurred, and the national government began negotiations with Maine with a view to an amicable settlement of the affair. An agent appointed by Maine recommended that state to cede to the United States her claim beyond the boundary-line recommended by the arbiter, for an ample indemnity. The subject passed through the various stages of discussion and negotiation, until the irritations caused by the sympathy of the Americans for the Canadians who had broken out into open rebellion against the British government

that there was an open polar sea, where perpetual summer reigned, and that a happy, cultivated people existed there. To find these people and this northeastern marine route to India William Barentz, a pilot of Amsterdam, sailed (June, 1594), with four vessels furnished by the government and several cities of the Netherlands, for the Arctic seas. Barentz's vessel became separated from the rest. He reached and explored Nova Zembla. The vessels all returned before the winter. Linschooten had accompanied one of the ships, and remained firm in his belief in the feasibility of a northeast passage. Another expedition sent in the summer of 1595 was an utter failure. A third, in 1596, under Barentz and others, penetrated the polar waters beyond the eightieth parallel, and discovered and landed upon Spitzbergen. Two of the vessels rounded Nova Zembla, where they were ice-bound until the next year, their crews suffering terribly. Barentz died in his boat in June, 1597, just at the beginning of the polar summer. His

companions escaped and returned. Nothing more was attempted in this direction until the Dutch sent Henry Hudson, in 1609, to search for a northeast passage to India. (See *Hudson, Henry*.) It remained for a Swedish explorer to make the passage in a steamship in 1879, passing from the Arctic seas into the Pacific Ocean, through Behring's Strait. (See *Arctic Discovery*.)

Northern and Southern Parties in the Continental Congress. The Southern members of the first Continental Congress (1774) were disturbed by the clause in the American Association, then adopted, by which they determined "wholly to discontinue the slave-trade;" and the paragraph in the Declaration of Independence in which Jefferson denounced the slave-trade and slavery was rejected by the Congress of 1776, in deference to the people of South Carolina and Georgia. A few days after the amended declaration was adopted, in the first debates on a plan for a confederation of the states, there appeared much antagonism of feeling between the representatives of the Northern and Southern States, founded partially upon climate, pursuits, and systems of labor, but more largely on the latter. When members from the North spoke freely of the evils of slavery, a member from South Carolina declared that "if property in slaves should be questioned, there must be an end to the confederation." So, in the convention that framed the national Constitution, that instrument could not have received the sanction of a majority of the convention had the immediate abolition of the slave-trade been insisted upon. Soon after the arrival of Gerard, the first French minister, at Philadelphia, he wrote (1778) to Vergennes: "The states of the South and of the North, under existing subjects of estrangement and division, are two distinct parties, which, at present, count but few deserters. The division is attributed to moral and philosophical causes."

Northern and Western Invasions. In the autumn of 1780 the northern and western portion of the State of New York suffered a serious invasion from British regulars, Canadians, Tories, and Indians. A British force under Major Carleton came up Lake Champlain in eight vessels, and landed (Oct. 10, 1780) at South Bay, near its head. Suddenly appearing before Fort Anne, the weak garrison gave it up, and it was burned. Carleton pushed on towards Fort George, and sent a marauding party to Fort Edward. Some of his party penetrated the forest from Crown Point, intending to destroy Schenectady, but proceeded no farther than Ballston, which they desolated. At the same time another expedition set out from Canada, and fell upon the upper settlements of the Connecticut valley. At that time the people of Vermont were coquetting with the British authorities (see *Coquetting with the British*) and were unmolested. Meanwhile, an invading force from Niagara, about one thousand strong, crossed over from Oneida Lake to the Susquehanna valley and invaded the Schoharie settlements, then defended by three forts designated as Upper, Middle, and Lower. Their object was the destruction of these settlements.

They began their horrid work (Oct. 17, 1780) around the Middle fort, and completed it in a few hours. They unsuccessfully attacked the other two, but desolated the country around. On hearing of this western invasion, Governor Clinton ordered General Robert Van Rensselaer to gather a force to check it. He left Schenectady on the 18th of October with a considerable force, sending couriers ahead to announce his coming, with orders to keep the invaders in check. In the meantime, not far from Palatine Bridge, Colonel John Brown had a severe skirmish (Oct. 19) with them, in which himself and thirty of his men were killed. The remainder fled to Fort Plain, at which place Van Rensselaer arrived about an hour after the conflict. Pursuing the invaders, who were plundering and burning, he overtook them at about sunset, when an irregular firing was begun and kept up until dark, with great loss to the marauders. The pursuit was continued the next day; but when Van Rensselaer reached Fort Herkimer, not far above Little Falls, on the Mohawk, he lost sight of the trail of the fugitives. Sir John Johnson, who was in command of these western invaders, having lost his baggage and artillery, had gone around to the south of Fort Herkimer and made a hurried march to Oswego. Governor Clinton had come up the valley and taken the chief command. He ordered a pursuit, but it was soon abandoned. In this invasion full 200 dwellings were burned and 250,000 bushels of wheat, a large quantity of other grain, with forage, and a vast amount of other property, were destroyed.

Northern Frontier, TROOPS ON THE (1812). The defeat of Hull had weakened the confidence of the government and the people in an easy conquest of Canada, and immediate steps were taken, when the armistice (which see) of Dearborn was ended, to place troops along the northern frontier sufficient to make successful invasion, or prevent one from the other side. Vermont and New York joined, in co-operation with the United States, in placing (September, 1812) 3000 regulars and 2000 militia on the borders of Lake Champlain, under Dearborn's immediate command. Another force of militia was stationed at different points along the south bank of the St. Lawrence, their left resting at Sackett's Harbor, at the eastern end of Lake Ontario. A third army was placed along the Niagara frontier, from Fort Niagara to Buffalo, then a small village. This latter force of about 6000 men, half regulars and volunteers and half militia, were under the immediate command of Major-general Stephen Van Rensselaer, a leading Federalist of New York.

Northern Georgia, OPERATIONS IN. After Bragg's failure at Missionaries' Ridge (which see) General Joseph E. Johnston was put in command of his army. When the latter heard of Sherman's raid (which see), and perceived that Polk could not resist him, he sent two divisions of Hardee's corps, under Generals Stewart and Anderson, to assist the prelate. Grant, in command at Chattanooga (February, 1864), sent General Palmer with a force to counteract this movement. Palmer moved with his corps

directly upon Dalton (Feb. 22), where Johnston was encamped. The Confederates were constantly pushed back, and there was almost continual heavy skirmishing. In the centre of Rocky Face valley, on a rocky eminence, the Confederates made a stand, but were soon driven from the crest by General Turchin, after a severe struggle. The Confederates rallied, and, returning with an overwhelming force, retook the hill. Palmer finding his adversaries gathering in force larger than his own, and learning that the object of his expedition had been accomplished, in the calling back of Hardee by Johnston, fell back and took post (March 10) at Ringgold. In this short campaign the Nationals lost 350 killed and wounded; the Confederates about 200.

Northmen in America. The Scandinavians—inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden—were called Northmen. They were famous navigators, and, in the ninth century, discovered Iceland and Greenland. In the tenth century a colony led by Eric the Red was planted in the latter country (983). It is said that an adventurer named Bjarni discovered the mainland of North America in the tenth century (986). These people were chiefly from Norway, and kept up communication with the parent country. According to an Icelandic chronicle, Captain Lief, son of Eric the Red, sailed in a little Norwegian vessel (1001), with thirty-five men, to follow up the discovery of Bjarni, and was driven by gales to a rugged coast, supposed to have been Labrador. He explored the shores southward to a more genial climate and a well-wooded country, supposed to have been Nova Scotia, and then to another, still farther south, abounding in grapes, which he named Vineland, supposed to have been Massachusetts, in the vicinity of Boston. Lief and his crew built huts and wintered in Vineland, and returned to Greenland in the spring, his vessel loaded with timber. Thorwald, Lief's brother, went to Vineland with thirty men in 1002, and wintered there in the vicinity of Mount Hope Bay, R. I., it is supposed. The next year he sent some of his men to examine the coasts, with the intention of planting a colony. They were gone all summer, and it is believed they went as far south as Cape May. In 1004 Thorwald explored the coast eastward, and was killed in a skirmish with the natives (see *Skrætings*), and the following year his companions returned to Greenland. Thorstein, a younger son of Eric, sailed for Vineland with twenty-five companions and his young wife, Gudrida, whom he had married only a few weeks before. Adverse winds drove the little vessel on a desolate shore of Greenland, on the borders of Baffin's Bay, where the company remained till spring. There Thorstein died, and sadly his young wife took his body back to Eric's house. During the next summer Thorfinn Karlsefui, a rich Norwegian living in Iceland, went to Greenland, fell in love with the young widow, Gudrida, and, with his bride and one hundred and sixty persons (five of them young married women), sailed, in three ships, for Vineland, to plant a colony. They landed,

it is supposed, in Rhode Island. Thorfinn remained in Vineland about three years, where Gudrida gave birth to a son, whom they named Snorre, who became the progenitor of Albert Thorwaldsen, the great Danish sculptor. Returning to Iceland, Thorfinn died there, and his widow and her son went, in turn, on a pilgrimage to Rome. Icelandic manuscripts mention visits to Vineland in 1125, 1135, and 1147. About 1390 Nicolo Zeno, a Venetian, visited Greenland, and there met fishermen who had been on the coasts of America. (See *Zeno, Nicolo.*) A remarkable structure yet standing at Newport, R. I., is supposed by some to have been erected by the Northmen. (See *Old Tower at Newport.*) Bishop Thorlack, of Iceland, a descendant of Gudrida, compiled a record of the voyages of the Northmen from the old chronicles.

Northwestern Territory, THE. The Congress was in session in New York city while the convention that framed the national Constitution was sitting in Philadelphia. That body performed an act at that session second only in importance to the crowning act of the convention at Philadelphia. On July 11, 1787, a committee, of which Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, was chairman, reported "An Ordinance for the Government of the Territory of the United States northwest of the Ohio." This territory was limited to the ceded lands in that region. This report, embodied in a bill, contained a special proviso that the estates of all persons dying intestate in the territory should be equally divided among all the children or next of kin in equal degree, thus striking a fatal blow at the unjust law of primogeniture. It also provided and declared that "there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been fully convicted." This ordinance was adopted on the 13th, after adding a clause relative to the reclamation of fugitives from labor, similar to that which was incorporated in the national Constitution a few weeks later. This ordinance, and the fact that Indian titles to seventeen million acres of land in that region had lately been extinguished by treaty with several of the dusky tribes (the Six Nations, Wyandots, Delawares, and Shawnoese), caused a sudden and great influx of settlers into the country along the northern banks of the Ohio. The "Northwest Territory" so established included the present states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. It is estimated that within a year following the organization of the territory full twenty thousand men, women, and children passed down the Ohio River to become settlers upon its banks.

Norton, JOHN, was born in Hertfordshire, England, May 6, 1606; died in Boston, Mass., April 5, 1663. Becoming a Puritan preacher, he came to New Plymouth in 1635, and went to Boston in 1636, while the Hutchinsonian controversy (which see) was running high. He soon became minister of the church at Ipswich. In 1648 he assisted in framing the Cambridge Platform (which see). He went with Simon

Frankstreet to Charles II., after his restoration, to get a confirmation of the Massachusetts charter. A requirement which the king insisted upon—namely, that justice should be administered in the royal name, and that all persons of good moral character should be admitted to the Lord's Supper, and their children to baptism—was very offensive to the colonists, who treated their agents who agreed to the requirement with such coldness that it hastened the death of Norton, it is said. The first Latin prose book written in the country was by Norton—an answer to questions relating to church government. He also wrote a treatise against the Quakers, entitled *The Heart of New England Rent by Blasphemies of the Present Generation*. Norton encouraged the persecution of the Quakers, who declared that "by the immediate power of the Lord" he "was smitten and died."

Notable Wedding. John H. Morgan, the noted guerilla chief, was married at Murfreesborough, Tenn., to the daughter of Charles Ready, a member of Congress, in 1853. It occurred while President Jefferson Davis was visiting Bragg's army, then lying near Murfreesborough, before the great battle there at the close of the year. Davis and the principal army officers were at the wedding. Bishop Polk, of Louisiana, then a Confederate major-general, assumed the office of prelate in the Christian Church for the occasion and married them. The floor of the room was carpeted with National flags, which the company naturally took delight in dishonoring by dancing upon them. This wedding occurred late in 1862.

Nott, ELIPHALET, D.D., LL.D., was born at Ashford, Conn., June 25, 1773; died at Schenectady, N. Y., June 29, 1856. Left an orphan while yet a boy, he lived with an uncle and taught school a few years. In 1795 he was licensed to preach, and began his ministry in Cherry Valley, N. Y. Afterwards he held a pastorate in Albany, N. Y.; and in 1804 he was elected President of Union College, Schenectady, which position he held until his death, a period of more than fifty years. Upwards of three thousand seven hundred students graduated under his presidency. At the celebration (1854) of the semi-centennial of his presidency between six and seven hundred of the alumni who had graduated under him were present. Dr. Nott gave much attention to physical science, especially to the laws of heat, and he invented a stove which was very popular for many years. He obtained about thirty patents for inventions in this department. Nott's was the first stove constructed for burning anthracite coal, and was extensively used.

Nott, SAMUEL, missionary, was born at Franklin, Conn., in 1788; died at Hartford, June 1, 1869. He was the last survivor of the first band of missionaries sent out to India by the American Board of Foreign Missions in 1812. (See *Mills, S. J.*) He was ordained just before his departure. He returned in 1816, and continued to preach and teach school nearly the whole remainder of his life.

Nova Scotia and Canada Restored to France. In 1632 Charles I. resigned to Louis XIII. of France all claims to New France, Acadia, and Canada, as the property of England. This restoration was fruitful of many ills to the English colonies and to England. Chalmers traces back to it the colonial disputes of later times and the American Revolution.

Nova Scotia for Independence. The inhabitants of Nova Scotia were more in favor of the struggling Americans than were those of Canada. A large portion of them seemed desirous of linking their fortunes with the cause of the "Bostonians," as the American patriots were called. They petitioned the Continental Congress on the subject of union, and opened communications with Washington; and Massachusetts was more than once asked to aid in revolutionizing that province. But its distance and weakness made such assistance impracticable.

Nova Scotia, FRENCH INVASION OF. (See *Acadia.*)

Nullification is a term used for the refusal of a state to permit an act of the national Congress to be executed within its limits—the practical application of the doctrine of state supremacy and sovereignty. The Kentucky resolutions of 1798 (see *Resolutions of 1798*) formulated this doctrine by saying that the Union was only a compact between sovereign states; that the government created by this compact was not made exclusive or final judge of the powers delegated to itself; but that, as in all other cases of compacts among parties having no common judge, each party has an equal right to judge for itself as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress. To this the Virginia resolutions of 1799 added, "a nullification by those sovereignties [the states] of all unauthorized acts done under color of that instrument [the national Constitution] is the rightful remedy." In the controversy over the American system (which see) in 1828 Virginia reasserted the right to construe the national Constitution for itself; and in 1832 South Carolina undertook to carry the doctrine into practical effect by an ordinance passed by a delegate convention chosen for the purpose, which declared the tariff acts of Congress to be null and void. The ordinance forbade the collection of duties within the state; required all persons holding office under the state to take an oath to support the ordinance on pain of vacating their office; pledged the people of the state to maintain the ordinance and not submit to force; and declared any acts of the general government to enforce the tariff, or to coerce the state, to be inconsistent with her longer continuance in the Union, and that she would proceed to organize a separate government forthwith. The State Legislature, which met immediately after the adjournment of this convention, passed laws in support of the ordinance. Military preparations were immediately made in South Carolina, and civil war seemed inevitable. President Jackson promptly met the crisis with his usual vigor. He issued a proclamation (Dec.

10, 1832) in which he denied the right of any state to nullify an act of the national government, and warned those engaged in the movement in South Carolina that the laws of the United States would be enforced by military power if necessary. This proclamation, written by Louis McLane (then Secretary of the Treasury), met the hearty response of every friend of the Union of whatever party. It was emphasized by ordering United States troops to Charleston and Augusta. Met by such boldness and determination on the part of the President, with such a loyal majority of the people of the Union behind him, the South Carolina nullifiers, though led by such able men as John C. Calhoun and Robert Y. Hayne, paused for a moment; but their zeal in the assertion of state supremacy did not for a moment abate. Every day the tempest-cloud of civil commotion grew darker and darker, until at length Henry Clay, the founder of the American system which had produced this uproar, presented a compromise bill (Feb. 12, 1833), which provided for a gradual reduction of the obnoxious duties during the succeeding ten years. This compromise measure was accepted by both parties. It became a law March 3, 1833, and the discord between the North and South ceased for a while. The doctrine of nullification appeared in a more aggravated form in that of secession in 1860-61.

Nullification, EARLY GERMS OF. The opponents of the national Constitution were generally the adherents of the doctrine of state supremacy, or state sovereignty, and they took every occasion to assert that sovereignty. They opposed laws made by the national government, and sometimes defied them. Negotiations were set on foot by the general government in the spring of 1793 with the Cherokee and Creek nations. In spite of the remonstrances of the Secretary of War, Governor Telfair, of Georgia, persisted in leading a body of militia against warriors of an unoffending Creek town, killing several of them and capturing women and children. Telfair declared that he would recognize no treaty made by the United States with the Creeks in which Georgia commissioners were not concerned. Similar defiance of national authority appeared in Massachusetts at about the same time. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that a state was liable to be sued by individuals who might be citizens of another state. A process of that sort was soon afterwards commenced in Massachusetts. As soon as the writ was served, Governor Hancock called the Legislature together, and that body resolved to take no notice of the suit—ignore the decision of the national judiciary. The Legislature of Georgia passed an act subjecting to death "without benefit of clergy" any United States marshal or other person who should presume to serve any process against that state at the suit of an individual.

Nullification of the Tea Tax. By smuggling, non-importation, and non-consumption agreements, the tax on tea, retained for the purpose of vindicating the authority of Parlia-

ment, was virtually nullified at the opening of 1773. Then a new thought upon taxation entered the brain of Lord North. The East India Company severely felt the effects of these causes, and requested the government to take off the duty of threepence a pound on their tea levied in America. Already seventeen million pounds had accumulated in their warehouses in England, and they offered to allow the government to retain sixpence upon the pound as an exportation tariff if they would take off the threepence duty. Here was an opportunity for conciliation; but the ministry, deluded by false views of national honor, would not accede to the proposition, but stupidly favored the East India Company, and utterly neglected the principles and feelings of the Americans. They proposed a bill for the exportation of tea to America on their own account, without paying export duty, and it passed May 10, 1773. Agents and consignees were appointed in the several colonies to receive the tea, and the ministry congratulated themselves with outwitting the patriots. This movement perfected the nullification of the tea tax, for universal opposition to its use was manifested.

Nuñez, ALVAR (Cabeça de Vaca), ADVENTURES OF. This remarkable explorer was a native of Spain, and died in 1564. He was chief officer of Narvaez in his explorations and attempted conquest of Florida. (See *Florida*.) In their flight from Florida, Nuñez was wrecked on a small island in the Gulf of Mexico, and, with the survivors, reached the main, which they penetrated to New Mexico, after suffering terrible hardships. Pushing westward, they reached the Pacific coast (1536), when only Nuñez and three others survived. An abridgment of a narrative of his adventures was published in *Hakluyt's Voyages*. (See *Cabeça de Vaca*.)

Nuñez, VASCO DE BALBOA, was born at Xeres de los Caballeros, Spain, in 1475; went to Santo Domingo in 1501; and thence to the Isthmus of Darien in 1510. Pope Alexander VI. gave to the Spanish crown, as God's vicegerent on the earth, all lands that lay three hundred leagues westward of the Azores—in fact all of America. Ferdinand of Spain divided Central America, whose shores Columbus had discovered (see *Columbus, Christopher*), into two provinces, over one of which he placed as governor Ojeda, the navigator, and over the other Diego de Nicuesa, with Bachelor Enciso as lieutenant. Nuñez, deeply in debt in Santo Domingo, escaped from his creditors by being carried in a provision-cask on board Enciso's ship. When she had weighed anchor Nuñez came from his cask. Enciso, angered by the deception, threatened him, but became reconciled. At Darien, where the seat of government was to be established, Nuñez, taking advantage of the discontent of the Spaniards, headed a revolt. When Nicuesa came, they defied him and sent him adrift in a crazy vessel; and Enciso, seeing no chance for subduing the insurgents, went back to Spain with loud complaints against Nuñez, and the Spanish government sent out Davila, with a

fleet and troops, as Governor of Darien. Meanwhile Nuñez had become a great discoverer. The cacique, or Indian ruler, of a neighboring district, named Caveta, had treated two Spaniards with great kindness, who requited his hospitality by advising Nuñez to attack and plunder him, for he had much gold. While the people of Caveta's village were slumbering, Nuñez and his followers entered it and carried off the cacique and his whole family and others, and, with considerable booty, returned to Darien. Caveta and Nuñez soon became friends. The former gave his young and beautiful daughter to the Spanish adventurer as his wife, and she acquired great influence over her husband. While visiting a powerful cacique, a friendly neighbor of Caveta, Nuñez was told that beyond the mountains was a mighty sea that could be seen from their summits, and that the rivers that flowed down the slopes of the mountains on the other side abounded with gold; also that along the coast of that sea was a country where gold

was as plentiful as iron. This story was confirmed by others, and finally Nuñez, with nearly two hundred men and a number of bloodhounds, set out for the tops of the mountains. On the 26th of November, 1513, Nuñez and his men were near the bold rocky summit of a mountain. The leader ascended it alone, when he beheld a mighty sea. It was the Pacific Ocean that laves many a league of the western coast of our Republic. On that summit he and his followers set up a huge cross, and then descended to the shore of the sea. Wading into its waters, Nuñez took formal possession of the great ocean in the name of his sovereign. After that he made voyages along its coast, and heard tidings of Peru, where the Incas, or rulers, drank out of golden vessels. After Davila came, Nuñez was falsely accused of traitorous intentions by his jealous successor and rival, and he was beheaded at Acla in 1517, in the forty-second year of his age. So perished the discoverer of the Pacific Ocean.

O.

Oak Woods, BATTLE OF. The siege of Richmond had gone on quietly until near the close of June, 1862, when General Heintzelman's corps, with a part of Keyes's and Sumner's, was ordered to move forward on the Williamsburg road, through a swampy wood, for the purpose of ascertaining the nature of the ground beyond, and to place Heintzelman and Sumner in a position to support a proposed attack upon the Confederates at a certain point by General Franklin. They met a Confederate force, and a fight ensued, in which the brigades of Sickles and Grover, of Hooker's division, bore the brunt. The Confederates were driven from their encampment, and the point aimed at was gained. The National loss was 516 men killed and wounded.

Oath at the Tomb of Calhoun. When the South Carolina Convention adopted the Ordinance of Secession (which see) on Dec. 20, 1860, the city of Charleston seemed delirious with joy. The bells of the churches rang out merry peals, and these were accompanied by the roar of cannons. A group of enthusiastic young men went to St. Philip's church-yard, and, forming a circle around the tomb of Calhoun, made a solemn vow to devote "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor" to the "cause of South Carolina's independence."

Obdurate King, YIELDING OF AN. King George was greatly disturbed by the action of Parliament concerning the cessation of war in America. (See *Peace, Resolutions for.*) He said they had lost the feelings of Englishmen; and he took to heart what he called "the cruel usage of all the powers of Europe," who, excepting Spain, had expressed a desire for the freedom and independence of the United States. His ministry (North's) having resigned, he was compelled to accept a liberal one. Lord Shelburne brought about the call of Lord Rockingham

(whom the king disliked) to form a cabinet, and when his majesty finally yielded, he said, "Necessity made me yield to the advice of Lord Shelburne." And when, finally, he was compelled to acknowledge the independence of the United States, he said, "I feel sensibly this dismemberment of America from the empire, and I should be miserable indeed if I did not feel that no blame on that account can be laid at my door," when he had been the chief obstacle to reconciliation from the beginning of the quarrel. He had such a poor opinion of the Americans that he consoled himself for the dismemberment by saying, "It may not in the end be an evil that they will become aliens to the kingdom."

Oblong, THE. In 1731 the long-disputed boundary between New York and Connecticut seemed to be settled by mutual concessions. A tract of land lying within the claimed boundary of Connecticut, 580 rods in width, consisting of 61,440 acres, and called from its figure "The Oblong," was ceded to New York as an equivalent for lands near Long Island Sound surrendered to Connecticut. That tract is now included in the Connecticut towns of Greenwich, Stamford, New Canaan, and Darien. This agreement was subscribed by the respective commissioners at Dover, then the only village on the west side of the Oblong. The dividing line was not run regularly, and this gave rise to a vexatious controversy, which was settled in 1880.

O'Brien, JEREMIAH, of Irish descent, was an active patriot of the Revolution, and died at Machias, Me., Oct. 5, 1818, aged seventy-eight years. On hearing of the affair at Lexington (April, 1755), he and four brothers, and a few volunteers, captured a British armed schooner in Machias Bay, May 11, 1775. Jeremiah was the leader. It was the first naval victory, and the first blow struck on the water, after the war began. O'Brien soon afterwards made other

captures, and he was commissioned a captain in the Massachusetts navy. He commanded a privateer, but was captured, and suffered six months in the Jersey prison-ship (which see). He was also confined in Mill Prison, England, a year, when he escaped and returned home. At the time of his death O'Brien was collector of customs at Machias.

O'Callaghan, EDMUND BAILEY, M.D., LL.D., was born in Cork County, Ireland, in 1804. After residing two years in Paris, he went to Quebec in 1823, where he began the practice of medicine in 1827. For three years (1834-37) he edited the *Montreal Witness*, and was a member of the Parliament of Lower Canada in 1836. The next year he came to the United States, and was for many years (1848-70) keeper of the historical manuscripts in the office of the Secretary of State of New York. He translated the Dutch records obtained from Holland by Mr. Brodhead (which see), contained in several published volumes. O'Callaghan wrote and edited very valuable works, such as the *Documentary History of New York*, four volumes; *Documents relating to the Colonial History of New York*, eleven volumes; *Journals of the Legislative Councils of New York*, two volumes; *Historical Manuscripts relating to the War of the Revolution*; *Laws and Ordinances of New Netherland* (1638-74), two volumes. In 1845-48 he prepared and published, in two volumes, a *History of New Netherland*. At the time of his death, May 29, 1880, he was engaged in translating the Dutch records of the city of New York.

Occum, SAMSON, an Indian preacher, was born at Mohegan, New London Co., Conn., about 1723; died at New Stockbridge, N. Y., in July, 1792. He entered the Indian school of Mr. Wheelock at Lebanon when he was nineteen years of age, and remained there four years. Teaching school a while at Lebanon, he removed to Montauk, L. I., where he taught and preached. Sent to England (1766) as an agent for Wheelock's Indian school, he attracted great attention, for he was the first Indian preacher who had visited that country. Occum was employed in missionary labors among the Indians, and acquired much influence over them.

Offerings of a Grateful Congress. When news of the surrender of Cornwallis reached Congress, in session at Philadelphia, a committee—consisting of Messrs. Randolph, Boudinot, Varnum, and Carroll—was appointed, to whom the whole matter was referred. Ten days after the surrender the committee reported a series of resolutions, conveying thanks to all the officers and men of both nations (French and Americans) for their good conduct at Yorktown; promising the erection of a marble column at Yorktown (see *Column of Marble at Yorktown*); ordering the presentation of two stands of British colors captured at Yorktown to Washington; two field-pieces taken from the British to Rochambeau, and to ask the leave of his government to make a similar presentation to Desaix. They also resolved to present a horse, "properly caparisoned," and an elegant sword,

to Lieutenant-colonel Tilghman, the bearer of Washington's despatches to Congress. On the same day the Congress returned thanks to General Greene for his conduct at the battle of Eutaw Spring (which see), and to the Maryland, Virginia, and Delaware troops for their bravery in that battle; also thanks to other corps of the army, including the partisan troops of Marion and Sumter, and Lee's legion. They voted that a British standard should be presented to Major-general Greene "as an honorable testimony of his merit, and a golden medal emblematical of the battle and victory" at Eutaw Spring. The British battle-flags presented to Washington (one of them a Hessian flag) were deposited in the museum at Alexandria by the late G. W. P. Custis, and were lost when that building was burned a few years ago. The British flag was not the royal standard of Great Britain; it was nearly square, being six feet in length and five feet four inches in width, and made of heavy twilled silk. The whole flag composed the British union—the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew—with a white centre, on which was neatly embroidered a crown, and beneath it the garter, with its motto, enclosing a full-blown rose. The other flag was taken from the Anspachers. (See *Forces at Yorktown*.) It was made of white damask silk, doubled, on which were devices embroidered with silk and gold thread. The lettering was all done with gold thread. On one side was an eagle, bearing in its talons an olive-branch, and over the whole, on a ribbon, the words "Pro principe et patria"—a strange motto for mercenaries to display. On the other side, in monogram, were the letters E. C. T. S. A. Under it were the initials M. Z. B. and the date, 1775. The flag was four feet square, with a heavy fringe.

Official Etiquette—WASHINGTON AND HANCOCK. In the autumn of 1789 President Washington made a tour through portions of the New England States. He arrived at Boston on Saturday, Oct. 24. Hancock, who was governor of Massachusetts, had invited the President to lodge at his house in Boston, which the latter declined. After Washington's arrival, Hancock sent him an invitation to come and dine with him and his family informally that day at the close of the public reception ceremonies. It was accepted by Washington, with a full persuasion that the governor would call upon him before the dinner-hour. But Hancock had conceived the proud notion that the governor of a state, within his own domain, was officially superior to the President of the United States when he came into it. He had laid his plans for asserting this superiority by having Washington visit him *first*, and to this end sent him the invitation to lodge and dine with him. At near the time for dinner, as the President did not appear, the governor evidently felt some misgivings, for he sent his secretary to the President with an excuse that he was too ill to call upon his excellency in person. The latter divined the nature of the "indisposition," and dined at his own lodgings at the "Widow Ingersoll's" with a single guest. That evening the governor, feel-

ing uneasy, sent his lieutenant and two of his council to express his regret that his illness had not allowed him to call upon the President. "I informed them expressly," says Washington in his diary, "that I should not see the governor except at my lodgings." That message took the conceit entirely out of Hancock, who was well enough the next day (Sunday) to call upon the President and repeat in person the insufficient excuse for his own folly.

Official Recognition of the "Confederate States of America." In the autumn of 1862 Pope Pius IX. addressed a letter to the archbishops of New York and New Orleans enjoining them to employ their prayers and influence for the restoration of peace. These letters were published, and Jefferson Davis, in his official capacity of "President of the Confederate States," addressed a letter to the Pope (Sept. 23, 1863) thanking him in his own name, and in that of the "Confederate States," for his "charity and love," and that they were and ever had been desirous that "the wicked war should cease." To this the Pope replied (Dec. 2) in a letter directed "To the Illustrious and Honorable Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States of America." The Pope was then the temporal sovereign of the Papal States. This was the only recognition from a foreign potentate which the "Confederate States" ever received.

Ogden, AARON, LL.D., was born at Elizabethtown, N. J., Dec. 3, 1756; died in Jersey City, April 19, 1839. He graduated at Princeton in 1773, taught school in his native village, and in the winter of 1775-76 assisted in capturing, near



AARON OGDEN.

Sandy Hook, a British vessel laden with munitions of war for the army in Boston. Early in 1777 he entered the army as captain under his brother Matthias, and fought at Brandywine. He was brigade-major under Lee at Monmouth, and assistant aide-de-camp to Lord Stirling; was aid to General Maxwell in Sullivan's expedition (which see); was at the battle of Springfield (June, 1780); and in 1781 was with Lafayette in Virginia. He led infantry to the storming of a redoubt at Yorktown, and received the commendation of Washington. After the war he practised law, and held civil offices of trust

in his state. He was United States Senator from 1801 to 1803, and governor of New Jersey from 1812 to 1813. In the War of 1812-15 he commanded the militia of New Jersey. At the time of his death he was President-general of the Society of the Cincinnati (which see).

Ogden, MATTHIAS, was born at Elizabethtown, N. J., in 1755; died there, March 31, 1791. He joined the army at Cambridge in 1775, accompanied Arnold in his expedition to Quebec (which see), and commanded the First New Jersey Regiment from 1776 until the close of the war, when he was breveted brigadier-general.

Ogdensburg, CAPTURE OF (1813). The British again attacked Ogdensburg in the winter of 1813. On Feb. 22 about 800 British soldiers under Colonel McDonnell appeared on the ice in front of the town, approaching in two columns. It was early in the morning, and some of the inhabitants of the village were yet in bed. Colonel Forsyth and his riflemen were stationed at old Fort Presentation, at the mouth of the Oswegatchie, and against them the right column of the invaders, 300 strong, moved. Forsyth's men were partially sheltered by the ruins of the fort. Waiting until the column landed, the Americans attacked them with great energy with rifle-shot and cannon-balls from two small field-pieces. The invaders were repulsed with considerable loss, and fled in confusion over the frozen bosom of the St. Lawrence. Meanwhile the left column, 500 strong, had marched into the town and captured a 12-pounder cannon and its custodians without resistance. They then expected an easy conquest of the town, but were soon confronted by cannons under Captain Kellogg and Sheriff York. The gun of the former became disabled, and he and his men fled across the Oswegatchie and joined Forsyth, leaving the indomitable York to maintain the fight alone, until he and his band were made prisoners. The village was now in complete possession of the British, and McDonnell proceeded to dislodge Forsyth and his party at the fort. He sent a message to that commander to surrender, saying, "If you surrender it shall be well; if not, every man shall be put to the bayonet." "Tell Colonel McDonnell," said Forsyth to the messenger, "there must be more fighting done first." Then the two cannons near the ruins of the fort gave heavy discharges of grape and canister shot, which threw the invaders into confusion. It was only momentary. An overwhelming party of the British were preparing to make an assault, when Forsyth, seeing his peril, gave orders for a retreat to Black Lake, eight or nine miles distant. There he wrote to the War Department, giving an account of the affair, and saying, "If you can send me 300 men, all shall be retaken, and Prescott too, or I will lose my life in the attempt." The town, in possession of the enemy, was plundered by Indians and camp-followers of both sexes who came over from Canada, and by resident miscreants. Every house in the village but three was entered, and the public property carried over to Canada. Two armed schooners, fast in

the ice, were burned, and the barracks near the river were laid in ashes. Fifty-two prisoners were taken to Prescott. The Americans lost in the affair, besides the prisoners, five killed and fifteen wounded; the British loss was six killed and forty-eight wounded. They immediately evacuated the place, and the fugitive citizens returned. (See *Oswegatchie, Indian Mission* at.)

OGDENSBURG, REPULSE OF THE BRITISH FROM (1812). Ogdensburg was a little village in 1812, at the mouth of the Oswegatchie River. The British village of Prescott was on the opposite side of the St. Lawrence. A threatened invasion of northern New York from that quarter caused General Jacob Brown to be sent to Ogdensburg to garrison old Fort Presentation, or Oswegatchie, at the mouth of the Oswegatchie River. Brown arrived on Oct. 1, and the next

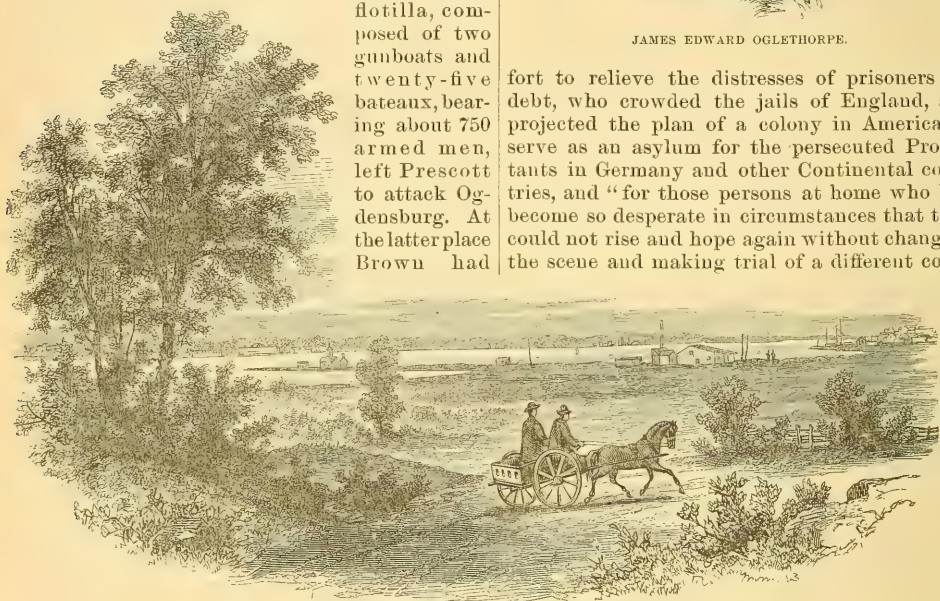
day a British flotilla, composed of two gunboats and twenty-five bateaux, bearing about 750 armed men, left Prescott to attack Ogdensburg. At the latter place Brown had

very active, and he attained the rank of colonel in the British army. In 1722 he was elected to a seat in Parliament, which he held thirty-two years. In that body he made a successful ef-



JAMES EDWARD OGLETHORPE.

fort to relieve the distresses of prisoners for debt, who crowded the jails of England, and projected the plan of a colony in America to serve as an asylum for the persecuted Protestants in Germany and other Continental countries, and "for those persons at home who had become so desperate in circumstances that they could not rise and hope again without changing the scene and making trial of a different coun-



SITE OF FORT PRESENTATION.

about 1200 effective men, regulars and militia, stationed in the town, and a party of riflemen, under Captain Forsyth, were encamped near Fort Presentation, on the margin of the river. The latter were drawn up in battle order to dispute the landing of the invaders. Brown had two field-pieces, and when the British were nearly in mid-channel these were opened upon them with such effect that the enemy were made to retreat precipitately and in great confusion. This repulse gave Brown much credit, and he was soon regarded as one of the ablest men in the service.

Oglethorpe, JAMES EDWARD, was born in London, Dec. 21, 1688; died at Cranham Hall, Essex, England, June 30, 1785. Early in 1714 he was commissioned one of Queen Anne's guards, and was one of Prince Eugene's aids in the campaign against the Turks in 1716-17. At the siege and capture of Belgrade he was

try." Thomson, alluding to this project of transporting and expatriating the prisoners for debt to America, wrote this half-warning line, "O great design! *if executed well.*" It was proposed to found the colony in the country between South Carolina and Florida. King George II. granted a charter for the purpose in June, 1732, which incorporated twenty-one trustees for founding the colony of "Georgia." (See *Georgia, Trustees' Government of.*) Oglethorpe accompanied the first company of emigrants thither, and early in 1733 founded the town of Savannah on Yamacraw Bluff. A satisfactory conference with the surrounding Indians, with Mary Musgrove as interpreter (see *Musgrove, Mary*), resulted in a treaty which secured sovereignty to the English over a large territory. Oglethorpe went to England in 1734, leaving the colony in care of others, and taking natives with him. (See *To-mo-chi-chi.*) He did not return to

Georgia until 1736, when he took with him several cannons and about one hundred and fifty Scotch Highlanders skilled in the military art. This was the first British army in Georgia. With him also came Rev. John Wesley and his brother Charles for the purpose of giving spiritual instruction to the colonists. The elements of prosperity were now with the colonists, who numbered more than five hundred souls; but the unwise restrictions of the trustees was a serious bar to advancement. Many Germans, also, now settled in Georgia, among them a band of Moravians; and the Wesleys were followed by George Whitefield, a zealous young clergyman burning with zeal for the good of men (see *Whitefield, George*), and who worked lovingly with the Moravians in Georgia. With his great guns and his Highlanders, Oglethorpe was prepared to defend his colony from intruders; and they soon proved to be useful, for the Spaniards at St. Augustine, jealous of the growth of the new colony, menaced them. With his martial Scotchmen, Oglethorpe went on an expedition among the islands off the coast of Georgia, and on St. Simon's he founded Frederica and built a fort. At Darien, where a few Scotch people had planted a settlement, he traced out a fortification. Then he went to Cumberland Island, and there marked out a fort that would command the mouth of the St. Mary's River. On a small island at the entrance of the St. John's River he planned a small military work, which he named Fort George. He also founded Augusta, far up the Savannah River, and built a stockade as a defence against hostile Indians. These hostile preparations caused the Spaniards at St. Augustine to threaten war. Creek tribes offered their aid to Oglethorpe, and the Spaniards made a treaty of peace with the English. It was disapproved in Spain, and Oglethorpe was notified that a commissioner from Cuba would meet him at Frederica. They met. The Spaniard demanded the evacuation of all Georgia and a portion of South Carolina by the English, claiming the territory to the latitude of Port Royal as Spanish possessions. Oglethorpe hastened to England to confer with the trustees and seek military strength. He returned in the autumn of 1733, a brigadier-general, authorized to raise troops in Georgia. He found the colonists languishing and discontented. Idleness prevailed, and they yearned for the privilege of employing slave-labor. (See *Georgia, Colony of*.) Late the next year war broke out between England and Spain. St. Augustine had been strengthened with troops, and Oglethorpe resolved to strike a blow before the Spaniards should be well prepared; so he led an unsuccessful expedition into Florida. (See *Florida, Invasion of*.) Two years later the Spaniards proceeded to retaliate, but were frustrated by a stratagem. (See *Georgia, Invasion of*.) Oglethorpe had successfully settled, colonized, and defended Georgia, spending a large amount of his own fortune in the enterprise, not for his own glory, but for a benevolent purpose. He returned to England in 1743, where, after performing good military service as major-

general against the "Young Pretender" (1745), and serving a few years longer in Parliament, he retired to his seat in Essex. When General Gage returned from America in 1775 Oglethorpe was offered the general command of the British troops in this country, though he was then about eighty-seven years of age. He did not approve the doings of the ministry, and declined. He was among the first to offer congratulations to John Adams, because of American independence, when that gentleman went as minister to England in 1784.

O'Hara, CHARLES, of the British army, was a lieutenant of the Coldstream Guards in 1756, and, as Colonel of the Foot Guards, came to America in 1780 in command of them. He served under Cornwallis, and commanded the van in the famous pursuit of Greene in 1781. (See *Greene's Famous Retreat*.) He was badly wounded in the battle of Guilford (which see), and was commander of the British right, as brigadier-general, at the surrender at Yorktown, when he gave to General Lincoln the sword of Cornwallis, the latter too ill, it was alleged, to appear on the field. After serving as governor of several English colonies, he was Lieutenant-governor of Gibraltar in 1787, and governor in 1795. In 1797 he was made general. He died at Gibraltar, Feb. 21, 1802.

Ohio was first explored by La Salle about 1680, his object being trade and not settlement. Conflicting claims to territory in that region led to war. (See *French and Indian War*.) The French held possession of the region north of the Ohio River until the conquest of Canada (which see) in 1760 and the surrender of vast territory by the French to the English in 1763.



STATE SEAL OF OHIO.

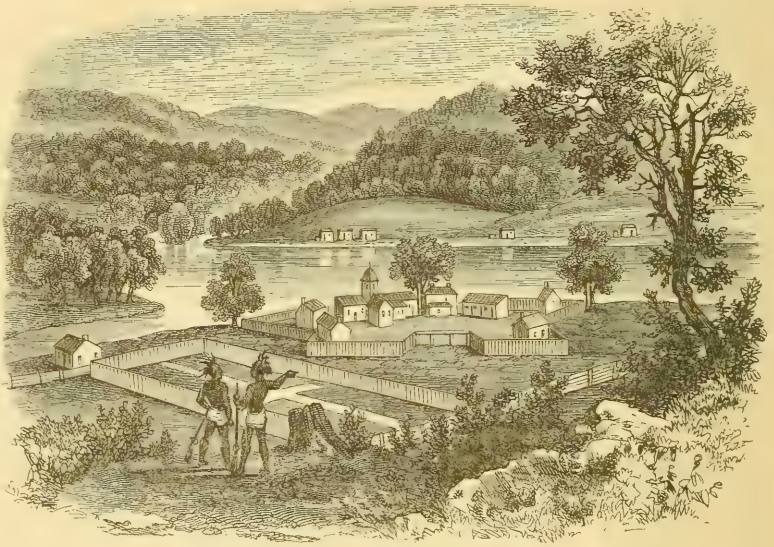
After the Revolution disputes arose between several states as to their respective rights to the soil in that region. These were settled by the cession of the territory to the United States by the respective states, Virginia reserving 3,709,848 acres near the rapids of the Ohio, and Connecticut a tract of 3,666,921 acres near Lake Erie. (See *Western Reserve*.) In 1800 jurisdiction over these tracts was relinquished to the national government, the states retaining the right to the soil, while the Indian titles to

the rest of the state were bought up by the national government. In 1787 a government was established in that region (see *Northwestern Territory*), and the first permanent settlement in Ohio was made at Marietta in 1788. Ohio was soon afterwards organized into a separate territorial government. The settlers were annoyed by hostile Indians (see *St. Clair's Defeat*) until Wayne's victories in 1794 and the treaty at Greenville (which see) gave peace to that region. In 1799 the first territorial legislature assembled, and Ohio was admitted into the Union as a state April 30, 1802. From 1800 to 1810 the seat of government was at Chillicothe. For a while it was at Zanesville, then again at Chillicothe, and finally, in 1816, Columbus was made the permanent seat of the state government. Its people were active on the frontiers in the War of 1812. In March, 1851, a convention revised the constitution, and it was ratified in June; but a new constitution, framed by a convention in 1873, was rejected by the people at an election in 1874. Ohio furnished to the National army during the Civil War 317,133 soldiers. The first geological survey of Ohio was made in 1837-38. A complete survey was completed in 1874. Population in 1890, 3,672,316.

Ohio Company. When, by treaty, the Indians had ceded the lands of the Northwestern Territory (which see), the thoughts of enterprising men turned in that direction as a promising field for settlements. On the night of the 9th of January, 1786, General Rufus Putnam and General Benjamin Tupper formed a plan for a company of soldiers of the Revolution to undertake the task of settlement on the Ohio River. The next day they issued a call for such persons who felt disposed to engage in the enterprise to meet at Boston on the 1st of March, by delegates chosen in the several counties in Massachusetts. They met, and formed "The Ohio Company." It was composed of men like Rufus Putnam, Abraham Whipple, J. M. Varnum, Samuel Holden Parsens, Benjamin Tupper, R. J. Meigs, whom Americans think of with gratitude. They purchased a large tract of land on the Ohio River; and on the 7th of April, 1788, the first detachment of settlers sent by the company, forty-eight in number—men, women, and children—seated themselves near the confluence of the Muskingum and Ohio rivers,

athwart the great war-path of the fierce northwestern tribes when they made their bloody incursions to the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania. They named the settlement "Marietta," in honor of Marie Antoinette, Queen of France, the ally of the Americans. This was the seed from which sprang the great State of Ohio. It was composed of the choice materials of New England society. At one time—in the year 1789—there were no less than ten of the settlers there who had received a college education. During that year full twenty thousand settlers from the East were on lands on the banks of the Ohio. At the beginning of 1788 there was not a white family within the bounds of that commonwealth.

Ohio, FIRST FORT IN. In the autumn of 1785 United States troops began the erection of a fort on the right bank of the Muskingum, at its mouth. The commander of the troops was Major John Doughty, and he named it "Fort Harmar," in honor of his commander, Colonel Josiah Harmar. It was the first military post of the



FORT HARMAR.

kind built in Ohio. The outlines formed a regular pentagon, embracing three fourths of an acre. United States troops occupied Fort Harmar until 1790, when they left it to construct Fort Washington, on the site of Cincinnati. After the treaty of Greenville (which see) it was abandoned.

Ohio, FIRST PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS IN. In 1788 General Rufus Putnam, at the head of a colony from Massachusetts, founded a settlement at the mouth of the Muskingum River, and named it Marietta, in honor of Marie Antoinette, the queen of Louis XVI. of France. A stockade fort was immediately built as a protection against hostile Indians, and named Campus Martius. In the autumn of the same year a party of settlers seated themselves upon Symmes's Purchase (which see) and founded

Columbus, near the mouth of the Little Miami. Fort Washington was soon afterwards built, a little below, on the site of Cincinnati.

Ohio Land Company. Soon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle an association of London merchants and Virginia land-speculators, known as "The Ohio Land Company," obtained from the crown a grant of half a million acres of land on the east bank of the Ohio River, with the exclusive privilege of the Indian traffic. International, or at least intercolonial, disputes immediately occurred. The French claimed, by right of discovery, the whole region watered by the tributaries of the Mississippi River. The English set up a claim, in the name of the Six Nations, as under British protection, and which was recognized by the treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), to the region which they had formerly conquered, and which included the whole eastern portion of the Mississippi valley and the basin of the lower lakes, Erie and Ontario. These conflicting claims at once embarrassed the operations of the Ohio Land Company. It was provided by their charter that they were to pay no quit-rent for ten years; to colonize at least one hundred families within seven years; and, at their own cost, to build and garrison a fort. The government was anxious to carry out this scheme of colonization west of the Alleghany Mountains to counteract the evident designs of the French to occupy that country. The French took immediate measures to countervail the English movements. Galissonière, who had grand dreams of French empire in America, fitted out an expedition under Céloron de Bienville in 1749 to proclaim French dominion at various points along the Ohio. (See *Céloron's Expedition*.) The company took measures for defining and occupying their domain. Thomas Lee, two of the Washingtons, and other leading Virginia members ordered goods suitable for the Indian trade to be sent from London. The company sent an agent to explore the country and confer with the Indian tribes; and in June, 1752, a conference was held at Logstown, near the Ohio, and friendly relations were established between the English and the barbarians. But the Western tribes steadily refused to recognize the right of either the English or the French to lands westward of the Alleghany Mountains. A Delaware chief said to Gist, the agent of the company, "The French claim all the land on one side of the river, and the English claim all the land on the other side of the river: where is the Indian's land?" This significant question was answered by Gist, "Indians and white men are subjects of the British king, and all have an equal privilege in taking up and possessing the land." The company sent surveyors to make definite boundaries. English settlers and traders went into the country. The jealousy of the French was aroused. They seized and imprisoned some of the surveyors and traders and built forts. The French and Indian War that broke out soon afterwards put a stop to the operations of the company. (See *French and Indian War*.)

Ohio, POSITION OF, IN 1861. This state, then containing 2,300,000 inhabitants, had been first settled chiefly by New-Englanders, and was a part of the great Northwestern Territory (which see) by the ordinance of 1787. Its governor (William Dennison, Jr.) was an avowed opponent of the slave system. The Legislature of Ohio met on Jan. 7, 1861. In his message, the governor explained his refusal to surrender alleged fugitive slaves on the requisition of the authorities of Kentucky and Tennessee; denied the right of secession; affirmed the loyalty of his state; suggested the repeal of the Fugitive Slave Law as the most effectual way of procuring the repeal of the Personal Liberty Acts; and called for the repeal of the laws of the Southern States which interfered with the constitutional rights of the citizens of the free-labor states. "Determined to do no wrong," he said, "we will not contentedly submit to wrong." The Legislature denounced (Jan. 12) the secession movements; promised for the people of Ohio their firm support of the national government; and, on the 14th, pledged "the entire power and resources of the state for a strict maintenance of the Constitution and laws of the general government by whomsoever administered." These promises and pledges were fulfilled to the utmost.

Ohio Troops at Dayton (1812). The President called on R. J. Meigs, Governor of Ohio, for twelve hundred militia to be prepared to march to Detroit. Governor William Hull, of Michigan, was persuaded to accept the commission of brigadier-general and take command of them. Governor Meigs's call was generously responded to, and at the mouth of the Mad River, near Dayton, O., the full number had assembled at the close of April, 1812. They were organized into three regiments, and elected their field-officers before the arrival of Hull. The colonels of the respective regiments were Duncan McArthur, James Findlay, and Lewis Cass. The Fourth Regiment of regulars, stationed at Vincennes, under Lieutenant-colonel James Miller, had been ordered to join the militia at Dayton. The command of the troops was surrendered to Hull by Governor Meigs on May 25, 1812. They began their march northward June 1; and at Urbana they were joined by Miller's Fourth Regiment, which, under Colonel Boyd, had participated in the battle at Tippecanoe (which see). They encountered heavy rains and terrible fatigue all the way to Detroit, their destination. (See *Hull's Invasion of Canada*.)

Ojeda, ALONZO DE, was among the earliest discoverers in America after Columbus and Cabot. He was with Columbus in his first voyage. Aided by the Bishop of Badajoz, he obtained royal permission to go on a voyage of discovery, and the merchants of Seville fitted out four ships for him in which he sailed for St. Mary's on the 20th of May, 1499, accompanied by Americus Vesputius as geographer. Following the track of Columbus in his third voyage (see *Columbus, Christopher*), they reached the northeastern coasts of South America, and discovered mountains on the

continent. Coasting along the northern shores of the continent (naming the country Venezuela), Ojeda crossed the Caribbean Sea, visited Santo Domingo, and returned to Spain in September. In 1509 the Spanish monarch divided Central America into two provinces, and made Ojeda governor of one of them and Nicuessa of the other. Ojeda sailed from Santo Domingo late in the autumn, accompanied by Pizarro (see *Pizarro*) and some Spanish friars, whose chief business at the outset seems to have been the reading aloud to the natives in Latin a proclamation by the Spanish leader, prepared by eminent Spanish divines in accordance with a decree of the Pope of Rome (see *Pope's Gift*), declaring that God, who made them all, had given in charge of one man named St. Peter, who had his seat at Rome, all the nations on the earth, with all the lands and seas on the globe; that his successors, called popes, were endowed by God with the same rights; that one of them had given to the monarchs of Spain all the islands and continents in the Western Ocean, and that the natives of the land he was on were expected to yield implicit submission to the servants of the king and Ojeda, his representative. The proclamation threatened, in case of their refusal, to make war upon them, and subdue them "to the yoke and obedience of the Church and his majesty;" that he would make slaves of their wives and children, take all their possessions, and do them all the harm he could, protesting that they alone would be to blame for all deaths and disasters which might follow their disobedience. (See *Alexander VI., Pope.*) This infamous proclamation, which justified murder and robbery under the sanction of the Church and State, indicated the spirit of most of the Spanish conquerors. The natives delayed, and slaughter began. Captives were carried to the ships as slaves. The outraged Indians gathered in bands and slew many of the Spanish soldiers with poisoned arrows. Ojeda took shelter from their fury among matted roots at the foot of a mountain, where his followers found him half dead. At that moment Nicuessa, governor of the other province, arrived, and with reinforcements they made a desolating war on the natives. This was the first attempt to take possession of the mainland in America. Ojeda soon retired with some of his followers to Santo Domingo. The vessel stranded on the southern shore of Cuba, then under native rule, and a refuge for fugitive natives from Santo Domingo. The pagans treated the suffering Christians kindly, and were rewarded with the fate of those of Hispaniola. (See *Santo Domingo.*) The pious Ojeda had told of the wealth of the Cubans, and avaricious adventurers soon made that paradise a pandemonium. He built a chapel there, and so Christianity was introduced into that island.

Old and New Tenor. Early in 1780 the issue of bills of credit by the Continental Congress was stopped, and the states were advised to repeal all laws making the old bills a legal tender. Congress offered to receive gold and silver at the rate of \$40 in paper for \$1 in coin in discharge of the unpaid state quotas. A scheme

was adopted that provided a moderate supply of funds to the treasury. The drawing in and cancelling of the outstanding bills of credit, together with their rapid depreciation, kept the currency in a state of complete derangement. As the bills came in from the states in payment of their monthly quotas, they were cancelled; but for every \$20 so cancelled, \$1 was to be issued as "new tenor," the old issues since 1775, amounting to about \$200,000,000, being called "old tenor." The new tenor bore interest at five per cent., and were to be redeemed in specie within six years, the new bills to be guaranteed by the Confederacy (see *Articles of Confederation*), but to be issued on the credit of the individual states in proportion to their payments of the old tenor. This process, if carried out, would substitute for the outstanding \$200,000,000 of old bills \$10,000,000 of new tenor, of which \$6,000,000 would go to the states paying in the bills, and \$4,000,000 to the federal treasury. Such was the death of the old Continental paper-money scheme. The new-tenor scheme was a failure. A poet of the day made "The Ghost of Continental Money" utter words of warning to the "Embargo" of the new scheme—"new tenor." It said:

"I have lived, to be sure, awhile to secure
The rights of a much injured nation;
But I got all my living by a course of deceiving,
That has sunk me in utter damnation.
* * * * *
You may strive and may tease, but never will please—
You never will suit and content all:
So stay where you are, or, alas! you will share
The fortune of old *Continental*."

Old Dominion. A title often given to the State of Virginia. The vast, undefined region named Virginia by Queen Elizabeth was regarded by her as a fourth kingdom of her realm. Spenser, Raleigh's firm friend, dedicated his *Faery Queene* (1590) to Elizabeth, "Queen of England, France, Ireland, and *Virginia*." When James VI. of Scotland came to the English throne (1603), Scotland was added, and Virginia was called, in compliment, the fifth kingdom. On the death of Charles I. on the scaffold (1649), his son Charles, heir to the throne, was in exile. Sir William Berkeley, a staunch royalist, was then governor of Virginia, and a majority of the colony were in sympathy with him. He proclaimed that son "Charles the Second, King of England, Scotland, Ireland, and *Virginia*;" and when in 1652 the Virginians heard that the Republican government of England was about to send a fleet to reduce them to submission (see *Berkeley, Sir William*), they sent a message to Breda, in Flanders, where Charles then resided, inviting him to come over and be king of Virginia. He was on the point of sailing for America when circumstances foreshadowed his restoration to the throne of his father. When that act was accomplished, the grateful monarch caused the arms of Virginia to be quartered with those of England, Scotland, and Ireland, as an independent member of the empire. From this circumstance Virginia received the title of The Dominion. Coins with such quarterings were struck as late as 1773, and the State of Virginia is often called *The Old Dominion*.

Old Ironsides. A name popularly applied to the United States frigate *Constitution*, built in the year 1797 and yet [1880] afloat. She was conspicuous in the bombardment of Tripoli in 1804, and particularly so during the War of 1812. In that war she was in three actions; was twice critically chased; captured five British vessels of war; was never dismasted; never got on shore, and scarcely ever suffered any of the usual disasters at sea. Her most eminent commander, Commodore Charles Stewart, received the popular title of "Old Ironsides."

Old Tower at Newport. This structure is of unhewn stone, laid in mortar composed of the sand and gravel of the soil around it and oyster-shell lime. It is a cylinder twenty-three feet in diameter and now twenty-four feet in height, resting upon arches supported by eight columns. It was originally covered with stucco within and without, and the writer was informed by the owner of the land many years ago (Governor Gibbs) that on digging to the foundation-stones of one of the supporting columns, they were found to be composed of hewn spheres. This structure is a hard nut for antiquaries and historians to crack. Some regard it as a Scandinavian structure of great antiquity, and others as a windmill built by some of the early colonists of Rhode Island. Governor Benedict Arnold speaks of it in his will (1677) as his "stone-built windmill." Peter Easton, another early settler, says in his diary for 1663: "This year we built our first windmill." Easton built it himself of wood, and for his enterprise he was rewarded by the colony with a strip of land on the ocean front, known as Easton's Beach. Such a novel structure as this tower, if built for a windmill, would have received more than a local notice. No chronicler of the day refers to it, nor is it mentioned as being there when the settlers first seated themselves on the island. It was a very inconvenient structure for a windmill, for it was evidently all left open below the arches, with a floor and three windows above them. The idea that it was originally built for a windmill is discarded by many intelligent persons who have examined it, and contemplate the condition of the early colonists of Rhode Island. When and by whom was it built? is a question

that will probably remain unanswered, satisfactorily, forever. (See *Northmen in America*.)

Oldest Existing Town in the Original States of the Union. Albany, the political capital of the State of New York, is the oldest existing town within the domain of the original thirteen states. It was first settled by Dutch traders in 1614. They built a trading-house on Castle Island, a little below the site of Albany, and eight years afterwards Fort Orange was built on that site. The settlement was called Fort Orange at first, then Beverswyck; and after the Province of New Netherland passed into the possession of



STONE TOWER AT NEWPORT.

the English it was called Albany, the second title of Duke James, afterwards James II. of England. Jamestown, which was the earliest English settlement (1607), perished in 1676 by the hand of Bacon (which see), and the only vestige of the village that remains is the ruin of a church-tower. Albany is yet full of the descendants of the early settlers there in the second decade of the 17th century.

Oldham, JOHN, came to New Plymouth from England in 1623, where, in connection with Lyford, he made much trouble. (See *Lyford and Oldham, Conspiracy of*.) He lived at Hull and

Cape Ann, a restless man; and in 1634 he represented Watertown in the General Court of Massachusetts. In 1633, with Samuel Hall and others, he penetrated the wilderness westward to the Connecticut River, to the site of (the present) Windsor, and this exploration led to the settlements in the Connecticut valley. Coming to Connecticut on board his vessel to trade with the Indians, he was murdered by them, and this event led to the Pequot War (which see).

Oligarchy in Virginia. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, an oligarchy had been almost imperceptibly formed in Virginia. At that time there were on each of the four rivers in Virginia "men in number from ten to thirty," who, by trade and industry, had acquired competent estates. They took care to supply the poorer sort with goods, and were sure to keep them always in their debt, and, consequently, dependent on them. Out of this small number were chosen the Council, Assembly, justices, and other officers of government. Parish affairs were in the hands of self-perpetuating vestries, which kept the ministers in check by hiring them yearly. The justices managed the business and finances of their respective counties. The twelve councillors possessed extensive authority. Their assent was necessary to all the governor's official acts, and they constituted one branch of the General Assembly. They exercised the principal judicial authority as judges of the General Court. They were at the head of the militia as lieutenants of volunteers; acted as collectors of export duties on tobacco and other provincial imports, and farmed the king's quit-rents much to their own advantage. A majority of these councillors united in a sort of family compact to engross the entire management of the province. So Virginia was ruled by an oligarchy composed of a few families.

Oliver, ANDREW, was born in Boston, March 28, 1706; died there, March 3, 1774. He graduated at Harvard in 1724. He was a representative in the General Court from 1743 to 1746; one of his majesty's Council from 1746 to 1765; and secretary of the province from 1756 to 1770, and succeeded Hutchinson (his brother-in-law) as lieutenant-governor. In 1765 he was hung in effigy because he was a stamp-distributor (which see), and his course in opposition to the patriotic party in Boston caused him to share the unpopularity of Hutchinson. His letters, with those of Hutchinson, were sent by Franklin to Boston, and created great commotion there. (See *Hutchinson's Letters*.)

Oliver, PETER, LL.D., was born March 6, 1713; died at Birmingham, England, Oct. 13, 1791. He was a brother of Andrew Oliver, and graduated at Harvard in 1730. After holding several offices, he was made judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in 1756, and in 1771 chief-justice of that court. His course in Boston in opposition to the patriots made him very unpopular, and he was one of the crowd of loyalists who fled from that city with the British army in March, 1776. He went to England, where he lived on a pension

from the British crown. He was an able writer of both prose and poetry. Chief-justice Oliver, on receiving his appointment, refused to accept his salary from the colony, and was impeached by the Assembly and declared suspended until the issue of the impeachment was reached. The Assembly of Massachusetts had voted the five judges of the Superior Court ample salaries from the colonial treasury, and called upon them to refuse the corrupting pay from the crown. Only Oliver refused, and he shared the fate of Hutchinson.

Oliver, THOMAS, the last royal lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, was born at Dorchester, Mass., Jan. 5, 1734; died at Bristol, England, Nov. 29, 1815. He graduated at Harvard in 1753. He succeeded Lieutenant-governor Andrew Oliver (of another family) in March, 1774, and in September following was compelled by the people of Boston to resign. He took refuge with the British troops in Boston, and fled with them to Halifax in 1776, and thence to England.

Olney, JEREMIAH, was born in 1750; died at Providence, R. I., Nov. 10, 1812. He was made lieutenant-colonel at the beginning of the war for independence (afterwards made colonel), and was often the chief officer of the Rhode Island forces. He fought conspicuously at Red Bank, Springfield, Monmouth, and Yorktown, and after the war he was collector of the port of Providence, and president of the Rhode Island Cincinnati.

Olney, STEPHEN, was born at North Providence, R. I., in October, 1755; died there, Nov. 23, 1832. He entered the army as a lieutenant in Captain Jeremiah Olney's company in 1775, and served with distinction in several of the principal battles of the war for independence. He served under Lafayette in Virginia, and was distinguished in the capture of a British redoubt at Yorktown during the siege (which see), where he was severely wounded by a bayonet-thrust. Colonel Olney held many town offices, and for twenty years represented his native town in the Assembly.

Olustee Station, BATTLE AT. Early in 1864 the government was informed that the citizens of Florida, tired of the war, desired a reunion with the National government. The President commissioned his private secretary (John Hay) a major, and sent him to Charleston to accompany a military expedition which General Gillmore was to send to Florida, Hay to act in a civil capacity if required. The expedition was commanded by General Truman Seymour, who left Hilton Head (Feb. 5, 1864) in transports with 6000 troops, and arrived at Jacksonville, Fla., on the 7th. Driving the Confederates from there, the Nationals pursued them into the interior. General Finnegan was in command of a considerable Confederate force in Florida, and stoutly opposed this invasion. At Olustee Station, on a railway that crossed the peninsula in the heart of a cypress swamp, the Nationals encountered Finnegan, strongly posted. A sharp battle occurred (Feb. 20), when Seymour was repulsed and retreated to Jacksonville. The estimated

loss to the Nationals in this expedition was about 2000 men; the Confederate loss, 1000 men and several guns. Seymour carried with him about 1000 of the wounded, and left 250 on the field, besides many dead and dying. The expedition returned to Hilton Head. Unionism in Florida seemed to be a myth. The Nationals destroyed stores valued at \$1,000,000. At about the same time Admiral Bailey destroyed the Confederate salt-works on the coast of Florida, valued at \$3,000,000.

Omahas, THE, are a tribe of Indians of the Dakota family. They are represented in Marquette's map in 1673. They were divided into clans, and cultivated corn and beans. One of their customs was to prohibit a man from speaking to his father-in-law and mother-in-law. They were reduced about the year 1800 by small-pox from a population capable of sending out seven hundred warriors to about three hundred. They then burned their villages and became wanderers. They were then, as now, relentlessly pursued by the Sioux. They had increased in number, when Lewis and Clarke found them on the Quicoure in 1805, to about six hundred. They have from time to time ceded lands to the United States, and since 1855 have been settled, and have devoted themselves exclusively to agriculture. Their condition has improved, and in 1873 they had a church, three schools, and numbered one thousand souls. They are on a reservation in the northeastern part of Nebraska, and their property is valued at \$75,000.

Omnibus Bill, THE (1850). The subject of the admission of California as a state of the Union, in 1850, had created so much sectional ill-feeling that danger to the integrity of the Union was apprehended. Mr. Clay, feeling this apprehension, offered a plan of compromise in the United States Senate (Jan. 29, 1850) in a series of resolutions, providing for the admission of California as a state; the organization of new territorial governments; fixing the boundary of Texas; declaring it to be inexpedient to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia while that institution existed in Maryland, without the consent of the people of the district, and without just compensation to the owners of slaves within the district; that more effectual laws should be made for the restitution of fugitive slaves; and that Congress has no power to prohibit or obstruct the trade in slaves between the several states. Clay spoke eloquently in favor of this plan. Mr. Webster approved it, and Senator Foote, of Mississippi, moved that the whole subject be referred to a committee of thirteen—six Southern members and six Northern members—they to choose the thirteenth. This resolution was adopted April 18; the committee was appointed, and Mr. Clay was made chairman of it. On May 8, Mr. Clay reported a plan of compromise in a series of bills substantially the same as that of Jan. 29. It was called an "Omnibus Bill." Long debates ensued, and on July 31 the whole batch was rejected except the proposition to establish a territory in the Mormon settlements in Deseret, called Utah. Then the com-

promise measures contained in the Omnibus Bill were taken up separately. In August a bill for the admission of California passed the Senate; also for providing a territorial government for New Mexico. In September a Fugitive Slave Bill passed the Senate; also a bill for the suppression of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia. All of these bills were adopted in the House of Representatives in September, and received the signature of President Fillmore.

"On to Richmond!" At the beginning of 1862 the loyal people became very impatient of the immobility of the immense Army of the Potomac, and from every quarter was heard the cry, "Push on to Richmond!" Edwin M. Stanton succeeded Mr. Cameron (Jan. 13, 1862) as Secretary of War, and the President issued a general order (Jan. 27), in which he directed a general forward movement against the insurgents of all the land and naval forces of the Republic on the 22d of February next ensuing. This order sent a thrill of joy through the heart of the loyal people, and it was heightened when an order directed McClellan to move against the inferior Confederate force at Manassas. McClellan remonstrated, and proposed to take his great army to Richmond by the circuitous route of Fortress Monroe and the Virginia peninsula. The President finally yielded, and the movement by the longer route was begun. After the Confederates had voluntarily evacuated Manassas, the army was first moved in that direction, not, as the commander-in-chief said, to pursue them and take Richmond, but to give his troops "a little active experience before beginning the campaign." The "promenade," as one of his French aids called it, disappointed the people, and the cry was resumed, "On to Richmond!" The Army of the Potomac did not begin its tardy march on to Richmond until April. The President, satisfied that General McClellan's official burdens were greater than he could profitably bear, kindly relieved him of the chief care of the armies, and gave him (March 11) the command of only the Department of the Potomac.

"On to Washington!" The seizure of the national capital, with the treasury and archives of the government, was a capital part of the plan of the Secessionists everywhere, and of the "government" at Montgomery. Alexander H. Stephens, the "Vice-President" of the Confederacy, was sent by Jefferson Davis to treat with Virginia for its annexation to the league, and at various points on his journey, whenever he made speeches to the people, the burden was, "On to Washington!" That cry was already resounding throughout the South. It was an echo of the prophecy of the Confederate Secretary of War. (*See War Begun by the Confederates.*) "Nothing is more probable," said the *Richmond Inquirer*, in 1861, "than that President Davis will soon march an army through North Carolina and Virginia to Washington;" and it called upon Virginians who wished to "join the Southern Army" to organize at once. "The first fruits of Virginia secession," said the *New Orleans Picayune*, on the 18th, "will be the removal of Lin-

coln and his cabinet, and whatever he can carry away, to the safer neighborhood of Harrisburg or Cincinnati—perhaps to Buffalo or Cleveland." The *Vicksburg* (Mississippi) *Whig* of the 20th said: "Major Ben McCulloch has organized a force of 5000 men to seize the Federal capital the instant the first blood is spilled." On the evening of the same day, when news of bloodshed in Baltimore reached Montgomery (see *Riot in Baltimore*), bonfires were built in front of the Exchange Hotel, and from its balcony Roger A. Pryor, of Virginia, in a speech to the multitude, said that he was in "favor of an immediate march on Washington." At the departure of the Second Regiment of South Carolina Infantry for Richmond, the colonel, as he handed the flag just presented to it to the color-sergeant, said: "To your particular charge is committed this noble gift. Plant it where honor calls. If opportunity offers, let it be the first to kiss the breezes of heaven from the dome of the Capitol at Washington." The *Richmond Examiner* said, on April 23—the day when Stephens arrived in that city: "The capture of Washington city is perfectly within the power of Virginia and Maryland, if Virginia will only make the proper effort by her constituted authorities. There never was half the unanimity among the people before, nor a tithe of the zeal upon any subject that is now manifested to take Washington, and drive from it every Black Republican (which see) who is a dweller there. From the mountain-tops and valleys to the shores of the sea there is one wild shout of fierce resolve to capture Washington city, at all and every human hazard." On the same day Governor Ellis, of North Carolina, ordered a regiment of state troops to march for Washington; and the *Goldsborough* (N. C.) *Tribune* of the 24th, speaking of the grand movement of Virginia and a rumored one in Maryland, said: "It makes good the words of Secretary Walker, of Montgomery, in regard to the Federal metropolis. (See *War Begun*, etc.) It transfers the lines of battle from the Potomac to the Pennsylvania border." The *Raleigh* (N. C.) *Standard* of the same date said: "Our streets are alive with soldiers" (North Carolina was then a professedly loyal state); and added, "Washington city will be too hot to hold Abraham Lincoln and his government. North Carolina has said it, and she will do all she can to make good her declaration." The *Eufaula* (Alabama) *Express* said, on the 25th: "Our policy at this time should be to seize the old Federal capital, and take old Lincoln and his cabinet prisoners of war." The Milledgeville (Ga.) *Southern Recorder* said: "The government of the Confederate States must possess the city of Washington. It is folly to think it can be used any longer as the headquarters of the Lincoln government, as no access can be had to it except by passing through Virginia and Maryland. The District of Columbia cannot remain under the jurisdiction of the United States Congress without humiliating Southern pride and disputing Southern rights. Both are essential to greatness of character, and both must co-operate in the destiny to be achieved."

A correspondent of the *Charleston Courier*, writing from Montgomery, said: "The desire for taking Washington, I believe, increases every hour; and all things, to my thinking, seem tending to this consummation. We are in lively hope that before three months roll by the [Confederate] government—Congress, departments, and all—will have removed to the present Federal capital." Hundreds of similar expressions were uttered by Southern politicians and Southern newspapers; and Alexander H. Stephens, the Vice-President of the Confederacy, brought his peculiar logic to bear upon the matter in a speech at Atlanta (Ga.), April 30, 1861, in the following manner: "A general opinion prevails that Washington city is soon to be attacked. On this subject I can only say, our object is peace. We wish no aggressions on any man's rights, and will make none. But if Maryland secedes, the District of Columbia will fall to her by revolutionary right—the same as Sumter to South Carolina, Pulaski to Georgia, and Pickens to Florida. When we have the right, we will demand the surrender of Washington, just as we did in the other cases, and will enforce our demand at every hazard and at whatever cost." At the same time went forth from the free-labor states, "On to Washington!" for its preservation; and it was responded to effectually by hundreds of thousands of loyal citizens.

Oneida, THE. The first warlike measure of the Americans previous to the hostilities begun in 1812 was the construction, at Sackett's Harbor, at the eastern end of Lake Ontario, of the brig *Oneida*, 16 guns, by Christian Berg and Henry Eckford. She was launched in 1809, and was intended for a twofold purpose—namely, to enforce the revenue laws under the Embargo Act, and to be in readiness to defend American property afloat on Lake Ontario in case of war with Great Britain. Her first duty in that line was performed in 1812, when she was commanded by Lieutenant Melancthon T. Woolsey. The schooner *Lord Nelson*, laden with flour and merchandise, and owned by British subjects at Niagara, was found in American waters in May, 1812, on her way to Kingston, and was captured by the *Oneida* and condemned as lawful prize. About a month later (June 14, 1812) another British schooner, the *Ontario*, was captured at St. Vincent, but was soon discharged. At about the same time still another offending schooner, the *Niagara*, was seized and sold as a violator of the revenue laws. These events soon led to retaliation. (See *St. Lawrence*.)

Oneidas. This was the second of the five nations that composed the original Iroquois Confederacy. Their domain extended from a point east of Utica to Deep Spring, near Manlius, south of Syracuse, in Onondaga County, N. Y. Divided into three clans—the Wolf, Bear, and Turtle—their tribal totem was a stone in a forked stick, and their name meant "tribe of the granite rock." Tradition says that when the great confederacy was formed, Hiawatha (which see) said to them: "You, Oneidas, a people who recline your bodies against the 'Ever-

lasting Stone,' that cannot be moved, shall be the second nation, because you give wise counsel." Very soon after the settlement of Canada they became involved in wars with the French and their Huron and Montagnais allies. In 1653 they joined their neighbors, the Onondagas, in a treaty of peace with the French, and received missionaries from the latter. At that time they had been so reduced by war with southern tribes that they had only 150 warriors. In the general peace with the French, in 1700, they joined their sister nations; and when the old war for independence was kindling, they alone, of the then Six Nations (which see) in the great council, opposed an alliance with the English. They remained faithful to the English-American colonists to the end. In this attitude they were largely held by the influence of Samuel Kirkland, a Protestant missionary, and General Philip Schnyler. Because of this attitude they were subjected to great losses by the ravages of Tories and their neighbors, for which the United States compensated them by a treaty in 1794. They had previously ceded their lands to the State of New York, reserving a tract, now in Oneida County, where some of them still remain. They had been joined by the Stockbridge and Brotherton Indians. Some of them emigrated to Canada, and settled on the Thames; and in 1821 a large band purchased a tract on Green Bay, Wisconsin. They have all advanced in civilization and the mechanic arts, as well as in agriculture, and have schools and churches. There are only about 250 Oneidas left in the State of New York, on the reservation near "Oneida Castle." There are 1270 on a reservation of 65,000 acres in Wisconsin, where more than half their children are in schools; and a little over 600 are on the Thames, in the province of Ontario.

Onondagas. These were the third nation of the Iroquois Confederacy, and their name means "men of the great mountain." Tradition says that at the formation of the confederacy Hiawatha said to them: "Yon, Onondagas, who have your habitation at the 'Great Mountain,' and are overshadowed by its crags, shall be the third nation, because you are greatly gifted with speech, and are mighty in war." Their seat of government, or "castle," was in the hill country southward from Syracuse, where was the great council-fire of the Confederacy, or meeting-place of their Congress. The Atatarho, or great sachem of the tribe, was chosen to be the first President of the Confederacy. (See *Iroquois Confederacy*.) They were divided into fourteen clans, with a sachem for each clan, and their domain extended from Deep Spring, near Manlius, Onondaga Co., west to a line between Cross and Otter lakes. This nation carried on war with the Indians in Canada, and also with the French, after their advent on the St. Lawrence; and they were prominent in the destruction of the Hurons. In 1653 they made peace with the French, and received Jesuit missionaries among them. The peace was not lasting, and in 1662 a large force of Onondagas ravaged Montreal Island. They again made peace, and in 1668

the French mission was re-established. As the English extended their influence among the Five Nations, the Iroquois were won to their interest, and the Onondagas permitted them to erect a fort in their domain; but when, in 1696, Frontenac invaded their territory, the Onondagas destroyed the fort and their village, and returned to the forests. The French sent deputies to the Onondaga sachems, and then, in 1700, signed the general treaty of peace at Montreal. This was broken in 1709, when the Onondagas again made war on the French, and were alternately hostile and neutral towards them until the overthrow of the French power, in 1763. When the old war for independence was kindling, a general council of the Confederacy was held at Onondaga Castle. The Oneidas and Tuscaroras (see *Six Nations*) opposed an alliance with the English, and each nation was left to act as it pleased in the matter. By this decision the Confederacy was weakened, and finally, in 1777, the council-fire at Onondaga (as the Confederate government was familiarly called) was formally extinguished. The Onondagas joined the English, and the war left them helpless, and in 1778 they ceded all their lands to the State of New York, except a reservation set apart for their remnant, which they continue to hold. A part of them are Christians, and the remainder are pagans. Not less than 500 Onondagas in New York are on the reservation; the remainder are with the Senecas and Tuscaroras. For the past fifty years the population has neither increased nor diminished. There are about 400 Onondagas in Canada, making the total number of the once powerful nation a little more than 800. It is said that the Onondaga dialect is the purest one of the Iroquois.

Opechancanough, brother of Powhatan, was "King of Pamunkey" when the English first landed in Virginia. He was born about 1552, and died in 1644. He first became known to the English as the captor of John Smith in the forest. Opechancanough would have killed him immediately, but for Smith's presence of mind. He drew from his pocket a compass, and explained to the savage as well as he could its wonderful nature; told him of the form of the earth and the stars—how the sun chased the night around the earth continually. Opechancanough regarded him as a superior being, and women and children stared at him as he passed from village to village to the barbarian's capital, until he was placed in the custody of Powhatan. Opechancanough attended the marriage of his niece, Pocahontas, at Jamestown, but always disliked the English. After the death of his brother (1619) he was lord of the empire, and immediately formed plans for driving the English out of his country. Governor Sir Francis Wyatt brought the constitution (see *Virginia, Colony of*) with him, and there was evidence of prosperity and peace everywhere. But at that moment a fearful cloud of trouble was brooding. Opechancanough could command fifteen hundred warriors. He hated the English bitterly, and inspired his people with the same feeling, yet he feigned friendship for them until a plot

for their destruction was perfected. Believing the English intended to seize his domains, his patriotism impelled him to strike a blow. In an affray with a settler, an Indian leader was shot, and the wily emperor made it the occasion for inflaming the resentment of his people against the English. He visited the governor in war costume, bearing in his belt a glittering hatchet, and demanded some concessions for his incensed people. It was refused; and, forgetting himself for a moment, he snatched the hatchet from his belt, and struck its keen blade into a log of the cabin, uttering a curse upon the English. Instantly recovering himself, he smiled, and said: "Pardon me, governor; I was thinking of that wicked Englishman [Argall] who stole my niece [Pocahontas] and struck me with his sword. (See *Argall, Samuel*.) I love the English who are the friends of Powhatan. Sooner will the skies fall than that my bond of friendship with the English shall be dissolved." Sir Francis warned the people that treachery was abroad. They did not believe it. They so trusted the barbarians that they had taught them to hunt with fire-arms. A tempest suddenly burst upon them. On the 1st of April (March 22, O. S.), 1622, the Indians rushed from the forests upon all the remote settlements, at a preconcerted time, and in the space of an hour three hundred and fifty men, women, and children were slain. At Henrico, the devoted Thorpe (in charge of the lands of Henrico College [which see]), who had been like a father to the children and the sick of the savages, was slain. Six members of the Council and several of the wealthier inhabitants were made victims of the treachery. On the very morning of the massacre the savages ate at the tables of those whom they intended to murder at noon. The people of Jamestown were saved by Chanceo, a Christian Indian, who gave them timely warning, and enabled them to prepare for the attack. Those on remote plantations who survived beat back the savages, and fled to Jamestown. In the course of a few days, eighty of the inhabited plantations were reduced to eight. A large part of the colony were saved, and these waged an exterminating war. They struck such fearful retaliating blows that the Indians were beaten back into the forest, and death and desolation were spread over the peninsula between the York and James rivers. The emperor fled to the land of the Pamunkeys, and by a show of cowardice lost much of his influence. The power of the Confederacy was broken. Before the war there were six thousand Indians within sixty miles of Jamestown; at its close there were, probably, not one thousand within the territory of eight thousand square miles. The colony, too, was sadly injured in number and strength. A deadly hostility between the races continued for more than twenty years. Opechancanough lived, and had been nursing his wrath all that time, prudence alone restraining him from war. His malice remained keen, and his thirst for vengeance was terrible. When, in 1643, Thomas Rolfe, son of his niece Pocahontas, came from England, and with Cleopatra, his mother's sis-

ter, visited the aged emperor, and told him of the civil war between the English factions, the old emperor concluded it was a favorable time for him to strike another blow for his country. He was then past ninety years of age, and feeble in body. He sent runners through his empire. A confederation of the tribes for the extermination of the English was formed, and the day fixed to begin the work in the interior and carry it on to the sea. Early in April, 1644, they began the horrid work. The old emperor was carried on a litter borne by his warriors. In the space of two days they slew more than three hundred of the settlers, sparing none who fell in their way. The region between the Pamunkey and York rivers was almost depopulated. Governor Berkeley met the savages with a competent armed force, and drove them back with great slaughter. Opechancanough was made a prisoner, and carried in triumph to Jamestown. He was so much exhausted that he could not raise his eyelids, and in that condition he was fatally wounded by a bullet from the gun of an English soldier who guarded him, and who had suffered great bereavements at the hands of the savages. The people, curious, gathered around the dying emperor. Hearing the hum of a multitude, he asked an attendant to raise his eyelids. When he saw the crowd he haughtily demanded a visit from the governor. Berkeley came, when the old man said, as fiery indignation gave strength to his voice, "Had it been my fortune to have taken Sir William Berkeley prisoner, I would not meanly have exposed him as a show to my people." He then stretched himself upon the earth, and died.

Open Debates in Massachusetts. In 1764 the House of Representatives of Massachusetts ordered that the debates at their sessions should be open to the public ear, and that a gallery should be built in their chamber for the accommodation of the public.

Operations in Western Virginia (1864). Arrangements had been made for the service of auxiliary or co-operating troops in western Virginia, before the Army of the Potomac started for Richmond in May, 1864. In that region Confederate cavalry, guerilla bands, and bushwackers had been mischievously active for some time. Moseby was an active marauder there, and, so early as January (1864), General Fitzhugh Lee, with his mounted men, had made a fruitless raid on the Baltimore and Ohio railway west of Cumberland. A little later General Jubal A. Early, in command of the Confederates in the Shenandoah valley, sent a foraging expedition under Rosser in the same direction, who was more successful, capturing 1200 cattle and 500 sheep at one place, and a company of Union soldiers at another. General Averill struck him near Romney and drove him entirely out of the new commonwealth (see *West Virginia*), with a loss of his prisoners and a large proportion of his own men and horses. General Sigel was put at the head of a large force in the Shenandoah valley (April, 1864), who gave the command of the Kanawha valley to General Crook. On his

way up the valley from Staunton with 8000 men, Sigel was met at New Market by an equal force under Breckinridge. After much manœuvring and skirmishing, Breckinridge charged on Sigel, near New Market, and, after a sharp fight, drove him down the valley to the shelter of Cedar Creek, near Strasburg, with a loss of 700 men, six guns, 1000 small-arms, and a portion of his train. Sigel was immediately superseded by General Hunter, who was instructed to move swiftly on Staunton, destroy the railway between that place and Charlottesville, and then move on Lynchburg. Crook, meanwhile, had met General McCausland and fought and defeated him at Dublin Station, on the Virginia and Tennessee railway, and destroyed a few miles of that road. Crook lost 700 men, killed and wounded. Averill had, meanwhile, been unsuccessful in that region. Hunter advanced on Staunton, and, at Piedmont, not far from that place, he fought with Generals Jones and McCausland. (See *Piedmont, Battle of*.) At Staunton, Crook and Averill joined Hunter, when the National forces concentrated there, about 20,000 strong, moved towards Lynchburg by way of Lexington. That city was a focal point of a vast and fertile region, from which Lee drew supplies. Lee had given to Lynchburg such strength that when Hunter attacked it (June 18) he was unable to take it. Making a circuitous march, the Nationals entered the Kanawha valley, where they expected to find 1,500,000 rations, left by Crook and Averill under a guard. A guerilla band had swept away the rations and men, and the National army suffered dreadfully for want of food and forage.

Ord, EDWARD OTHO CRESAP, was born in Alleghany County, Md., in 1818, and graduated at West Point in 1839, entering the Third Artillery. He was in the Seminole War (which see), and in 1845-46 was employed in coast-survey



EDWARD OTHO CRESAP ORD.

duty, when he was sent to California. He took part in expeditions against the Indians, and, in September, 1861, was made brigadier-general of volunteers, commanding a brigade of the Pennsylvania Reserves (which see), near the Poto-

mac. In May, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers, and ordered to the Army of the Mississippi, where he did good service while in command at Corinth. He commanded the Thirteenth Army Corps at the siege and capture of Jackson and Vicksburg. In the campaign against Richmond, in 1864, he commanded the Eighteenth Corps from July to September, when he was severely wounded in the assault on Fort Harrison (which see). He commanded the Department of Virginia from January to June, 1865, and was a participant in the capture of Lee's army in April. General Ord was breveted major-general in the United States Army, and commissioned a brigadier-general, July 26, 1866. Died July 22, 1883.

Order in Council, BRITISH (1793). On Nov. 6, 1793, a British Order in Council was issued, but was not made public until the end of the year, directing British cruisers to stop, detain, and bring in for legal adjudication all ships laden with goods the production of any French colony, or carrying provisions, or other supplies, for the use of such colony. The order, which was calculated to destroy all neutral trade with the French colonies, even that which had been allowed in times of peace, was issued simultaneously with the despatch of a great expedition for the conquest of the French West Indies. Martinique, Guadeloupe, and St. Lucia all fell into the hands of the English. The news of the British order produced great excitement at Philadelphia, where Congress was in session, and public feeling against Great Britain ran high. It was manifested in and out of Congress by debates and discussions, and while these were in progress the feeling against the British was intensified by the publication in New York papers of what purported to be a speech of Lord Dorchester (Guy Carleton) to a certain Indian deputation from a late general council at the Manumee Rapids, in which he suggested the probability of a speedy rupture between the United States and Great Britain. The British order and Dorchester's speech caused resolutions to be introduced by Sedgwick (March 12, 1794) into the House of Representatives for raising fifteen regiments of 1000 men each, for two years, and the passage of a joint resolution (March 26) laying an embargo for thirty days, afterwards extended thirty days longer, having in view the obstructing of the supply of provisions to the British fleet and army in the West Indies. Sedgwick's resolutions were rejected, but a substitute was passed suggesting a draft of militia. It was proposed to detach from this body 80,000 minute-men, enlist a regiment of artillery, and raise a standing force of 25,000 men. While debates were going on, news came that a second Order in Council had been issued (Jan. 8, 1794), superseding that of Nov. 6, restricting the capture of French produce in neutral vessels to cases in which that produce belonged to Frenchmen, or the vessel was bound for France; also, that no confiscations were to take place under the first order. This allayed the bitterness of feeling in the United States against Great Britain.

“Orders” and “Decrees.” In 1803 England joined the Continental powers against Napoleon. England, offended because of the seizure of Hanover by the Prussians, at the instigation of Napoleon, made the act a pretext, in 1806, for employing against France a measure calculated to starve the empire. By Orders in Council (May 16) the whole coast of Europe from the Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, a distance of about eight hundred miles, was declared to be in a state of blockade, when, at the same time, the British navy could not spare vessels enough from other fields of service to enforce the blockade over a third of the prescribed coast. It was essentially a “paper blockade.” The almost entire destruction of the French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar, a few months before, had annihilated her rivals in the contest for the sovereignty of the seas, and she now resolved to control the trade of the world. Napoleon had dissolved the German empire, prostrated Prussia at his feet, and, from the “Imperial Camp at Berlin,” he issued (Nov. 21, 1806) the famous decree in which he declared the British Islands in a state of blockade; forbade all correspondence or trade with England; defined all articles of English manufacture or produce as contraband, and the property of all British subjects as lawful prize of war. He had scarcely a ship afloat when he made this decree. This was the beginning of what was afterwards called “the Continental System,” commenced avowedly as a retaliatory measure, and designed, primarily, to injure, and, if possible, to destroy, the property of England. By another Order in Council (January, 1807) Great Britain restrained neutrals from engaging in the coasting-trade between one hostile port and another, a commerce hitherto allowed, with some slight exceptions. This was but the extension to all hostile ports of the blockade of the coast from the Elbe to Brest established by a former order. On Nov. 17, 1807, another British Order in Council was issued, which prohibited all neutral trade with France or her allies, unless through Great Britain. In retaliation for these orders Napoleon promulgated, Dec. 17, 1807, from his “Palace at Milan,” a decree which extended and made more vigorous that issued at Berlin. It declared every vessel which should submit to be searched by British cruisers, or should pay any tax, duty, or license-money to the British government, or should be found on the high seas or elsewhere bound to or from any British port, denationalized and forfeit. With their usual servility to the dictates of the conqueror, Spain and Holland issued similar decrees. So these two great powers—traditionary and implacable enemies for a thousand years—in their unscrupulous game for power, played with the commerce of the world as with a shuttlecock.

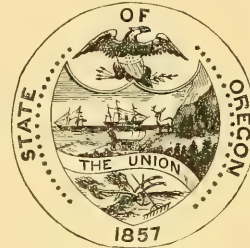
Ordinances of Secession were passed in eleven states of the Union in the following order: South Carolina, Dec. 20, 1860; Mississippi, Jan. 9, 1861; Florida, Jan. 10; Alabama, Jan. 11; Georgia, Jan. 19; Louisiana, Jan. 26; Texas, Feb. 1; Virginia, April 17; Arkansas, May 6; North

Carolina, May 20, and Tennessee, June 8. Only one of these ordinances was ever submitted to the people for their consideration. They were the work wholly of politicians in these several states.

Oregon. The history of this state properly begins with the discovery of the mouth of the Columbia River by Captain Gray, of Boston, in the ship *Columbia*, May 7, 1792, who gave the name of his vessel to that river. His report caused President Jefferson to send the explorers, Lewis and Clarke (which see) across the continent to the Pacific (1804-6). In 1811 John J. Astor and others established a fur-trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River, and called it Astoria. In 1833 emigration to that region, over-

land, began, and, in 1850, many thousands had reached Oregon; but very soon many of the settlers were drawn to California by the gold excitement there. To encourage emigration the Congress, in 1850, passed the “donation law,” giving to every man who

should settle on land there before Dec. 1 of that year three hundred and twenty acres of land, and to his wife a like number of acres; also, to every man and his wife who should settle on such land between Dec. 1, 1850, and Dec. 1, 1853, one hundred and sixty acres of land each. Under this law eight thousand claims were registered in Oregon. In 1841 the first attempt to organize a government was made. In 1843 an executive and legislative committee was established; and in 1845 the legislative committee framed an organic law which the settlers approved, and this formed the basis of a provisional government until 1848, when Congress created the Territory of Oregon, which comprised all of the United States territory west of the summit of the Rocky Mountains and north of the forty-second parallel. The territorial government went into operation on March 3, 1849, with Joseph Lane as governor. In 1853 Washington Territory was organized, and took from Oregon all its domain north of the Columbia River. In 1857 a convention framed a state constitution for Oregon, which was ratified in November, that year, by the people. By act of Feb. 14, 1859, Oregon was admitted into the Union as a state, with its present limits. Many Indian wars have troubled Oregon, the last one of importance, the Modoc war, 1872-73. (See *Modocs, Troubles with the.*) Population in 1890, 313,710.



STATE SEAL OF OREGON.

Oregon, BRITISH CLAIMS IN. The vast territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean had been for some time the subject of serious dispute between the United States and Great Britain when James K. Polk became President, and it demanded his early attention. In 1792 Captain Gray, of Boston, in the ship *Co-*

Columbia, entered the mouth of the great river on the Pacific slope that bears that name; and the stream was explored by Lewis and Clarke (which see) in 1804-5. So early as 1811 John Jacob Astor established a fur-trading station at the mouth of the Columbia River. The British doctrine, always practised and enforced by them, that the entrance of a vessel of a civilized nation, for the first time, into the mouth of a river, gives title, by right of discovery, to the territory drained by that river and its tributaries, clearly gave to the Americans the domain to the latitude of 54° 40' north, for the discovery of the Columbia River by Captain Gray, in 1792, was not disputed. In 1818 it was mutually agreed that each nation should equally enjoy the privileges of all the bays and harbors on that coast for ten years. This agreement was renewed, in 1827, for an indefinite time, with the stipulation that either party might rescind it by giving the other party twelve months' notice. This notice was given by the United States in 1846, and also a proposition to adjust the question by making the boundary on the parallel of 49°. This was rejected by the British, who claimed the whole of Oregon. The President then directed the proposition of compromise to be withdrawn, and the title of the United States to the whole territory of 54° 40' north latitude to be asserted. The question at one time threatened war between the two nations, but it was finally settled by a treaty negotiated at Washington, June 15, 1846, by James Buchanan on the part of the United States and Mr. Pakenham for Great Britain, by which the boundary-line was fixed at 49° north latitude.

O'RIELLY, HENRY, one of the most active and public-spirited citizens, was born in Carriekmacross, Province of Ulster, Ireland, Feb. 6, 1806. His father (a merchant) emigrated to America in 1816, and soon afterwards this son was apprenticed to the publisher of the *New York Columbian* (newspaper) to learn the art of printing. The *Columbian* was a staunch advocate of the Erie Canal, and a political supporter of De Witt Clinton as its able champion. The mind of the apprentice was thus early impressed with the importance of measures for the development of the vast resources of the United States—a subject which has inspired much of his activity and zeal in the promotion of public improvements. At the age of seventeen years he became assistant editor of the *New York Patriot*, the organ of the "People's party," which elected De Witt Clinton governor of the State of New York in 1824. When, in 1826, Luther Tucker & Co. established the *Rochester Daily Advertiser*—the first daily newspaper published between the Hudson River and the Pacific Ocean—young O'RIELLY, then not twenty-one years of age, was chosen to be its editor. It was a period of great political and social excitement, especially in central New York (see *Anti-Masonic Party*), and, after four years of arduous labor, O'RIELLY retired for rest. He resumed his editorial labors there in 1831, and became an active leader in all public enterprises. In 1834, as chairman of the Executive Committee of Rochester on

Canal Affairs, he wrote the first memorial presented to the Legislature and the Canal Board, in favor of rebuilding the failing structures of the Erie Canal. He then proposed a judicious plan for the enlargement of the canal, which, if it had been adopted, might have saved the state millions of dollars. He was a zealous advocate of such enlargement, and he was chairman of the first State Executive Committee appointed by the first Canal Enlargement Association in 1837. In that capacity he served many years with great efficiency. In 1838 he was appointed postmaster of Rochester. At the same time his never-wearying pen prepared pamphlets and newspaper essays, filled with cogent arguments in favor of reform in the methods of popular education. In these efforts he was ably seconded by the venerable James Wadsworth, of Genesee; and their joint labors led to the legislation that fashioned the present common-school system of the State of New York. Mr. O'RIELLY earnestly advocated the introduction of works on agriculture into the school-district libraries of the state, and his wise suggestions in his reports as secretary of the State Agricultural Society, almost forty years ago, have been practically carried out in the establishment of state agricultural colleges in every commonwealth in the Union. He was the originator of the "State Constitutional Association," which was the means of bringing about the reforms in the constitution of the State of New York in 1846. He was also the originator, at about the same time, of a project for the establishment of a private telegraph system for a range of about eight thousand miles in length, connecting all sections of the United States east of the Mississippi River. For this purpose he secured the right to the use of all the telegraph patents which had then been granted. In 1853 Mr. O'RIELLY was engaged by the State of Iowa to improve the navigation of the Des Moines River, but circumstances caused a suspension of the work. A few years later the railroad interest in the State of New York took an attitude decidedly hostile to the great Erie Canal, a powerful commercial rival. That interest conspired to destroy its credit and to make the people believe that it was the source of burdensome taxation. The completion of its enlargement was opposed, and a scheme was devised for controlling legislation so as to deprive the people of this great property by its sale to the highest bidder. In the fall of 1859 Mr. O'RIELLY sent forth a stirring address to the people of the state on the subject. They were aroused. The "Clinton League" was formed, with Mr. O'RIELLY as chairman, and, by their untiring efforts, this scheme, which, if carried out, would have disgraced the commonwealth, was frustrated. When the late Civil War broke out he was one of the most active promoters of measures for the preservation of the Union, and was secretary of the "Society for Promoting the Enlistment of Colored Troops." He originated, in 1867, an organized movement for reforming and cheapening the operations of the railroad system of the United States. About 1838 Mr. O'RIELLY prepared

and published a volume of five hundred pages entitled *Sketches of Rochester, with Incidental Notices of Western New York*. It was the first work of its kind ever published in the interior of the continent. He has deposited with the New York Historical Society, of which he has now (1887) been a member over forty years, almost two hundred volumes, partly in manuscript and partly in print, containing well-arranged documents and other papers relating to the history of important public events in which he has participated. These form authentic materials of inestimable value, especially to the future historian of the early operations of the canal and telegraph systems of the United States.

Origin of the Names of the States. (See *States, Origin of the Names of*.)

Oriskany, BATTLE OF. Braut, the Mohawk chief, came from Canada in the spring of 1777, and in June was at the head of a band of Indian marauders on the upper waters of the Susquehanna. Brigadier-general Nicholas Herkimer was at the head of the Tryon County militia, and was instructed by General Schuyler to watch and check the movements of the Mohawk chief, whose presence had put an end to the neutrality of his tribe and of other portions of the Six Nations. Hearing of the siege of Fort Schuyler by Colonel St. Leger (Aug. 3), Herkimer gathered a goodly number of Tryon County militia, and marched to the relief of the garrison. He and his little army were marching in fancied security on the morning of Aug. 6 at Oriskany, a few miles west of (the present) Utica, when Tories and Indians from St. Leger's camp, lying in ambush, fell upon the patriots at all points with great fury. Herkimer's rear-guard broke and fled; the remainder bravely

newed with greater vigor, when the Indians, hearing the sound of firing in the direction of Fort Schuyler (see *Fort Schuyler, Siege of*), fled to the deep woods in alarm, and were soon followed by the Tories and Canadians. The patriots remained masters of the field, and their brave commander was removed to his home, where he died from loss of blood, owing to unskilful surgery. (See *Herkimer, Nicholas*.)

Orleans, TERRITORY OF. Louisiana, by act of Congress, was divided into two territories, the southern one being called Orleans Territory. The line between them was drawn along the thirty-third parallel of north latitude. This territory then possessed a population of fifty thousand souls, of whom more than half were negro slaves. Refugee planters from Santo Domingo had introduced the sugar-cane into that region, and the cultivation of cotton was beginning to be successful. So large were the products of these industries that the planters enjoyed immense incomes. The white inhabitants were principally French Creoles, descendants of the original French colonists.

Orne, AZOR, was born at Marblehead, Mass., in 1732; died in Boston, June 7, 1796. He was a successful merchant and an active patriot, a member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress, and long one of the Committee of Safety. In organizing the militia, and in collecting arms and ammunition, he was very active. In January, 1776, he was appointed one of the three Massachusetts major-generals, but did not take the field. For many years he was a member of the State Senate and Council of Massachusetts, and was a zealous advocate of education.

Orphan Asylum. The second orphan-house in the United States was the "Charleston Orphan Asylum," chartered in 1790. In 1807 the "Orphan Asylum Society of the City of New York," and "St. Stephen's Female Orphan Asylum," of Philadelphia, were chartered. The former owes its origin to Joanna Bethune, and was organized in 1806. For twenty years afterwards no other orphan asylums were established in our country. One was founded at Annapolis, Md., in 1828, and since 1840 they have rapidly increased. In 1876 their number was a little over four hundred. Besides these there are homes for the friendless, juvenile asylums, industrial schools, refuges for the tempted, and in 1853 a "Children's Aid Society" was established in the city of New York, which is doing a vast amount of good. (See *Whitefield's Orphan-house*.)

ORR, JAMES LAWRENCE, was born at Craytonville, S. C., May 12, 1822; died in St. Petersburg, May 5, 1873. He graduated at the University of Virginia in 1842, became a lawyer at Anderson, S. C., and edited a newspaper there in 1843. After serving in the State Legislature, he became a member of Congress in 1849, and remained such by re-election until 1859. He was speaker of the Thirty-fifth Congress. In the South Carolina Convention (Dec. 20, 1860) he voted for secession, and was appointed one of three commissioners to treat with the national government for the surrender of the United



GENERAL HERKIMER'S RESIDENCE.

sustained a severe conflict for more than an hour. General Herkimer had a horse shot dead under him, and the bullet that killed the animal shattered his own leg below the knee. Sitting on his saddle at the foot of a beech-tree, he continued to give orders. A thunder-shower caused a lull in the fight, and then it was re-

States forts in Charleston harbor to the Confederates. He was a Confederate senator from 1862 to 1865, and provisional governor of South Carolina from 1866 to 1868, under the appointment of the President. He afterwards acted with the Republican party, and in 1870 was made judge of the United States Circuit Court. In 1873 he was appointed United States minister to Russia, and died soon after his arrival there.

Orthodoxy Enforced in Massachusetts. In 1651 Roger Williams and John Clarke were appointed agents to seek in England a confirmation of the Rhode Island charter. Before their departure, Mr. Clarke, with Mr. Crandall and Obadiah Holmes, delegates from the Baptist Church at Newport, visited an aged Baptist brother at Lynn, Mass., who was too feeble to attend public worship. On a Sunday morning they ventured to give a public exhortation at the house of the aged brother. For this they were arrested, and carried by force in the afternoon to hear the regular Congregational preacher (Thomas Cobbett, author of "a large, nervous, and golden discourse" against the Baptists). The next day they were sent to Boston, where Clarke was sentenced to pay a fine of \$100, or be whipped. One charge against him was that he neglected to take off his hat when he was forced into the Congregational meeting-house at Lynn. In a sermon just before Clarke's trial, Rev. John Cotton declared that to deny the efficacy of infant baptism was "to overthrow all," and was "soul murder"—a capital offence. So Endicott held in passing sentence upon the prisoner. He charged Clarke with preaching to the weak and ignorant, and bade him "try and dispute with our ministers." Clarke accepted the challenge, and sent word to the Massachusetts ministers that he would prove to them that the ordinance of baptism—that is, dipping in water—was to be administered only to those who gave evidence of repentance and faith; and that only such visible believers constituted the Church of Christ on the earth. The ministers evaded the trial. Some of Clarke's friends paid his fine, and he was released. Crandall, fined \$25, was released at the same time; but Holmes, a recent convert to Anabaptism, and lately excommunicated, who was fined \$150, had more of the martyr spirit, and went to the whipping-post. As he left the bar the pastor (John Wilson) struck him and cursed him because he said, "I bless God I am counted worthy to suffer for the name of Jesus." Some friends offered to pay Holmes's fine, but he declined it, and was taken to the public whipping-post, where he was scourged with a three-corded whip, with which a stout man gave him thirty stripes most vigorously, "the man spitting on his hands three times." When led away, Holmes said to the magistrates, "You have struck me with roses," and prayed the punishment might not be laid to their charge. Two sympathizing friends came up to the bleeding victim of bigotry and intolerance, and, shaking hands with him, said, "Blessed be God." They were arrested for "contempt of authority," fined forty shillings each, and imprisoned. Holmes returned to Newport, and

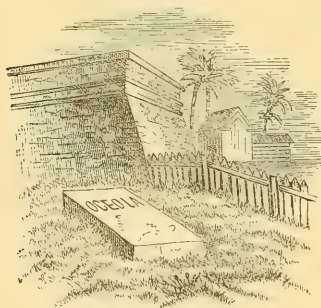
lived to old age; and in 1790 his descendants were computed at not less than five thousand. Not long afterwards Sir Richard Saltonstall, one of the founders of the Massachusetts colony, wrote from England to Cotton and Wilson, ministers in Boston, saying, "It doth not a little grieve my spirit to hear what sad things are reported daily of your tyranny and persecution in New England, as that you fine, whip, and imprison men for their consciences. First you compel such to come into your assemblies as you know will not join you in your worship, and when they show their dislike thereof, or witness against it, then you stir up your magistrates to punish them for such as you conceive their public offences. Truly, friends, this your practice of compelling any, in matters of worship, to do that whereof they are not fully persuaded is to make them sin, for so the apostle (Rom. xiv., 23) tells us; and many are made hypocrites thereby, conforming in their outward man for fear of punishment. . . . These rigid ways have laid you very low in the hearts of the saints."

Ortiz, JUAN, AND A CHIEF'S DAUGHTER. Soon after De Soto entered Florida he was met by a Spaniard who was a captive among the Indians. He had been captured when on the expedition with Narvaez (which see), and preparations had been made to sacrifice him. He was bound hand and foot and laid upon a scaffold, under which a fire was kindled to roast him alive. The flames were about reaching the flesh of the poor young man when a daughter of Ucita, the chief, besought her father to spare his life, saying, "If he can do no good, he can do no harm." Though greatly incensed by the conduct of the Spaniards, Ucita granted the petition of his daughter, and Ortiz was lifted from the scaffold, and thenceforth was the slave of the chief. Three years later Ucita was defeated in battle; and, believing that the sparing of Ortiz had brought the misfortune upon him, resolved to sacrifice the young Spaniard. The daughter of Ucita again saved his life. She led him at night beyond the bounds of her father's village, and directed him to the camp of the chief who had defeated Ucita, knowing that he would protect the Christian. When, years afterwards, he was with some hostile Indians fighting De Soto, and a horseman was about to slay him, he cried out, "Don't kill me, I am a Christian; nor these people, they are my friends." The astonished Castilians stayed their firing, and Ortiz became of great use to De Soto as an interpreter.

Osage Indians, TREATY WITH THE. In 1825 a treaty was made at St. Louis by General William Clark with the Great and Little Osage Indians for all their lands in Arkansas and elsewhere. These lands were ceded to the United States in consideration of an annual payment of \$7000 for twenty years, and an immediate contribution of 600 head of cattle, 600 hogs, 1000 fowls, 10 yoke of oxen, 6 carts, with farming utensils, and other provisions similar to those in the treaty with the Kansas Indians (which see). It was also agreed to provide a fund for the support of schools for the benefit of the Osage chil-

dren. Provision was also made for a missionary establishment; also for the United States to assume the payment of certain debts due from Osage chiefs to those of other tribes, and to deliver to the Osage villages, as soon as possible, \$4000 in merchandise and \$2600 in horses and their equipments. This treaty was concluded June 2, 1825.

Osceola (As-se-se-he-ho-lar, or Black Drink) was born on the Chattahoochee River, Ga., in 1804; died at Fort Moultrie, S. C., Jan. 30, 1838. He was a half-breed, a son of Willis Powell, an Englishman and trader, by a Creek Indian woman. In 1808 his mother settled in Florida, and when he grew up he became by eminent ability the governing spirit of the Seminoles. In all their sports he was foremost, and was always independent and self-possessed. From the beginning Osceola opposed the removal of the Seminoles from Florida, and he led them in a war which began in 1835, and continued about seven years. (See *Seminole War, The Second*.) Treacherously seized while under the protection of a flag of truce (Oct. 22, 1837), he was sent to Fort Moultrie, where he was prostrated by grief and wasted by a fever, and finally died in his prison. A monument was erected to his memory



OSCEOLA'S GRAVE.

near the main entrance-gate of Fort Moultrie. His loss was a severe blow to the Seminoles, who continued the war feebly four or five years longer.

Osgood, HELEN LOUISE (Gibson), philanthropist, was born in Boston about 1835; died at Newton Centre, Mass., April 20, 1868. Left an orphan, she was well educated by her guardian (F. B. Fay, of Chelsea), and was endowed with talents for music and conversation. She was among the first to organize soldiers' aid societies when the Civil War began, and provided work for the wives and daughters of soldiers who needed employment. Early in 1862 she went to the army as a nurse, where her gentleness of manner and executive ability made her eminently successful. She administered relief and consolation to thousands of the severely wounded, and she organized and conducted for many months a hospital for one thousand patients of the sick and wounded of the colored soldiers of the Army of the Potomac. In 1866 she was married to Mr. Osgood, a fellow-laborer among the soldiers, but her constitution had

been overtasked, and she died a martyr to the great cause.

Osgood, SAMUEL, was born at Andover, Mass., Feb. 14, 1748; died in New York, Aug. 12, 1813. He graduated at Harvard University in 1770, studied theology, and became a merchant. An active patriot, he was a member of the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts and of various committees; was a captain at Cambridge in 1775, an aid to General Artemas Ward, and became a member of the Massachusetts Board of War. He left the army in 1776 with the rank of colonel, and served in his provincial and state Legislature. He was a member of Congress from 1780 to 1784; first commissioner of the United States treasury from 1785 to 1789, and United States Postmaster-general from 1789 to 1791. He afterwards served in the New York Legislature, and was speaker of the Assembly from 1801 to 1803. From 1803 until his death he was naval officer of the port of New York. Mr. Osgood was well versed in science and literature, and his character was above reproach.

Ostend Manifesto or Circular. In July, 1853, the Secretary of State (Mr. Marcy) wrote to Mr. Soulé, American minister at Madrid, directing him to urge upon the Spanish government the sale or cession of Cuba to the United States. Nothing more was done until after the affair of the *Black Warrior* (which see) in the winter of 1854. In April, 1854, Mr. Soulé was instructed and clothed with full power to negotiate for the purchase of the island. In August the Secretary suggested to Minister Buchanan in London, Minister Mason at Paris, and Minister Soulé at Madrid, the propriety of holding a conference for the purpose of adopting measures for a concert of action in aid of negotiations with Spain. They accordingly met at Ostend, a seaport town in Belgium, Oct. 9, 1854. After a session of three days they adjourned to Aix-la-Chapelle, in Rhenish Prussia, and thence they addressed a letter (Oct. 18) to the United States government embodying their views. In it they suggested that an earnest effort to purchase Cuba ought to be immediately made at a price not to exceed \$120,000,000, and that the proposal should be laid before the Spanish Cortes about to assemble. They set forth the great advantage that such a transfer of political jurisdiction would be to all parties concerned; that the oppression of the Spanish authorities in Cuba would inevitably lead to insurrection and civil war; and, in conclusion, recommended that in the event of the absolute refusal of Spain to sell the island, it would be proper to take it away from its "oppressors" by force. In that event, the ministers said, "we should be justified by every law, human and divine, in wresting it from Spain, if we possess the power." This proposition exhibited the ethics of the mailed hand—might makes right. The bald iniquity of the proposition amazed honest men in both hemispheres. Why it should have been unrebuked by the government at Washington was a question that was answered by subsequent events. The *Ostend Circular* will ever re-

man a blot upon the escutcheon of the nation. President Pierce did not think it prudent to act upon the advice of these ministers, and Mr. Soulé, dissatisfied with his prudence, resigned his office and returned home.

Osterhaus, PETER JOSEPH, was born in Prussia, and served as an officer in its army. He came to America, and settled in St. Louis, Mo., where he entered the service in 1861 as major of volunteers. He served under Lyon and Frémont in Missouri, commanding a brigade under the latter. He commanded a division in the battle of Pea Ridge, and greatly distinguished himself. In June, 1862, he was made brigadier-general, and, commanding a division, he helped to capture Arkansas late in January, 1863. He was in the campaign against Vicksburg and in northern Georgia, and in 1864 he was in the Atlanta campaign. In command of the Fifteenth Corps, he was with Sherman in his march through Georgia and South Carolina. In July, 1864, he was made major-general, and in 1865 he was Canby's chief-of-staff at the surrender of Kirby Smith. (See *Smith, E. Kirby.*)

Oswald, ELEAZAR, was born in England about 1755; died in New York, Oct. 1, 1795, of yellow-fever. He came to America in 1770 or 1771; served under Arnold in the expedition against Ticonderoga and became his secretary; and at the siege of Quebec he commanded with great skill the forlorn hope after Arnold was wounded. In 1777 he was made lieutenant-colonel of Lamb's artillery regiment, and for his bravery at the battle of Monmouth General Knox highly praised him. Soon after that battle he left the service and engaged in the printing and publishing business in Philadelphia, where he was made public printer. Oswald challenged General Hamilton to fight a duel in 1789, but the quarrel was adjusted. In business in England in 1792, he went to France, joined the French army, and commanded a regiment of artillery.

Oswegatchie (Ogdensburg), INDIAN MISSION AT. To insure the friendship of the Six Nations, Galissonière, Governor of Canada, proceeded in 1754 to establish an Indian mission

the mouth of the Oswegatchie for the station, on the site of Ogdensburg, where he hoped to draw in so many Iroquois converts as would bind all their kindred to the French alliance. By order of General Brown a redoubt was begun in 1812 at the site of old Fort Presentation, which was not finished when Ogdensburg was attacked the second time by the British in 1813.

Oswego, BRITISH ATTACK UPON (1814). During the winter and spring the Americans and British had been preparing to make a struggle for the mastery of Lake Ontario. When the ice in Kingston harbor permitted vessels to leave it, Sir James L. Yeo, commander of the British squadron in those waters, went out upon the lake with his force of about three thousand land-troops and marines. On May 5, 1814, he appeared off Oswego harbor, which was defended by Fort Ontario, on a bluff on the east side of the river, with a garrison of about three hundred men under Lieutenant-colonel George E. Mitchell. Chauncey, not feeling strong enough to oppose Yeo, prudently remained with his squadron at Sackett's Harbor. The active cruising force of Sir James consisted of eight vessels, carrying an aggregate of two hundred and twenty-two pieces of ordnance. To oppose these at Oswego was the schooner *Growler*, Captain Woolsey. She was in the river for the purpose of conveying guns and naval stores to Sackett's Harbor. To prevent her falling into the hands of the British, she was sunk, and a part of her crew, under Lieutenant Pearce, joined the garrison at the fort. The latter then mounted only six old guns, three of which were almost useless, because they had lost their trunnions. Mitchell's force was too small to defend both the fort and the village, on the west side of the river, so he pitched all his tents near the town and gathered his whole force into the fort. Deceived by the appearance of military strength at the village, the British proceeded to attack the fort, leaving the defenceless town unmolested. The land-troops, in fifteen large boats, covered by the guns of the vessels, moved to the shore near the fort early in the afternoon. They were repulsed by a heavy cannon placed

near the shore. The next day (May 6) the fleet again appeared, and the larger vessels of the squadron opened fire on the fort. The troops landed in the afternoon, and, after a sharp fight in the open field, the garrison retired, and the British took possession of the fort. The main object of the British was the seizure of naval stores at the falls of the Oswego River (now Ful-



APPEARANCE OF FORT OSWEGATCHIE IN 1812.

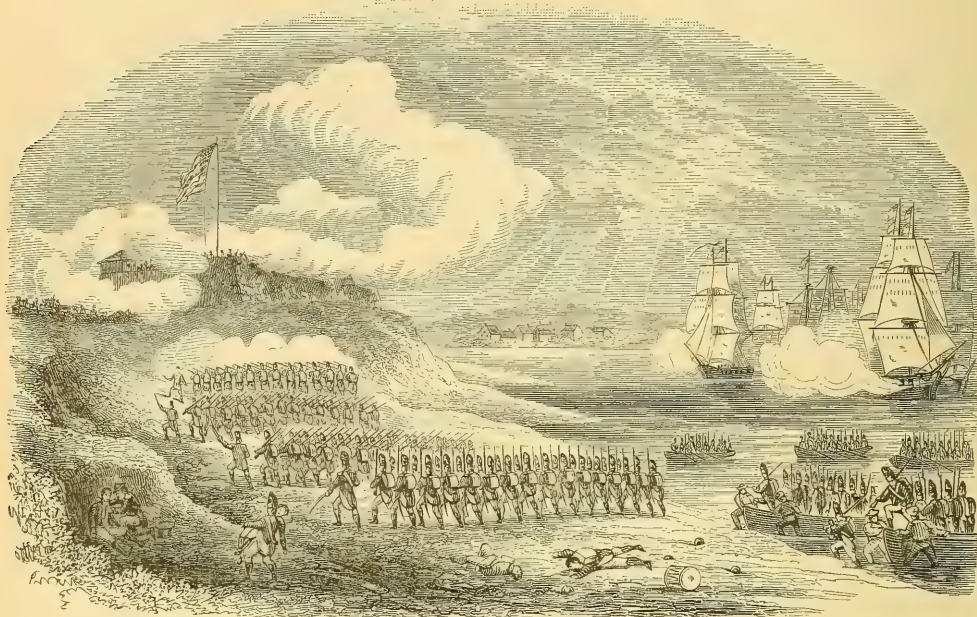
on the southern bank of the St. Lawrence. For this work the Abbé Francis Piquet (see *Saravoga, Attack upon*) was chosen, and he selected

ton), and Mitchell, after leaving the fort, took position up the river for their defence. Early on the morning of the 7th the invaders with-

drew, after having embarked the guns and a few stores found at Oswego, dismantled the fort, and burned the barracks. They also raised and carried away the *Growler*; also several citizens who had been promised protection and exemption from molestation. In this affair the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, sixty-

this act induced the Six Nations to take a position of neutrality. The capture of this fort caused the English commander-in-chief to abandon all the expeditions planned for the campaign of 1756.

Oswego, TRADING-HOUSE AT. Governor Burnett, of New York, wisely concluding that it would

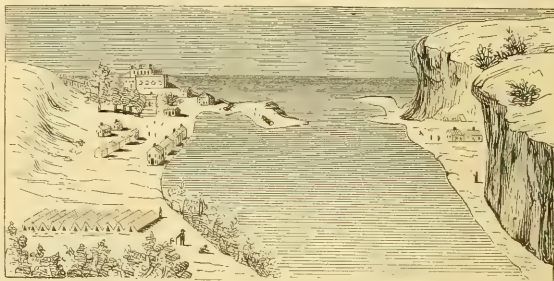


ATTACK ON OSWEGO. (From an old print.)

nine men; the British lost nineteen killed and seventy-five wounded.

Oswego, CAPTURE OF (1756). Dieskau had been succeeded by the Marquis de Montcalm, an energetic French officer, who, perceiving the delay of the English at Albany and their weakness through sickness and lack of provisions (of which he was informed by spies), collected about five thousand Frenchmen, Canadians, and Indians at Frontenac (now Kingston), at the foot of Lake Ontario, crossed that lake, and appeared before Oswego in force on Aug. 11, 1756. He attacked Fort Ontario, on the east side of the river, commanded by Colonel Mercer, who, with the garrison, after a short but brave resistance, withdrew to an older fort on the west side of the stream. The English were soon compelled to surrender the fort. Their commander was killed, and on the 14th Montcalm received, as spoils of victory, fourteen hundred prisoners, a large quantity of ammunition and provisions and other stores, one hundred and thirty-four pieces of artillery, and several vessels lying in the harbor. The Six Nations had never been well satisfied with the building of these forts by the English in the heart of their territory. To please them, Montcalm demolished the forts, and by

be important for the English to get and maintain control of Lake Ontario—as well for the benefits of trade and the security of the friendship of the Six Nations (which see) as to frustrate the designs of the French to confine the English colonies to narrow limits—began to erect a trading-house at Oswego in 1722. This pleased the Indians, for they saw in the movement a promise of protection from incursions



OSWEGO IN 1755.

of the French. Soon afterwards, at a convention of governors and commissioners held at Albany, the Six Nations renounced their covenant of friendship with the English.

Otis and his Misfortunes. Because of some severe strictures on the conduct of crown offi-

cers in Boston, made by James Otis in a newspaper, a custom-house officer named Robinson made a personal attack upon the writer, and, by a blow on his head with a cane, the intellect of Otis was seriously deranged. He was partially insane at times, and unthinking men and boys often made themselves merry in the street at his expense. It was sad to see the great orator and statesman so shattered and exposed. His ready use of Latin was illustrated one day, when, passing a crockery-store, a young man familiar with the language, standing in a door of the second story, sprinkled some water upon Otis from a watering-pot he was using, saying, "*Pluit tantum, nescio quantum. Scis ne tu?*"—"It rains so much; I know not how much. Do you know?" Otis immediately picked up a large stone and hurled it through the window, smashing many of the wares in the store, and exclaimed, "*Fregi tot, nescio quot. Scis ne tu?*"—"I have broken so many; I know not how many. Do you know?"

Otis and Writs of Assistance. James Otis was one of the most powerful and persistent opponents of the schemes of the British Parliament for taxing the American colonies. He denounced the Writs of Assistance (which see) in unmeasured terms. At a town-meeting in Boston in 1761, when this government measure was discussed by Mr. Gridley, the calm advocate of the crown, and the equally calm lawyer Oxenbridge Thacher, the fiery James Otis, one of Gridley's pupils, addressed the multitude with words that thrilled every heart in the audience and stirred every patriotic feeling of his hearers into earnest action. Referring to the arbitrary power of the Writ, he said, "A man's house is his castle; and while he is quiet, he is as well guarded as a prince in his castle. This writ, if it shall be declared legal, would totally annihilate this privilege. Custom-house officers may enter our houses when they please; we are commanded to permit their entry. Their menial servants may enter—may break locks, bars, everything in their way; and whether they break through malice or revenge no man, no court, may inquire. . . . I am determined to sacrifice estate, ease, health, applause, and even life, to the sacred calls of my country, in opposition to a kind of power the exercise of which cost one king his head and another his throne." (See *Writs of Assistance*.)

Otis, HARRISON GRAY, was born in Boston, Oct. 8, 1765; died there, Oct. 28, 1848. He graduated at Harvard University in 1783, and was admitted to the bar in 1786, where his fine oratory and varied acquirements soon gained him much fame. In Shays's insurrection (which see) he was aid to Governor Brooks; served in the Massachusetts Legislature; was member of Congress from 1797 to 1801; United States District-attorney in 1801; speaker of the Assembly from 1803 to 1805; president of the State Senate from 1805 to 1811; Judge of Common Pleas from 1814 to 1818; and Mayor of Boston from 1829 to 1832. In 1814 he was a prominent member of the Hartford Convention (which see),

and wrote a series of letters upon it. In 1804 he pronounced an eloquent eulogy of General Hamilton. Many of his occasional addresses have been published. His father was Samuel Alleyne Otis, brother of James.

Otis, JAMES, was born at West Barnstable, Mass., Feb. 5, 1725; died at Andover, Mass., May 23, 1783. He graduated at Harvard University in 1743, and studied law with J. Gridley. He began the practice of his profession at Plymouth, but settled in Boston in 1750, where he soon obtained a high rank as a lawyer and an advocate at the bar. He married Miss Ruth Cunningham in 1755. Fond of literary pursuits, and a thorough classical scholar (see *Otis and his Misfortunes*), he wrote and published *Rudiments of Latin Prosody*. He entered public life as a zealous patriot and gifted orator when the Writs of Assistance (which see) called forth popular discussion in 1761. The same year he was chosen a representative in the Massachusetts Assembly, and therein became a leader of the popular party. In 1764 he published a pamphlet entitled *The Rights of the Colonies Vindicated*, which attracted great attention in England for its finished diction and masterly arguments. Otis proposed (June 6, 1765) the calling of a congress of delegates to consider the Stamp Act. He was chosen a delegate, and was one of the committee to prepare an address to the Commons of England. (See *Stamp Act Congress*.) Governor Bernard feared the fiery orator, and when Otis was elected speaker of the Assembly the governor negatived it. But he could not silence Otis. When the ministry required the Legislature to rescind its Circular Letter to the colonies, requesting them to unite in measures for redress (see *Circular Letter of Massachusetts*), Otis made a speech which his adversaries said was "the most violent, abusive, and treasonable declaration that perhaps was ever uttered." He carried the House with him, and it refused to rescind by a vote of ninety-two to seventeen. (See *Rescindors*.) In the summer of 1769 he published an article in the *Boston Gazette* which greatly exasperated the custom-house officers. He was attacked by one of them (Sept. 9), who struck him on the head with a cane, producing a severe wound and causing a derangement of the brain, manifested at times ever afterwards. Otis obtained a verdict against the inflicter of the wound (Robinson) for \$5000, which he gave up on receiving a written apology. In 1777 Otis withdrew to the country on account of ill-health. He was called into public life again, but was unable to perform the duties; and finally, when the war for independence (which his trumpet-voice had heralded) had closed, he attempted to resume the practice of his profession. But his death was nigh. He had often expressed a wish that his death might be by a stroke of lightning. Standing in his door at Andover during a thunder-shower, he was instantly killed by a lightning-stroke.

Ottawas, THE, a tribe of the Algonquin family, were seated on the northern part of the Mich

igan peninsula when discovered by the French. When the Iroquois overthrew the Hurons in 1649 the frightened Ottawas fled to the islands in Green Bay, and soon afterwards joined the Sioux beyond the Mississippi. They were speedily expelled, when they recrossed the great river; and after the French settled at Detroit a part of the Ottawas became seated near them. Meanwhile the Jesuits had established missions among them. Finally the part of the nation that was at Mackinaw passed over to Michigan; and in the war that resulted in the conquest of Canada the Ottawas joined the French. Pontiac, who was at the head of the Detroit family, engaged in a great conspiracy in 1763 (see *Pontiac*), but was not joined by those in the north of the peninsula. At that time the whole tribe numbered about fifteen hundred. In the Revolution and subsequent hostilities they were opposed to the Americans, but finally made a treaty of peace at Greenville in 1795, when one band settled on the Miami River. In conjunction with other tribes, they ceded their lands around Lake Michigan to the United States in 1833 in exchange for lands in Missouri, where they flourished for a time. After suffering much trouble, this emigrant band obtained a reservation in the Indian territory, to which the remnant of this portion of the family emigrated in 1870. The Upper Michigan Ottawas remain in the North, in the vicinity of the Great Lakes. There are some in Canada, mingled with other Indians. Roman Catholic and Protestant missions have been established among them. Their own simple religion embraces a belief in a good and evil spirit.

Ouatanon, FORT, was on the Wabash, just below (present) Lafayette, Ind. At eight o'clock at night, May 31, 1763, a war-belt reached the Indian village near the fort. The next morning (June 1) the commandant was lured into an Indian cabin and bound with cords. On hearing of this his garrison surrendered. The French living near saved the lives of the men by kindly giving wampum to the captors and receiving the Englishmen into their houses. (See *Pontiac's War*.)

Outlook, THE, AT THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR 1812. The reverses that had befallen the American army spread a gloom over the minds of the people, justified the warnings of the opposition who prophesied disaster, and increased the activity and machinations of the unpatriotic Peace party (which see). But before the close of the year the brilliant exploits of the little American navy dispelled the brooding gloom that hung over the people and filled them with joy and confidence. These justified the judgment of the Federalists, who always favored measures for increasing the navy, and the opposition of the Democrats to it ceased. These naval victories astounded the British public. The lion was bearded in his den. The claims of Great Britain to the mastery of the seas were vehemently and practically disputed. Nor were the naval triumphs of the Americans confined to the national vessels. Privateers swarmed on

the oceans in the summer and autumn of 1812, and were making prizes in every direction. Accounts of their exploits filled the newspapers and helped to swell the tide of joy throughout the Union. It is estimated that during the last six months of the year 1812 more than fifty armed British vessels and two hundred and fifty merchantmen, with an aggregate of over three thousand prisoners and a vast amount of booty, were captured by the Americans. The British newspapers raved and uttered opprobrious epithets. A leading London journal petulantly and vulgarly gave vent to its sentiments by expressing an apprehension that England might be stripped of her maritime supremacy "by a piece of striped bunting flying at the mast-heads of a few fir-built frigates, manned by a handful of bastards and cowards." The position of the American army at the close of 1812 was as follows: The Army of the Northwest, first under Hull, and then under General Harrison, was occupying a defensive position among the snows of the wilderness on the banks of the Maumee River; the Army of the Centre, under General Smyth, was resting on the defensive on the Niagara frontier; and the Army of the North, under General Bloomfield, was also resting on the defensive at Plattsburg, on the western shore of Lake Champlain.

Ovando, NICHOLAS DE, was sent by Queen Isabella to supplant Bobadilla as governor of Santo Domingo in 1501, charged by the queen not to allow the enslavement of the natives, but to protect them as subjects of Spain, and to carefully instruct them in the Christian faith. Ovando sailed for the West Indies Feb. 13, 1502, with thirty-two ships, bearing two thousand five hundred persons to become settlers in that country. By command of the queen, the Spaniards and natives were to pay tithes; none but natives of Castile were to live in the Indies; none to go on discoveries without royal permission; no Jews, Moors, nor new converts were to be tolerated there; and all the property that had been taken from Columbus and his brother was to be restored to them. In Ovando's fleet were ten Franciscan friars, the first of that order who came to settle in the Indies. Ovando, like Bobadilla, treated Columbus with injustice. He was recalled in 1508, and was succeeded in office by Diego Columbus, son of the great admiral.

Owen, ROBERT, an English social reformer, was born at Newtown, North Wales, March 14, 1771; died there, Nov. 19, 1858. At the age of eighteen he was part proprietor of a cotton-mill, and became a proprietor of cotton-mills at Lanark, Scotland, where he introduced reforms. In 1812 he published his *New Views of Society*, etc., and afterwards his *Book of the New Moral World*, in which he maintained a theory of modified communism. Immensely wealthy, he distributed tracts inculcating his views very widely, and soon had a host of followers. In 1823 he came to the United States and bought twenty thousand acres of land—the settlement at New Harmony, Ind.—with dwellings for one thou-

sand persons, where he resolved to found a communist society. This was all done at his own expense. It was an utter failure. He returned in 1827, and tried the same experiment in Great Britain, and afterwards in Mexico, with the same result. Yet he continued during his life to advocate his peculiar social notions as the founder of a system of religion and society according to reason. During his latter years he was a believer in spiritualism, and became convinced of the immortality of the soul. He was the originator of the "labor leagues," from which sprang the Chartist movement.

Owen, ROBERT DALE, son of Robert Owen, an English philanthropist, was born in Glasgow, Nov. 7, 1801, and was educated in Switzerland. He came with his father to America in 1825, settled at New Harmony, in Indiana, and, with Madame D'Arusmont (*née* Frances Wright), edited the *New Harmony Gazette*, afterwards published in New York and called the

Free Inquirer (1825-34). He went back to New Harmony, and was elected, first to the Indiana Legislature, and then to Congress, wherein he served from 1843 to 1847, taking a leading part in settling the Northwestern boundary question. He introduced the bill (1845) organizing the Smithsonian Institution, and became one of its regents. He was a member of the convention that amended the constitution of Indiana in 1850, and secured for the women of that state rights of property. In 1853 he was sent to Naples as chargé d'affaires, and was made minister in 1855. He published, in pamphlet form, a discussion he had with Horace Greeley in 1860 on divorce, and it had a circulation of sixty thousand copies. During the Civil War he wrote much in favor of emancipating the slaves, and pleaded for a thorough union of all the states. Mr. Owen was a firm believer in spiritualism, and wrote much on the subject. He died at Lake George, June 25, 1877.

P.

Paca, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Wye Hall, Harford Co., Md., Oct. 31, 1740; died in 1799. He studied law in London, and began its practice in Annapolis, where he became a warm opponent of the obnoxious measures of Parliament. He was a member of the Committee of Correspondence in 1774, and was a delegate in Congress from 1774 to 1779. He was state senator from 1777 to 1779; chief-justice from 1778 to 1780, and governor from 1782 to 1786. From 1789 until his death he was United States district judge. From his private wealth Mr. Paca gave liberally to the support of the patriot cause.

Pacific Efforts of the Quakers. (See *Friendship Association*.)

Pacific Exploring Expedition. The acquisition of California opened the way for an immense commercial interest on the Pacific coast of the United States, and in the spring of 1853 Congress sent four armed vessels, under the command of Captain Ringgold, of the Navy, to the eastern shores of Asia, by way of Cape Horn, to explore the regions of the Pacific Ocean, which, it was evident, would soon be traversed by American steamships plying between the ports of the western frontier of the United States and Japan and China. The squadron left Norfolk May 31, with a supply-ship. The expedition returned in the summer of 1856. It made many very important explorations, among them of the whaling and sealing grounds in the region of the coast of Kamtchatka and Behring's Strait, where the United States have since purchased a territory of Russia. (See *Alaska*.)

Pacific Ocean. (See *Nunez, Vasco de Balboa*, and *Magellan, Ferdinand*.)

Pacific Railway. The greatest of American railroad enterprises yet undertaken was the construction of a railway over the great plains and lofty mountain-ranges between the Missouri River and the Pacific Ocean. So early as 1846

such a work was publicly advocated by Asa Whitney. In 1849, after the discovery of gold in California promised a rapid accumulation of wealth and population on the Pacific coast, Senator Thomas H. Benton introduced a bill into Congress providing for preliminary steps in such an undertaking. In 1853 Congress passed an act providing for surveys of various routes by the corps of topographical engineers. They were made at a cost of about \$1,000,000. Nothing further was done, owing to political dissensions between the North and the South, until 1862 and 1864, when Congress, in the midst of the immense strain upon the resources of the government in carrying on the war for the preservation of the Union, passed acts granting subsidies for the work from the treasury of the United States, in the form of 6 per cent. gold bonds, at the rate of \$16,000 a mile from the Missouri River to the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains, \$48,000 a mile for 300 miles through those mountains, \$32,000 a mile between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, and \$16,000 a mile from the western slope of the latter range to the sea. In addition to these subsidies, Congress granted about 25,000,000 acres of land along the line of the road. Some modifications were afterwards made in these grants. Work was begun on the railway in 1863, by two companies—the "Central Pacific," proceeding from California and working eastward, and the "Union Pacific," working westward. The road was completed in 1869, when a continuous line of railroad communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans was perfected. The entire length of the road, exclusive of its branches, is about 2000 miles. It crosses nine distinct mountain-ranges, the highest elevation on the route being 7123 feet, at Rattlesnake Pass, west of the Laramie Plains. The route from New York to San Francisco, by way of Chicago and Omaha, is travelled in six or seven days, the distance being about 3400 miles. Another rail-

road subsidized by the government, and called the Northern Pacific Railroad, to extend from Lake Superior to Puget's Sound, on the Pacific, was begun in 1870, but, on account of financial difficulties, the work was temporarily suspended in 1873. On May 10, 1869, the great Pacific Railroad was completed, in the presence of full 3000 people, civilized and barbarian. These were gathered in a grassy valley, in mid-continent, to witness the ceremony of fixing the last "tie." The "tie" was made of polished laurelwood, its ends bound with solid silver bands. A spike of gold had been sent by California, one of silver by Nevada, and one of gold, silver, and iron by Arizona, and these were driven in the presence of the motley assemblage, with religious and other ceremonies. Then the telegraph flashed across the continent, and under the sea to the eastern world, this message: "The last tie is laid, the last spike is driven, and the Pacific Railroad is completed."

Pacific Railway, EXPLORATIONS FOR. At the session of Congress of 1852-53, that body authorized the President to procure surveys for the selection of the best route for railway communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by the corps of topographical engineers. By midsummer, 1853, four expeditions for this purpose were organized to explore as many different routes. One, under Major Stevens, was instructed to explore a northern route, from the Upper Mississippi to Puget's Sound, on the Pacific coast. A second expedition, under the direction of Lieutenant Whipple, was directed to cross the continent from a line adjacent to the 36th parallel of north latitude. It was to proceed from the Mississippi through Walker's Pass of the Rocky Mountains, and strike the Pacific near San Pedro, Los Angeles, or San Diego. A third, under Captain Gunnison, was to proceed through the Rocky Mountains near the headwaters of the Rio del Norte, by way of the Huefeno River and the Great Salt Lake in Utah. And a fourth was to leave the Southern Mississippi, and reach the Pacific somewhere in Lower California—perhaps San Diego. These surveys cost about \$1,000,000. A writer (Edwin Williams), in 1855, declared that "when these gigantic plans shall be consummated—when the shores of the Pacific shall be reached by railways—when the telegraph shall girdle the earth, and ocean steamships shall ply regularly between their termini and farther India, whose wealth the commercial world has so long coveted—the beaten track of commerce will be changed, and a new and wonderful page in the history of the world will be opened." In less than twenty years after that paragraph was written "these gigantic plans" were all completed, and the prophecy has been fulfilled.

Pacification of Indian Tribes. Steps were taken, soon after the close of the War of 1812-15, for a complete pacification of all the Northwestern Indian tribes. At a council held at Detroit (Sept. 1, 1815), by the Senecas, Wyandots, Shawnoese, Delawares, Potawatomes of Lake Michigan, Ottawas, Chippewas, with some, also, of

the Winnebagoes and Sacs, and at which the famous prophet (see *Tecumtha and the Prophet*) was present, the hatchet was formally buried as between all these tribes, and as between them and the United States. Other treaties soon followed with the Potawatomes of the Illinois, the Piankeshaws, Osages, Iowas, Kansas, Foxes, Kickapoos, and various bands of the great Sioux confederacy, with several of which formal relations were now first established.

Pacification of the Indians in the West (1763). Through the generous offices of the French, a general pacification of the Western and Northwestern tribes was secured in the autumn of 1763. Pontiac accepted the peace which "his father, the French," had sent him, and expressed to Gladwin, the English commander at Detroit, his desire that all that had passed should be forgotten. (See *Pontiac's War*.)

"Pacificus" and "Helvidius." Washington's proclamation of neutrality (which see) was violently assailed by the Democratic press throughout the country, and the administration found determined opposition growing more and more powerful. The President received coarse abuse from the opposing politicians. Under these circumstances, Hamilton took the field in defence of the proclamation, in a series of articles over the signature of "Pacificus." In these he maintained the President's right, by its issue, to decide upon the position in which the nation stood. He also defended the policy of the measure. To these articles a reply appeared (July 8, 1793), over the signature of "Helvidius," which was written by Madison, at the special request of Jefferson. The latter, in a letter urging Madison to answer Hamilton, felt compelled to say that Genet (see *Genet in the United States*) was a hot-headed, passionate man, without judgment, and likely, by his indecency, to excite public indignation, and give the Secretary of State great trouble. Indeed, Jefferson afterwards offered his resignation, but Washington persuaded him to withdraw it.

Paine and Deane. Silas Deane, who acted as mercantile as well as diplomatic agent of the Continental Congress during the earlier portion of the war, incurred the enmity of Arthur Lee and his brothers, and was so misrepresented by them that Congress recalled him from France. It had been insinuated by Carmichael (which see) that Deane had appropriated the public money to his private use. Two violent parties arose, in and out of Congress, concerning the doings of the agents of Congress abroad. Robert Morris, and others acquainted with financial matters, took the side of Deane. The powerful party against him was led by Richard Henry Lee, brother of Arthur, and chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. Deane published (1779) "*An Address to the People of the United States*," in which he commented severely on the conduct of the Lees, and justly claimed credit for himself in obtaining supplies from France through Beaumarchais. Thomas Paine, who was always ready for contention, was then the Secretary to the Committee on Foreign Affairs.

Availing himself of documents in his custody, he published a reply to Deane's address, in which he asserted that the supplies nominally furnished through a mercantile house came really from the French government. This avowal, which the French and Congress both wished to conceal, drew from the French minister, Gerard, a warm protest, as it proved duplicity on the part of the French court; and, to appease the minister, Congress, by resolution, expressly denied that any present of supplies had been received from France previous to the treaty of alliance (which see). Paine was dismissed from office for his imprudence in revealing the secrets of diplomacy.

Paine, ROBERT TREAT, LL.D., a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Boston, March 11, 1731; died there, May 11, 1814. He graduated at Harvard University in 1749; taught school to help support his parents, and also made a voyage to Europe. He studied theology, and in 1758 was chaplain of provincial troops. Then he studied law, and practised it in Taunton successfully for many years. He was the prosecuting attorney in the case of Captain Preston and his men. (See *Boston Massacre*.) A delegate to the Provincial Congress in 1774, he was sent to the Continental Congress the same year, where he served until 1778. On the organization of the State of Massachusetts, he was made attorney-general, he having been one of the committee who drafted the constitution of that commonwealth. Mr. Paine settled in Boston in 1780, and was Judge of the Massachusetts Supreme Court from 1790 to 1804.

Paine, ROBERT TREAT, JR., poet, son of the signer, was born at Taunton, Mass., Dec. 9, 1773; died at Boston, Nov. 13, 1811. He graduated at Harvard University in 1792. He was originally named Thomas, but in view of the character of Thomas Paine, author of *Common Sense* (which see), he had it changed by the Legislature, he desiring, as he said, to bear a "Christian" name. He became a journalist and a poet, and was the author of the popular ode entitled *Adams and Liberty* (which see). He became a lawyer in 1802, and retired from the profession in 1809. His last important poem—*The Steeds of Apollo*—was written in his father's house in Boston.

Paine, THOMAS, was born at Thetford, Eng., Jan. 29, 1737; died in New York, June 8, 1809. His father was a Friend, or Quaker, from whom Thomas learned the business of stay-making. He went on a privateering cruise in 1755, and afterwards worked at his trade and preached as a Dissenting minister. He was an excise-man at Thetford, and wrote (1772) a pamphlet on the subject. Being accused of smuggling, he was dismissed from office. Meeting Dr. Franklin, the latter advised him to go to America, where he arrived (at Philadelphia) in December, 1774, and was employed as editor of the *Pennsylvania Magazine*. In that paper he published (October, 1775) "Serious Thoughts," in which he declared his hope of the abolition of slavery and the ultimate independence of the American colonies. This led Dr. Rush to incite

him to write his powerful pamphlet *Common Sense*, which, more than anything else, inspired the people with a desire for independence and united them in its support. It opened with the often-quoted words, "These are the times that try men's souls." It was strongly opposed by the Tory class, but it touched the common heart. (See *Common Sense*.) It was first published anonymously and without a copyright.



THOMAS PAINE.

For a short time after the Declaration of Independence Paine was in the military service, and was aide-de-camp to General Greene. In December, 1776, he published the first number of his *Crisis*, and continued it at intervals during the war. (See *Crisis*.) In 1777 Paine was elected secretary to the Committee on Foreign Affairs, but was compelled to resign in consequence of some indiscretions in connection with a quarrel with Silas Deane. Late in November, 1779, he was made Clerk of the Pennsylvania Assembly; and in that capacity read a letter to that body from General Washington, intimating that a mutiny in the army was imminent because of the distresses of the soldiers. The Assembly was disheartened. Paine wrote a letter to Blair McClenaghan, a Philadelphia merchant, stating the case, and enclosing \$500 as his contribution to a relief fund. A meeting of citizens was called, when a subscription was circulated, and very soon the sum of £300,000 (Pennsylvania currency) was collected. With this capital a bank (afterwards the Bank of North America) for the relief of the army was established. With Colonel Laurens, he obtained a loan of 6,000,000 livres from France in 1781. In 1786 Congress gave him \$3000 for his services during the war, and the State of New York granted him a farm of three hundred acres of land at New Rochelle, the confiscated estate of a loyalist. Sailing for France in April, 1787, his fame caused him to be cordially received by distinguished men. In 1788 he was in England, superintending the construction of an iron bridge (the first of its kind) which he had invented. It now spans the Wear, at Sunderland. He wrote the first part of his *Rights of Man* in 1791, in reply to Burke's *Reflections on the Revolution in France*. It had an immense sale, and the American edition had a preface by Thomas Jefferson. An

active member of the revolutionary society in England, he was elected to a seat in the French national convention in 1792. He had a triumphant reception in Paris, but in London he was indicted for sedition, and afterwards outlawed. Paine assisted in framing the French



PAINE'S MONUMENT.

constitution in 1793; and the same year he opposed the execution of the king, and proposed his banishment to America. This action caused the imprisonment of Paine by the Jacobins, and he had a narrow escape from the guillotine. It was at that period that he wrote his *Age of Reason*. James Monroe, the American minister to France, procured his release from prison in 1794. After an absence from the United States for fifteen years, he returned in a government vessel in 1802. His admirers honored him with public dinners; his political opponents insulted him. Settled in New York, he died there, and was buried on his farm at New Rochelle, the Quakers, for peculiar reasons, having denied his request to be interred in one of their burying-grounds. Near where he was buried a neat monument was erected in 1839. In 1819 William Cobbett took his bones to England. In 1875 a memorial building was dedicated in Boston, having over the entrance the inscription, "PAINE MEMORIAL BUILDING AND HOME OF THE BOSTON INVESTIGATOR."

Pakenham, Sir Edward Michael, was born in the northwest of Ireland in 1779; killed at New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815. At the age of about fifteen years he was appointed major of Light Dragoons, and at twenty lieutenant-colonel of Foot. In 1812 he was made major-general; served with distinction under Wellington in the Peninsular campaign; and in 1814 was intrusted with the expedition against New Orleans. (See *New Orleans, Battles near*.) The body of Sir Edward was conveyed to Villere's, when the viscera were removed and buried between two pecan-trees near the mansion. The rest of

the body was placed in a cask of rum and conveyed to England for interment. Such was the disposition of the bodies of two or three other officers. It is said the pecan-trees never bore fruit after that year, and the negroes looked upon the spot with superstitious awe. These trees were in full vigor in 1860, when the writer made the sketch below.

Palatines. Early in the 18th century many inhabitants of the Lower Palatinate, lying on both sides of the Rhine, in Germany, were driven from their homes by the persecutions of Louis XVI. of France, whose armies desolated their country. England received many of the fugitives. In the spring of 1708, on the petition of Joshua Koekerthal, Evangelical minister of a body of Lutherans, for himself and thirty-nine others to be transported to America, an order was issued by the Queen in Council for such transportation and their naturalization before leaving England. The queen provided for them at her own expense. This first company of Palatines was first landed on Governor's Island, in the harbor of New York, and afterwards settled near the site of Newburgh, in Orange County, N. Y., in the spring of 1709. In 1710 a larger emigration of Palatines to America occurred, under the guidance of Robert Hunter, Governor of New York. These, about three thousand in number, went farther up the Hudson. Some settled on Livingston's Manor, at a place yet called Germantown, where a tract of six thou-



THE PECAN-TREES AT VILLERE'S, NEW ORLEANS.

sand acres was bought from Livingston by the British government for their use. Some soon afterwards crossed the Hudson into Greene

County and settled at a place called West Camp; others went far up the Mohawk and settled the district known as the German Flats; while a considerable body went to Berks County, Penn., and were the ancestors of many German families in that state. Among the emigrants with Hunter a violent sickness broke out, and four hundred and seventy of them died. With this company came John Peter Zenger (see *Zenger's Trial*) and his widowed mother, Johanna. Peter was then a lad. He was soon afterwards apprenticed to William Bradford, printer.

Palfrey, JOHN GORHAM, LL.D., was born in Boston, May 2, 1796. He graduated at Harvard University in 1815. He was minister (Unitarian) of Brattle Street Church, Boston, from 1818 to 1830. He was Dexter Professor of Sacred Literature in Harvard; editor of the *North American Review* from 1835 to 1843; a member of the Legislature of Massachusetts; and from 1844 to 1848 was secretary of the state. From 1861 to 1866 he was postmaster of Boston. Mr. Palfrey is distinguished as a careful historian, as evinced by his *History of New England* to 1688 (three volumes), issued in 1858-64. He delivered courses of lectures before the Lowell Institute, and was an early and powerful anti-slavery writer. He died April 21, 1881.

Palmer, ERASTUS DOW, sculptor, was born at Pompey, Onondaga Co., N. Y., April 2, 1817. Until he was twenty-nine years of age he was a carpenter, when he began cameo-cutting for jewelry, which was then fashionable. He removed from Utica to Albany. This business injured his eyesight, and he attempted sculpture, at which he succeeded at the age of thirty-five. His first work in marble was an ideal bust of the infant "Ceres," which was exhibited at the Academy of Design, New York. It was followed by two exquisite bass-reliefs representing the morning and evening star. Mr. Palmer ranks among our best sculptors, and his works in bass-relief and statuary are highly esteemed. He has produced more than one hundred works in marble. His "Angel of the Resurrection," at the entrance to the Rural Cemetery at Albany, commands the highest admiration. He went to Europe for the first time in 1873, and his latest important work was a statue of Robert R. Livingston for the national Capitol.

Palmer, INNES N., was born in New York in 1825; graduated at West Point in 1846; served in the war against Mexico; and in August, 1861, was made major of cavalry. In September he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, having been engaged in the battle of Bull's Run in July previous. He commanded a brigade in the Peninsular campaign in 1862; a division in North Carolina the first half of 1863; and from August that year until April, 1864, he commanded the defences of the North Carolina coast. He was in command of the District of North Carolina until March, 1865, participating in Sherman's movements. In March, 1865, he was breveted brigadier-general United States Army.

Palmer, JAMES S., was born in New Jersey in

1810; died of yellow-fever at St. Thomas, W. I., Dec. 7, 1867. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1825, and was made rear-admiral in 1866. He served in the East India seas in 1838, and in blockading the coast of Mexico from 1846 to 1848. At the beginning of the Civil War he was in the blockade fleet under Dupont. In the summer of 1863 he led the advance in the passage of the Vicksburg batteries, and later in the same year performed the same service. Palmer was Farragut's flag-captain in the expedition against New Orleans and Mobile, and fought the Confederate "ram" *Arkansas* (which see). In 1865 he was assigned to the command of the North Atlantic squadron.

Palmer, JOHN MCCAULEY, was born in Scott County, Ky., Sept. 13, 1817; became a resident of Illinois in 1832; was admitted to the bar in 1840; a member of the State Senate from 1852 to 1854; and a delegate to the Peace Convention (which see) in 1861. He was Colonel of the Fourteenth Illinois Volunteers in April, 1861; served under Frémont in Missouri; and in December was made brigadier-general. He was at the capture of New Madrid and Island Number Ten, and commanded a brigade in the Army of the Mississippi. He commanded a division under Grant and Rosecrans in 1862, and was with the latter at the battle of Stone's River. For his gallantry there he was made major-general. General Palmer took part in the battle of Chickamauga, and commanded the Fourteenth Corps in the Atlanta campaign. He was Governor of Illinois from 1868-72, and U. S. Senator 1891-.

Palmetto Cockades were made of blue silk ribbon, with a button in the centre bearing the image of a palmetto-tree. They were also called "Secession Cockades." "Secession Bonnets," made by a Northern milliner in Charleston, were worn by the ladies of that city on the streets immediately after the passage of the ordinance of secession.



PALMETTO COCKADE.

Palmetto State. A popular name given to the State of South Carolina, its coat-of-arms bearing the figure of a palmetto-tree.

Palo Alto (tall trees), **BATTLE OF** (1846). On a part of a prairie in Texas, about eight miles northeast from Matamoras, Mexico, flanked by ponds and beautified by tall trees (which gave it the name of Palo Alto), General Taylor, marching with less than two thousand three hundred men from Point Isabel towards Fort Brown, encountered about six thousand Mexicans, led by General Arista. At a little past noon a furious battle was begun with artillery by the Mexicans and a cavalry attack with the lance. The Mexicans were forced back, and, after a contest of about five hours, they retreated to Resaca de la Palma and encamped. They fled in great disorder, having lost in the engagement one hundred men killed and wounded. The Americans lost fifty-three men. During the engagement Major Ringgold, commander of the Ameri-

can Flying Artillery, which did terrible work in the ranks of the Mexicans, was mortally wounded by a small cannon-ball that passed through both thighs and through his horse. Rider and horse both fell to the ground. The latter was dead; the major died at Point Isabel four days afterwards. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Panama, CONGRESS AT. In 1823 Simon Bolivar, the liberator of Colombia, S. A., and then president of that republic, invited the governments of Mexico, Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres to unite with him in forming a general congress at Panama. Arrangements to that effect were made, but the congress was not held until July, 1826. The object was to settle upon some line of policy having the force of international law respecting the rights of those republics, and to adopt measures for preventing further colonization by European powers on the American continent. They fully accepted the "Monroe Doctrine" (which see). In the spring of 1825 the United States was invited to send delegates or commissioners to the congress. These were appointed early in 1826, and appeared at the congress early in July; but its results were not important to any of the parties concerned.

Panama Railway, THE, was the first railway extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific side of the great isthmus that connects North and South America, and was completed at the beginning of 1855. It extends from Aspinwall city on the Caribbean Sea to Panama on the Pacific Ocean. The first train passed over it on Jan. 28, 1855.

Paoli Tavern, DEFEAT OF WAYNE NEAR THE. Near the Paoli Tavern, on the Lancaster road, General Wayne lay encamped, with fifteen hundred men and two cannons, in a secluded spot, on the night of Sept. 20, 1777. A Tory informed Howe of this encampment, and he sent General Grey, with a considerable force, to attack it at midnight. The night was dark and stormy. Grey gave orders to use only the bayonet, and give no quarter. He approached stealthily, murdering the pickets near the highway. Warned by this, Wayne immediately paraded his men, but, unfortunately, in the light of his camp-fires. Towards midnight Grey's force, in two divisions, crept up a ravine, and at one o'clock in the morning (Sept. 21) leaped from the gloom like tigers from a jungle, and began the work of death at different points. The patriots, not knowing at what point was the chief attack, fired a few volleys, and, breaking into fragments, fled in confusion towards Chester. The British and Hessians killed one hundred and fifty Americans, some of them in cold blood, after they had surrendered and begged for quarter. A Hessian sergeant afterwards said: "We killed three hundred of the rebels with the bayonet. I stuck them myself like so many pigs, one after another, until the blood ran out of the touchhole of my musket." This event has been properly spoken of

as a massacre. The dead were buried on the site of the encampment. The spot is enclosed by a wall, and a monument of marble within commemorates the dead.



PAOLI MONUMENT.

Papal Representative. The reigning Pope (Pius VI.), unfriendly towards England, looked with favor upon the revolt of the colonies. Soon after the treaty of peace was concluded (Sept. 3, 1783), his nuncio, or ambassador, at Paris, made overtures to Dr. Franklin on the subject of appointing an apostolic vicar for the United States. The matter was referred to Congress, when that body properly replied that the subject being purely spiritual, it was beyond their control. Thus early the idea of total separation between the Church and State—the untrammelled exercise of freedom of conscience—was enunciated. The Pope appointed Rev. John Carroll, of Maryland, to the high office of apostolic vicar, or representative of the Church of Rome in the United States.

Paper Currency. (See *Bills of Credit.*)

Paper Currency in Canada. In the course of the French and Indian War, the French officers in Canada, civil and military, had been guilty of immense peculations. At the close of hostilities there was outstanding, in unpaid bills on France and in card or paper money, more than \$20,000,000, a large portion of which, the French government declared, had been fraudulently issued. The holders of this currency, payment of which had been suspended immediately after the fall of Quebec (1759), received but a small indemnity for it.

Paper Currency in the Colonies Suppressed. In 1748 the British Parliament passed an act for regulating and restraining bills of credit in the English-American colonies. By this act, no such currency was allowed, except for the current expenses of the year and in case of an invasion; but in no case might it be a legal tender for the payment of debts, on pain of dismission from office on the part of any provincial governor who should assent to it, and a perpetual incapability of serving in any public employment. A sudden depreciation in the value

of the paper currency ensued, which occasioned much distress.

Paper Money First Issued in South Carolina. An ill-advised expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine, by land and sea, undertaken by Governor Moore, of South Carolina, in September, 1702, was unsuccessful, and involved the colony in a debt of more than \$26,000, for the payment of which bills of credit were issued, the first emission of paper money in that colony.

Papineau, LOUIS JOSEPH, political leader in Canada, was born at Montreal, in October, 1789; died at Monticello, Sept. 23, 1871. He was educated at the Seminary of Quebec; was admitted to the bar, and entered the Lower Canadian Parliament in 1809, becoming speaker in 1815. He became a leader of the radical, or opposition, party at the beginning of his public life. He opposed the union of the two Canadas, at which the English party aimed, and in 1823 he was sent on a mission to London, to remonstrate against that measure. In 1827 he was again a member of the House, and elected its speaker; and in 1834 he introduced to that body a list of the demands and grievances of the Lower Canadians, known as the "Ninety-two Resolutions." He supported the resolutions with great ability, and recommended constitutional resistance to the British government and commercial non-intercourse with England. Matters were brought to a crisis in 1837, when the new governor (Lord Gosford) decided to administer the government without the assistance of the Colonial Parliament. The liberal party flew to arms. Papineau urged peaceful constitutional opposition, but an insurrection was begun that could not be allayed by persuasion, and he took refuge in the United States at the close of that year. (See *Canadian Rebellion*.) In 1839 he went to France, where he engaged in literary pursuits about eight years. After the union of the Canadas, in 1841, and a general amnesty for political offences was proclaimed, in 1844, Papineau returned to his native country (1847), and was made a member of the Canadian Parliament. After 1834 he took no part in public affairs.

Papists and Prelates in Maryland Disfranchised. The Parliamentary Commissioners, in 1654, having established a new government in Maryland, called a new Assembly, one of the first acts of which was to so modify the Act of Toleration of 1649 as to exclude "Papists and prelates" from its benefits. They also passed acts nullifying the oath of allegiance to the Proprietary, and denying his claim to be "absolute lord" of the province, as his charter called him. The Roman Catholics and the Episcopalians in Maryland equally felt the oppressions of the commissioners. Finally, in 1649, a compromise was effected, and toleration restored.

Paredes, MARIANO, was an active participant in the political events in Mexico from 1820 until his death, in the city of Mexico, Sept. 11, 1849. When, upon the annexation of Texas to the United States (1845), President Herrera endeavored to gain the acquiescence of the Mexicans

to the measure, Paredes assisted him, and with 25,000 men defeated Santa Aña, who was banished. Afterwards Paredes, with the assistance of Arista, defeated Herrera, and was installed President of Mexico June 12, 1845. The next day he took command of the army, leaving civil affairs in the hands of Vice-President Bravo. He was at the head of the government on the breaking-out of war with the United States (May, 1846), but when Santa Aña reappeared in Mexico, Paredes was seized and confined, but escaped to Havana. Going to Europe, he sought to place a Spanish or French prince at the head of the Mexicans. He afterwards returned to Mexico.

Parke, JOHN G., was born in Pennsylvania, in 1827; graduated at West Point in 1849. Entering the Engineer Corps, he became brigadier-general of volunteers Nov. 23, 1861. He commanded a brigade under Burnside in his operations on the North Carolina coast (see *Roanoke Island*), early in 1862, and with him joined the Army of the Potomac. He served in McClellan's campaigns with that army, and when Burnside became its commander he was that general's chief-of-staff. In the campaign against Vicksburg he was a conspicuous actor. He was with Sherman, commanding the left wing of his army after the fall of Vicksburg. He was also engaged in the defence of Knoxville (see *Knoxville, Siege of*); and in the Richmond campaign, in 1864, he commanded the Ninth Corps, and continued to do so until the surrender of Lee, in April, 1865. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army.

Parker, SIR PETER, was born in 1723; died in 1811. He became a post-captain in the British navy in 1747. As commander of a fleet, he co-



SIR PETER PARKER. (From an English print.)

operated with Sir Henry Clinton in an unsuccessful attack on Charleston, Jan. 28, 1776. (See *Charleston, Defence of*.) He afterwards assisted

both General and Admiral Lord Howe in the capture of New York, and commanded the squadron which took possession of Rhode Island late in that year. Afterwards he was a member of Parliament; was made Admiral of the White, and on the death of Lord Howe (1799), as the oldest admiral in the navy, he became Admiral of the Fleet.

Parker, SIR PETER, IN THE CHESAPEAKE. While the British land and naval forces were engaged in the expedition against Washington, Sir Peter Parker, of the Royal Navy, appeared in Chesapeake Bay, in the frigate *Menelaus*, thirty-eight guns. He was a young and handsome



SIR PETER PARKER.

officer, and was really humane in his impulses; but, under the direction of Admiral Cockburn, his superior, his deportment was so haughty, and his acts so cruel, that he was an object of bitter hatred to the Americans. He frequently sent parties ashore to plunder private property, and he swept domestic commerce from the bay. He boasted that, during his cruise of a month in those waters, not a single American vessel had crossed the bay. In an account of his exploits written by a comrade of Sir Peter, it is related that most wanton cruelty was often exercised under the direction of Cockburn. On one occasion the admiral, Sir Peter, the writer, and a few others went ashore, and stealthily approached a lonely dwelling near the beach at evening. The door was open, and they went in, when they were greeted by screams from three young ladies at tea. The ladies appealed for mercy with tears. Cockburn told them he knew their father to be a colonel of American militia; that it was his duty to burn the house; and he gave them ten minutes in which they might remove what they most desired to save. The young women, on their knees, still pleaded for mercy, and begged him to spare the house, while the brutal Cockburn noted the passing time by his

watch on the table. At the end of the ten minutes he ordered his incendiaries to fire the building. With Sir Peter the girls had specially pleaded, and when Cockburn ordered the fire-balls to be lighted and thrown he wept like a child. "We retreated from the scene of ruin," wrote the eye-witness, "leaving the three daughters gazing at the work of destruction, which made the innocent houseless and the affluent beggars." Sir Peter was killed in a skirmish on the night of August 30, 1814.

Parker, THEODORE, a Unitarian clergyman, was born at Lexington, Mass., Aug. 24, 1810; died at Florence, Italy, May 10, 1860. His grandfather, Captain John Parker, commanded the company of minute-men in the skirmish at Lexington (which see). Theodore began to study Latin at ten years of age, Greek at eleven, and metaphysics at twelve. He was an earnest naturalist, and before he was ten he knew all the trees and shrubs of Massachusetts. In 1829 he entered Harvard College, but did not graduate; taught school until 1837, when, having studied divinity at Cambridge, he was settled over a Unitarian society at West Roxbury. He became an acute controversialist, for he was a profound thinker, and had the courage of his convictions. In 1846 he became minister of the Twenty-eighth Congregational Society in Boston, which, in November, 1852, occupied the great Music Hall for the first time. Parker became the most famous preacher of his time. His place of worship was always crowded, and people came from all parts of the country to hear him. He urgently opposed the war with Mexico as a scheme for the extension of slavery; was an early advocate of temperance and anti-slavery measures; and after the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law (which see) he was one of its most uncompromising opponents. So marked was his sympathy for Anthony Burns, the seized fugitive slave at Boston (January, 1854), as to cause his indictment and trial for a violation of the Fugitive Slave Law. It was quashed. In 1859 hemorrhage of the lungs terminated his public career. He sailed first to Santa Cruz, thence to Europe, spending the winter of 1859-60 in Rome, whence, in April, he set out for home, but only reached Florence; where he died. He bequeathed his 13,000 valuable books to the Public Library of Boston.

Parkman, FRANCIS, JR., was born in Boston, September 16, 1823. He graduated at Harvard College in 1844, and fitted himself for the legal profession, but soon abandoned it. He made a tour to the Rocky Mountains, and lived for some time among the Dakota Indians. The hardships he there endured caused a permanent impairment of his health, and through life he has suffered from a chronic disease and partial blindness. Notwithstanding these disabilities he has long maintained a foremost rank among trustworthy and accomplished American historians. His chief literary labors have been in the field of inquiry concerning the power of the French, political and ecclesiastical, in North America. So careful and painstaking have been his labors that he is regarded as authority on

those subjects which have engaged his pen. Mr. Parkman's first work was *The California and Oregon Trail*, in which he embodied his experience in the Far West. His first work on the French in America was *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*, 1851. It was followed by *Pioneers of France in the New World*, 1865; *The Jesuits in North America*; *The Discovery of the Great West*, 1869; *The Old Régime in Canada*, 1874; *Montcalm and Wolfe*, 1883. He died Nov. 9, 1893.

Parliament, ACTION OF (1774-75). The election for members of a new Parliament that took place in November, 1774, resulted in a large ministerial majority, which boded no good for the American colonies. The king, in his opening speech (Nov. 30), spoke of the "daring spirit of resistance in the colonies," and assured the Legislature that he had taken measures and given orders for the restoration of peace and order, which he hoped would be effectual. A large majority of both Houses were ready to support the king and his ministers in coercive measures; but there was a minority of able men, in and out of Parliament, utterly opposed to subduing the colonies by force of arms, and anxious to promote an amicable adjustment. The mercantile and trading interests of every kind, whose business was seriously menaced by the American Association (which see), formed a powerful class of outside opponents of the ministers. The English Dissenters, also, were inclined, by religious sympathies, to favor the Americans. In the House of Commons, the papers referring to America were referred to a committee of the whole; while in the House of Lords, Chatham (William Pitt), after long absence, appeared and proposed an address to the king advising a recall of the troops from Boston. This proposition was rejected by a decisive majority. Petitions for conciliation, which flowed into the House of Commons from all the trading and manufacturing towns in the kingdom, were referred to another committee, which the opposition called the "Committee of Oblivion." Among the petitions to the king was that of the Continental Congress, presented by Franklin, Bollan, and Lee, three colonial agents, who asked to be heard upon it, by counsel, at the bar of the House. Their request was refused on the ground that the Congress was an illegal assembly and the alleged grievances only pretended. On the 1st of February Chatham brought forward a bill for settling the troubles in America, which provided for a full acknowledgment on the part of the colonies of the supremacy and superintending power of Parliament, but that no tax should ever be levied except by consent of the colonial assemblies. It provided for a congress of the colonies to make the acknowledgment, and to vote, at the same time, a free grant to the king of a certain perpetual revenue to be placed at the disposal of Parliament. His bill was refused the courtesy of lying on the table, and was rejected by a vote of two to one at the first reading. The ministry, feeling strong in their large majority of supporters, presented a bill in the House of Commons (Feb. 3) for cutting off the

trade of New England elsewhere than to Great Britain, Ireland, and the British West Indies. This was intended to offset the American Association. It also provided for the suspension of these colonies from the prosecution of the Newfoundland fisheries, a principal branch of their trade and industry. In an address to the throne proposed by ministers (Feb. 7), it was declared that rebellion existed in Massachusetts, countenanced and fomented by unlawful combinations in other colonies. Effectual measures were recommended for suppressing the rebellion. The support of Parliament was pledged to the king. Then Lord North astonished his party and the nation by proposing a scheme for conciliation, not much unlike that of Chatham, except in its avowed mischievous intention. It proposed that when any colony should offer to make a provision for raising a sum of money disposable by Parliament for the common defence, and should provide for the support of civil government and the administration of justice within its own limits, and such offer should be approved by the king, Parliament should forbear the levy of any duties or taxes within such colony, so long as it should be faithful to its promises, excepting such as might be required for the regulation of trade. The bill was warmly opposed by the ultra advocates of parliamentary supremacy, until North explained that he did not believe it would be acceptable to all the colonies, and that it was intended to divide and weaken them. Then the bill passed. With a similar design, a bill with the features of the New England "Restraining Bill" was passed, after hearing of the general support given by the colonial assemblies to the proceedings of the Congress. It extended similar restrictions to all the colonies excepting New York, North Carolina, and Georgia, the first and last named having declined to adopt the American Association, and the ministers entertaining hope of similar action by the Assembly of North Carolina. North hoped, by exempting these, to produce a division in the colonies. Finally Burke offered a series of resolutions to abandon all attempts at parliamentary taxation and to return to the old method of raising American supplies by the free grant of the colonial assemblies. His motion was voted down. Soon afterwards John Wilkes (then Lord Mayor of London, as well as member of the House of Commons), whom the ministry had tried to crush, and whom they regarded as their mortal enemy, presented to the king, in his official capacity, a remonstrance from the City authorities expressing "abhorrence" of the measures in progress for "the oppression of their fellow-subjects in the colonies," and entreating the king, as a first step towards the redress of grievances, to dismiss his present ministry. In these debates the speakers exhibited various phases of statesmanship, from the sagacious reasoner to the flippant optimist, who, believing in the omnipotence of Great Britain and the cowardice and weakness of the Americans, felt very little concern. Mr. Charles James Fox advised the administration to place the Americans where

they stood in 1763, and to repeal every act passed since that time which affected either their freedom or their commerce. Lord North said if such a scheme should be effected there would be an end to the dispute. His plan was to send a powerful armament to America, accompanied by commissioners to offer mercy upon a proper submission, for he believed the Americans were aiming at independence. This belief and its conclusion was denied by General Conway, who asked, "Did the Americans set up a claim for independence previous to 1763?" and answered, "No, they were then dutiful and peaceable subjects, and they are still dutiful." He declared that the obnoxious acts of Parliament had forced them into acts of resistance. "Taxes have been levied upon them," he said; "their charters have been violated, nay, taken away; administration has attempted to overawe them by the most cruel and oppressive laws." Edmund Burke condemned the use of discretionary power made by General Gage at Boston. Mr. James Grenville deprecated the use of force against the Americans, because they did not aim at independence; while Mr. Adam thought it absolutely necessary to reduce them to submission by force, because, if they should be successful in their opposition, they would certainly "proceed to independence." He attempted to show that their subjugation would be easy, because there would be no settled form of government in America, and all must be anarchy and confusion. A fatal mistake of British statesmen. By the institution of colonial assemblies the Americans had learned to govern themselves. Mr. Burke asked leave to bring in a bill for composing the troubles in America, and for quieting the minds of the colonists. He believed concession to be the true path to pursue to reach the happy result. He proposed a renunciation of the exercise of taxation, but not the right; to preserve the power of laying duties for the regulation of commerce, but the money raised was to be at the disposal of the several general assemblies. He proposed to repeal the tea duty of 1767, and to proclaim a general amnesty. His speech on that occasion embraced every consideration of justice and expediency, and warned ministers that if they persisted in vexing the colonies they would drive the Americans to a separation from the mother country. The plan was rejected. Mr. Luttrell proposed to ask the king to authorize commissioners to receive proposals for conciliation from any general convention of Americans, or their Congress, as the most effectual means for preventing the effusion of blood. It was rejected. In the House of Lords the Duke of Grafton proposed to bring in a bill for repealing every act which had been passed by Parliament relative to America since 1763. It was not acted upon. Lord Lyttelton severely condemned the measures of the administration, and united with the Duke of Grafton in his proposition for a repeal of the obnoxious acts. He, with others, had believed that a show of determination to reduce the colonies to submission would cause them to quail. He now knew he was mistaken. The valiant declara-

tion went forth, backed by ten thousand men, but it had not intimidated a single colony. Notwithstanding the strong reasons given by the opposition for ministers to be conciliatory towards the Americans, the majority of Parliament were in favor of attempting coercion with a strong hand. Towards the end of the session Burke asked leave to lay before the Commons the remonstrance lately voted by the Assembly of New York. (See *New York Petition*.) The ministry and their friends had counted largely on the defection of that province; and they were so sorely disappointed when they found the document so emphatic in its claims of the rights of Englishmen that Lord North opposed and prevented its reception by the House. The acts of that session of Parliament widened the breach between Great Britain and her American colonies.

Parliament, ACTS OF, CONCERNING AMERICA.

The first act was passed in 1548, prohibiting the exaction of any reward by an officer of the English admiralty from English fishermen and mariners going on the service of the fishery at Newfoundland. The next of importance, and the first that elicited debate, was in 1621, when the House of Commons denounced the new charter given to the Plymouth Company as a "grievance." (See *Plymouth Company*.) The king, angered by what he regarded as an attack upon his prerogative, had Sir Edward Coke, Pym (another eminent lawyer), and other members imprisoned, or virtually so, for what he called "factious conduct." The debates involved the declaration of the right of Parliament to absolutely rule colonial affairs and a flat denial of the right—the course of debate followed before the war of the Revolution began in 1775. At that session King James took high-handed measures against the representatives of the people. He declared the proceedings of the House of Commons the work of "fiery, popular, and turbulent spirits." To which they replied by inserting in their journals a declaration that they had the right of discussing all subjects in such order as they might think proper, and asserting that they were not responsible to the king for their conduct. James sent for the book, tore out the obnoxious entry with his own hand and suspended their sittings.

Parliament, AMERICAN AFFAIRS IN (1768).

The second Parliament of George III. opened in December, 1768. All the papers relating to the American colonies were laid before it. The House of Lords severely denounced the public proceedings in Massachusetts, particularly a late convention. (See *Convention in Massachusetts*.) Approving the conduct of the ministry, they recommended instructions to the Governor of Massachusetts to obtain full information "of all treasons," and to send the offenders to England for trial, under an unrepealed statute of Henry VIII. for the punishment of treason committed out of the kingdom. These recommendations met powerful opposition in the House of Commons, in which Barré, Burke, and Pownall took the lead. But Parliament, as a body, con-

sidered the late proceedings in the colonies as indicative of a factious and rebellious spirit, and the recommendations of the House of Lords were adopted by a very decided majority; for each member seemed to consider himself insulted by the independent spirit of the Americans. "Every man in England," wrote Franklin, "regards himself as a piece of a sovereign over America—seems to jostle himself into the throne with the king, and talks of *our* subjects in the colonies."

Parliament before the King. On Feb. 9, 1775, the Lord Chancellor, the Speaker, and a majority of the Lords and Commons sought an audience of the king at the palace, and, in the presence of the representatives of European courts, presented to the monarch a joint address adopted by the two Houses of Parliament, which, in its sanguinary tone, "amounted," it was conceded, "to a declaration of war" against the colonies. The king was pleased, and in his reply* he pledged himself speedily and effectually to "enforce obedience to the laws and the authority of the supreme legislature." He had just heard of the seizure of the ammunition in the fort at Portsmouth, N. H., and he made his utterances strong, that they might "open the eyes of the deluded Americans."

Parliament, POWER OF THE, IN THE COLONIES ASSERTED. In 1763 the extent of the powers of Parliament over the colonies began to be seriously questioned. A certain supremacy was admitted. For a long time the colonies, especially of New England, had carried on a struggle with Parliament concerning its interference with colonial manufactures, trade, and commerce. (See *Navigation Acts*.) It had interfered with their currency, with joint-stock companies, the collection of debts, laws of naturalization, assumed to legislate concerning the administration of oaths, and to extend the operations of the mutiny act to the colonies. Against these and other interferences in their local affairs the colonists had protested. Parliament had persisted, and, by a sort of forced, though partial, acquiescence, these interferences came to be regarded as vested rights. The Parliament had never ventured to impose direct taxes on the colonies—a supereminent power—but the indirect taxation, by means of custom-house officers, was regarded as an equivalent by the colonists, and watched with jealous vigilance. When, in 1765, schemes of indirect taxation were put in operation to increase the imperial revenue, and not for the mere regulation of trade, the colonists rebelled, and that rebellion finally resulted in war and colonial independence. (See *Stamp Act*.)

Parliamentary Commissioners in Virginia. (See *Berkeley, Sir William*.)

Parliament-house at York (1813). When the Americans took possession of York (Toronto), Upper Canada (April 27, 1813), the Parliament-house and other public buildings were burned by an unknown hand. It was said that the incendiary was instigated by the indigna-

tion of the Americans, who found hanging upon the wall of the legislative chamber a "human scalp," for which commodity Proctor had paid bounties when at Fort Malden. It is not pleasant to relate a fact so discreditable; but, as one of the latest British historians (Auchinleck), without the shadow of an excuse, has intimated that the scalp in question—which Commodore Chauncey sent to the Secretary of War—was taken from the head of a British Indian "shot, while in a tree," by that officer when the Americans advanced, the fair fame of a dead man seems to demand the revelation of the truth. Chauncey was not on shore at York. A few days after the capture of York (which see) he wrote from Sackett's Harbor to the Secretary of the Navy: "I have the honor to present to you, by the hands of Lieutenant Dudley, the British standard taken at York on the 27th of April last, accompanied by the mace, over which hung a human scalp. These articles were taken from the Parliament-house by one of my officers and presented to me." General Dearborn wrote: "A scalp was found in the legislative council-chamber, suspended near the speaker's chair, accompanied by the mace."

Parris, SAMUEL, first minister of Danvers, Mass. (1689-96), was born in London in 1653; died at Sudbury, Mass., Feb. 27, 1720. He was first a merchant and then a minister. It was in his family that "Salem Witchcraft" (which see) began its terrible work, and he was the most zealous prosecutor of persons accused of the "black art." In April, 1693, his church brought charges against him. He acknowledged his error and was dismissed. He preached in various places afterwards, but was an unhappy wanderer.

Parrott, ENOCH G., was born at Portsmouth, N. H., Dec. 10, 1814. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1831, and was with Commodore M. C. Perry on the coast of Africa in 1843. In the frigate *Congress* he assisted at the capture of Guaymas and Mazatlan on the Mexican Pacific coast, and in 1861 was made commander. He assisted in the destruction of the war-vessels at Norfolk and the navy-yard opposite, in April, 1861, and was at the capture of the *Savannah* (which see). In active service on the Atlantic coast from the Chesapeake to Georgia, and on the James River, he was in command of the *Monadnoc* in the two attacks on Fort Fisher (which see).

Parry, SIR WILLIAM EDWARD, Arctic navigator, was born at Bath, Eng., Dec. 10, 1790; died at Ems, July 7, 1855. He entered the royal navy at thirteen. Being engaged in blockading the New England coast in 1813, he ascended the Connecticut River about twenty miles, and destroyed twenty-seven privateers and other vessels. In 1818 he joined Sir John Ross's expedition to the polar seas, and the next year he commanded a second expedition, penetrating to latitude 70° 44' 20" north and longitude 110° west, which entitled him to receive the reward of \$20,000 offered by Parliament for reaching thus far west within the Arctic Circle. He was promoted to

commander on his return, in 1820, and was knighted in 1829. He made another expedition in 1821-23; and in another, in 1826, he reached the latitude of $82^{\circ} 45'$ in boats and sledges, the nearest point to the north pole which had then been reached. Parry was made Rear-admiral of the White in 1852, and in 1853 lieutenant-governor of Greenwich Hospital.

Parsons' Case, THE. A short crop of tobacco in Virginia having enhanced the value of that staple, and the issuing of bills of credit (1755) for the first time in that province having depreciated the currency, the Assembly passed a temporary act authorizing the payment of all tobacco debts in the depreciated currency, at a stipulated price. Three years later (1758) an expected short crop caused the re-enactment of this tender-law. The salaries of the parish ministers, sixty-five in number, were payable in tobacco, and they were likely to become losers by this tender-law. The clergy sent an agent to England, who obtained an order in council pronouncing the law void. Suits were brought to recover the difference between twopence per pound in depreciated currency and the tobacco, to which, by law, the ministers were entitled. In defending one of these suits the rare eloquence of Patrick Henry was first developed.

Parsons, SAMUEL HOLDEN, was born at Lynn, Conn., May 14, 1737; drowned in the Big Beaver River, Ohio, Nov. 17, 1789. He graduated at Harvard University in 1756, was admitted to the bar in 1759, and was a representative in the Connecticut Assembly for eighteen sessions. He was an active patriot at the beginning of the Revolution. He was made colonel of a Connecticut regiment in 1775, and engaged in the siege of Boston. In August, 1776, he was made a brigadier-general, and as such engaged in the battle on Long Island (which see). In 1779 Parsons succeeded General Putnam in command of the Connecticut line, and in 1780 was commissioned a major-general. At the close of the war he resumed the practice of law, and was appointed by Washington first judge of the Northwestern Territory. He was also employed to treat with the Indians for the extinguishment of their titles to the Connecticut Western Reserve (which see) in northern Ohio. He went to the new territory in 1787, and settled there.

Parsons, THEOPHILUS, LL.D., an eminent jurist, was born at Byfield, Mass., Feb. 24, 1750; died in Boston, Oct. 30, 1813. He graduated at Harvard University in 1769, was admitted to the bar in 1774, and at the same time was at the head of a grammar-school in Falmouth (now Portland), Me., when it was destroyed. (See *Falmouth Burned*.) He began practice in Newburyport, in 1777, and in 1780 was one of the principal framers of the state constitution of Massachusetts. He removed to Boston in 1800, where, until his death, he was regarded as the brightest of the legal lights of New England. He had been a zealous advocate of the national Constitution in 1788, and in 1806 was made chief-justice of the State of Massachusetts. In legal knowledge he had no superior. His decisions are em-

braced in six printed volumes. His memory was wonderful, and he was eloquent as a speaker. His "Opinions" were published in New York, in 1836, under the title of *Commentaries on American Law*.

Party Names (1789). The friends of the national Constitution took for themselves the title of Federalists, and called their opponents Anti-federalists. (See *Federalists and Republicans*.) The Anti-federalists insisted that, as the new Constitution aimed at more than a federal league, and contemplated a consolidation of the government into a half-monarchical central power, the opponents of the Constitution, or state-sovereignty men, should be called Federalists, and the friends of the Constitution Anti-federalists.

Patent Laws. Clause 8, section 8, article 3 of the national Constitution gives to Congress power to "promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing, for a limited time, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." The first law framed under this provision was approved April 10, 1790, and secured to authors and inventors the exclusive rights in the use of their productions for fourteen years. It remained in force three years, when it was repealed. Only three patents were granted the first year, thirty-three the second, and eleven the third. A new law was passed in 1793. It was amended from time to time, and remained in force until 1836, when all existing patent laws were repealed, and a new one was approved. During the ten years from 1790 to 1800 the number of patents granted was two hundred and sixty-six. The matter of infringement of patents was first brought under the equity jurisdiction of the United States courts in 1819, and in 1832 provision was made by Congress for the re-issue of patents under certain conditions. Prior to the new law of 1836, only ten thousand and twenty patents had been issued. From 1837 to 1890, the number of patents issued was 475,785. In 1861 the time for which patents were issued was extended to seventeen years. In 1870 the Patent Office was made a branch of the State Department; it afterwards became a bureau of the Interior Department.

Patricians and Tribunes. There was much timidity among professed Republicans in New York in 1774, and two distinct parties were formed among them. The line of separation was a social one—Patricians and Tribunes—the merchants and gentry and the mechanics. They coalesced in choosing delegates to the First Continental Congress. (See *Committee of Fifty-One*.)

Patriotic Settlement, A. Beyond the Alleghany Mountains, on the headwaters of the Tennessee River, was a Scotch-Irish settlement, chiefly of Presbyterians, where they had organized a church and a civil community. They were isolated, and the proceedings of the First Continental Congress were slow in reaching them. On receiving them, the people assembled in convention. They expressed adhesion to the "American Association" (which see),

and named as their committee to arrange public affairs Charles Cummings, their minister, and Messrs. Preston, Christian, two Campbells, Evan Shelby, and a few of less note among them. They adopted the representatives of Virginia as their own, and feeling that they had a country and rights to defend, said: "We are deliberately and resolutely determined never to surrender any of our inestimable privileges to any power upon earth but at the expense of our lives. These are our real, though unpolished, sentiments of liberty and loyalty, and in them we are resolved to live and die."

Patriotism Aroused (1798). The insolent tone of the French Directory and the depredations upon American commerce aroused a patriotic spirit in the United States in the spring of 1798, which was everywhere manifest. The younger Republicans wore black cockades on their hats, as in the Revolution, and popular songs kept the flame alive among the people. Two of them—*Hail Columbia*, by Joseph Hopkinson, and *Adams and Liberty*, by Robert Treat Paine—were specially instrumental in stirring the popular mind and heart. The former, almost totally destitute of poetic merit, is still sung, and is regarded as a sort of national song; the latter, full of genuine poetry, has been forgotten. Both were the product of the spirit of the time, to serve a temporary purpose. (See *Hail Columbia* and *Adams and Liberty*.)

Patriotism Defiant. Samuel Adams was early marked as an inflexible patriot and most earnest promoter of the cause of freedom. Governor Gage sought to bribe him to desist from his opposition to the acts of Parliament concerning taxation in America. The governor sent Colonel Fenton on this errand. He said to Adams that he was authorized by Gage to assure him that he (the governor) had been empowered to confer upon him such benefits as would be satisfactory, upon the condition that he would engage to cease his opposition to the measures of government. He also observed, that it was the advice of Governor Gage to him not to incur the further displeasure of his majesty; that his conduct had been such as made him liable to the penalties of the Act of Henry VIII., by which persons could be sent to England for trial of treason or misprision of treason, at the discretion of the governor of a province; but by changing his political course, he would not only receive great personal advantages, but would thereby make his peace with his king. Adams listened attentively, and at the conclusion of the colonel's remarks he asked him if he would deliver a reply exactly as it should be given. He assented, when Adams, rising from his chair and assuming a determined manner, said: "I trust I have long since made my peace with the King of kings. No personal consideration shall induce me to abandon the righteous cause of my country. Tell Governor Gage it is the advice of Samuel Adams to him no longer to insult the feelings of an exasperated people."

Patriotism of Mutinous Soldiers. When Sir Henry Clinton heard of the revolt of the

Pennsylvania line (which see), mistaking the spirit of the mutineers, he despatched two emissaries—a British sergeant and a New Jersey Tory named Ogden—to the insurgents, with a written offer that, on laying down their arms and marching to New York, they should receive their arrearages and the amount of the depreciation of the Continental currency in hard cash; that they should be well clothed, have a free pardon for all past offences, and be taken under the protection of the British government; that no military service should be required of them, unless voluntarily offered. Sir Henry requested them to appoint agents to treat with his, and adjust terms; and, not doubting the success of his plans, he went to Staten Island himself, with a large body of troops, to act as circumstances might require. Sir Henry entirely misapprehended the temper of these mutineers. They felt justified in using their power to obtain a redress of grievances, but they looked with horror upon the armed oppressors of their country, and they regarded the act and stain of treason, under any circumstances, as worse than the infliction of death. Clinton's proposals were rejected with disdain. "See, comrades," said one of them, "he takes us for traitors; let us show him that the American army can furnish but one Arnold, and that America has no truer friends than we." They seized the emissaries, and delivered them, with Clinton's papers, into the hands of Wayne, and they were tried, condemned, and executed as spies. The reward which had been offered for the apprehension of the offenders was tendered to the mutineers who seized them. They sealed the pledge of their patriotism by nobly refusing it, saying: "Necessity wrung from us the act of demanding justice from Congress, but we desire no reward for doing our duty to our bleeding country."

Patrons of Husbandry. Public attention was much occupied in 1873 with the subject of cheap transportation along the courses of commerce from the Western States to the seaboard. Congress decided that the national government, under express provisions of the Constitution, had power to regulate commerce carried on by railroads. On March 7, 1874, a bill was introduced, and passed the House of Representatives, for the institution of a Board of Commissioners for the regulation of such commerce carried on between the several states. In that movement a new organization, known as "Patrons of Husbandry," appeared conspicuous. It was a secret order, established for the promotion of the various interests of agriculture, and had then become powerful in numbers and in influence. It was divided into local associations, called granges. There was a central, or parent, organization at Washington, known as the National Grange, and state granges were formed. The membership consisted of men and women engaged in agricultural pursuits. These granges first appeared in 1870, when there were only ninety in the whole Union. In 1876, when they reached their maximum in strength, there were 19,000. Its aims were excellent, and it was the first secret society that admitted both men and women

to membership. The founder of the granges knew the value and influence of women in the work. In one county, of the annual production, in 1876, of more than 600,000 pounds of butter and 25,000 pounds of cheese, a very large proportion of the manual and mental labor was performed by women. In a similar proportion is her labor seen in the cultivation and harvesting of other farm products.

Patroons. To induce private capitalists to engage in making settlements in New Netherland, the West India Company, in 1629, resolved to grant lands and manorial privileges to such as should accept the conditions of a proposed charter of "Privileges and Exemptions." Reserving the island of Manhattan, they offered to grant lands in any part of New Netherland, to the extent of sixteen miles along any navigable stream (or four miles if on each shore), and indefinitely in the interior, to any person who should agree to plant a colony of fifty adults within four years; or, if he should bring more, his domain to be proportionately enlarged. He was to be absolutely lord of the manor, politically and otherwise, holding inferior courts for the jurisdiction of petty civil cases; and, if cities should grow up on his domain, he was to have power to appoint the magistrates and other officers of such municipalities, and have a deputy to confer with the governor. These lords of manors were called patroons, or patrons, and the settlers under them were to be exempted from all taxation and tribute for the support of the provincial government for ten years; and for the same period every man, woman, and child was bound not to leave the service of the patroon without his written consent. The colonists were forbidden to manufacture cloth of any kind, on pain of banishment; and the company agreed to furnish them with as many African slaves "as they conveniently could;" also, to protect them against foes. Each colony was bound to support a minister of the Gospel and a schoolmaster, and so provide a comforter of the sick and a teacher of the illiterate. Such was the modified feudalism introduced into the young Dutch colony, which naturally fostered aristocratic ideas. It recognized the right of the Indians to the soil by compelling its purchase from them; it invited independent farmers, to whom a homestead should be secured, and promised protection to all in case of war, and encouraged religion and learning. Yet the free New-England system was far better for the development and growth of popular liberty. Several of these patroon domains were secured by directors of the Amsterdam Chamber, that of Van Rensselaer remaining in the family until early in the present century. (See *Anti-rentism*.) The patroons began vigorously to make settlements on the Hudson and Delaware rivers, and so construed the charter of "Privileges and Exemptions" that they claimed a right to traffic with the Indians. This brought them into collision with the other directors, whose jealousy was aroused. The patroons persisted, and an appeal was made to the States-General, which prudently postponed

a decision, "in order to enable the parties to come to an amicable settlement." So ended the action of the Dutch government in the matter. The patroon system discouraged individual enterprise. Private persons who wished to emigrate dared not attempt it. Some of the best tracts of land in the colony were appropriated by the patroons. The latter, ambitious and grasping, attempted to enlarge their privileges, and boldly presented to the States-General a new plan for the purpose, in which they demanded that they should monopolize more territory; have longer time to settle colonists; be invested with larger feudal powers; be made entirely independent of the control of the company with respect to the internal government of the colonies; enjoy free-trade throughout and around New Netherland; have a vote in the Council of the Director-General; be supplied with convicts from Holland as servants, and with negro slaves; and, finally, that all private persons and poor immigrants should be forbidden to purchase lands from the Indians, and should be required to settle themselves within the established colonies and under the control of the manorial lords. These extravagant demands caused their existing privileges to be curtailed by a new charter of "Privileges and Exemptions," issued in 1640. A host of smaller "masters of colonies" was created, and the legal powers of the old patroons were abridged. Quarrels between these lords of manors and the civil government of New Netherland continued until the province passed from the possession of the Dutch to that of the English.

Patten, GEORGE W., was born at Newport, R. I., in 1808. He graduated at Brown University in 1824 and at West Point in 1830. He served in the war against the Seminoles and in Mexico, and was breveted major for gallantry at Cerro Gordo, where he lost a hand. He was made lieutenant-colonel Second Infantry, June 7, 1862, and retired Feb. 17, 1864. Colonel Patten was a contributor of poetical pieces for periodicals from his youth, and a volume of his poems was published in 1867. He was also author of an *Army Manual*, published in 1863, and *Tactics and Drill for Infantry, Artillery, and Cavalry*, three volumes (1861-63). He died April 28, 1882.

Patterson, DANIEL T., was born in New York, and died at Washington, D. C., Aug. 25, 1839. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1800; was with Bainbridge at Tripoli, and was master-commander in 1813. In 1814 he commanded the naval force at and near New Orleans that co-operated efficiently with General Jackson in defence of that city. (See *New Orleans, Battles near*.) Patterson was active, afloat and ashore, for nearly forty years.

Patterson, JOHN, was born at New Britain, Conn., in 1744; died in Broome County, N. Y., July 19, 1808. He graduated at Yale College in 1762; became a lawyer, and was an active patriot in Massachusetts at the breaking-out of the Revolution, being a member of the Provincial Congress. He lived in Berkshire. After the affair at Lexington (April 19, 1775) he hast-

ened with a regiment of minute-men to Cambridge, where he cast up the first redoubt of the fortifications around Boston. After the evacuation of that city he was sent to Canada, and a part of his regiment was engaged at the Cedars (which see). When the army left Canada he joined Washington, and was engaged in the battles of Trenton and Princeton; and in February, 1777, he was made brigadier-general and attached to the Northern Department, where he rendered important services in the events which ended in the capture of Burgoyne. At the battle of Monmouth, the next year, he was very efficient, and remained in the service until the close of the war. In 1786 he headed a detachment of Berkshire militia, sent to suppress Shays's Insurrection (which see). He removed to Lisle, N. Y., after that, where he became a member of the Legislature, member of the convention that revised the state constitution in 1801, and member of Congress from 1803 to 1805.

Patterson, ROBERT, was born in Tyrone County, Ireland, January 12, 1792, and was brought to America by his parents in his early youth. He engaged in mercantile pursuits; but when the War of 1812 broke out, he gratified his taste for the military profession, and entered the army in 1813 as first-lieutenant of infantry, and soon became assistant deputy-quartermaster with the rank of captain. He was made full captain in 1814, and served to the end of the war. He resumed mercantile life and became largely interested in manufactures. Commissioned major-general of volunteers when the war with Mexico broke out, he took an active part in the campaign under Scott from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. When the Civil War broke out, in 1861, General Patterson was placed in command of a division of three months' men, and was assigned to a military department composed of the states of Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, and the District of Columbia. In command of troops watching the forces under the Confederate general Johnston at Winchester, Va., the failure of



ROBERT PATTERSON.

General Scott to send him orders for which he had been positively directed to wait, caused him to fail to co-operate with McDowell in his movements that resulted in the battle of Bull's Run.

II.—9*

For this failure he was unjustly dismissed from the service, and he was under a cloud for some time. Documentary evidence finally exonerated him from all blame. He did not re-enter the service, being then nearly seventy years of age. He lived, possessed of remarkable vigor of mind and body, until Aug. 7, 1881.

Paulding, HIRAM, was born in Westchester County, N. Y., Dec. 11, 1797; died at Huntington, L. I., Oct. 20, 1878. In September, 1811, he entered the United States Navy as midshipman; was under Macdonough, on Lake Champlain, and



HIRAM PAULDING.

received a sword from Congress for his services there. He accompanied Porter against the pirates in the West Indies in 1823, and became master-commander in 1837. He was commissioned captain in 1844, and was in active service in the West Indies and on the Pacific coast; and for the important services which he rendered the State of Nicaragua in suppressing the filibuster Walker (see *Nicaragua, Invasion of*), that republic gave him a sword. He was made a rear-admiral on the retired list (1861). In command of the navy-yard at Brooklyn (1862-65) he did excellent service in preparing ships for the different squadrons, and in 1866 was governor of the Philadelphia Naval Asylum. Admiral Paulding was a son of John Paulding, one of the captors of Major André.

Paulding, JAMES KIRKE, was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., Aug. 22, 1779; died at Hyde Park, in the same county, April 5, 1860. He was a son of an active Revolutionary soldier, who was commissary-general of New York troops in the Continental service, and was ruined by the non-acceptance by the government of his drafts, or non-redemption of his pledges, and he was imprisoned for debt. James went to the city of New York, and in early life became engaged in literary pursuits with Washington Irving, whose brother William married Paulding's sister. They began, in 1807, the popular publica-

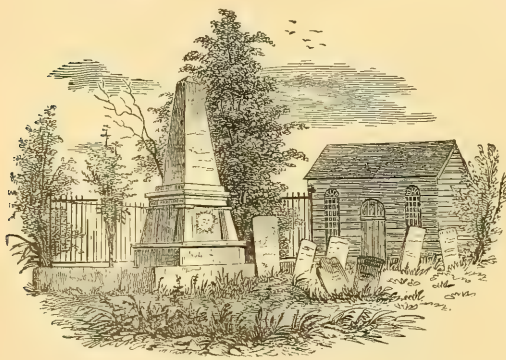
tion *Salmagundi*. He was introduced to the government through his pamphlet on *The United States and England*, and, in 1814, he was made secretary of the Board of Naval Commissioners. Afterwards he was Navy Agent at New York, and, from 1839 to 1841, he was Secretary of the Navy. Mr. Paulding was a facile and elegant writer of essays and stories, and was possessed of a fund of humor that pervaded his compositions. He contributed to the periodicals of the day, and wrote and published several volumes.

Paulding, JOHN, one of the captors of André, was born in 1758; died at Staatsburg, N. Y., Feb. 18, 1818. Three times he was made a prisoner



JOHN PAULDING.

during the war for independence, and had escaped, the second time, only four days before the capture of André. He and his associates received from Congress a silver medal each, and were awarded an annuity of \$200. In 1827 a marble monument was erected by the corpora-



PAULDING'S MONUMENT, AND ST. PETER'S CHURCH.

tion of New York city in St. Peter's church-yard near Peekskill as a memorial of him.

Paulus's Hook, SURPRISE OF. There was a

British military work at Paulus's Hook (now Jersey City), garrisoned by 500 men, under Major Sutherland. A plan was formed for taking it by surprise, and its execution was intrusted to Major Henry Lee, then back of Bergen. With 300 picked men, followed by a strong detachment under Lord Stirling as a reserve, at half-past three o'clock on the morning of the 19th of August, 1779, he had passed the unguarded outer works and entered the main works undiscovered; for the garrison, feeling secure, had not barred the sally-port, and the sentinels were all absent or asleep. The surprise was most complete. He captured 159 of the garrison, including officers. The remainder retreated to a circular redoubt. It was too strong to be affected by small-arms, and Lee retreated, with his prisoners, back to camp. His loss was only two killed and three wounded. (See *Lee, Henry*.) In September following Congress voted thanks to Lee for this exploit, and a gold medal, represented in the engraving on p. 1059.

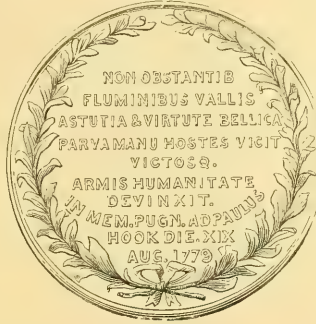
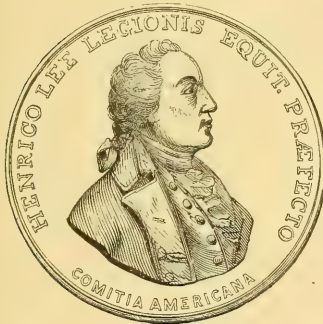
Pavonia. Michael Pauw, one of the directors of the Dutch West India Company (which see), bought (1630) a large tract of land in (present) New Jersey of the Indians, including Jersey City and Hoboken, to which he presently added, by purchase, Staten Island and neighboring districts, and became a patroon (which see). This region was called Pavonia.

Pawnees. This warlike tribe of North American Indians lived in villages of earth-covered logs, on the borders of the Platte River, in Nebraska and Kansas. They appear to be of the Illinois family, divided into several bands, and were continually at war with the Sioux and other surrounding tribes. Hostile to the Spaniards, they have ever been friendly towards the Americans. Sometimes they sacrificed prisoners to the sun; cultivated a few vegetables; shaved their heads, excepting the scalp-lock; the women dressed decently, and the men went on a hunt regularly to the plains for buffalo. At the beginning of this century they numbered about 6000, with 2000 warriors. In 1833 they were seated upon a reservation north of the Nebraska River, and made rapid progress towards civilization, when the fierce Sioux swept down upon them, ravaged their country, and killed many of their people. Driven south of the Nebraska, they lost nearly half their number by disease. In 1861 they numbered 3414, and assisted the government in a war with the Sioux. As soon as the latter made peace with the government, they fell upon the Pawnees and slaughtered them without mercy. In 1872 their crops were destroyed by locusts, and they removed to another section, where they were placed under charge of the Friends, or Quakers, with a perpetual annuity of \$30,000.

Paxton Mob, MASSACRE OF INDIANS BY THE. The atrocities of Pontiac's confederates on the frontiers of Pennsylvania (see *Pontiac's War*) aroused the ferocity of the Scotch-Irish settlers there, and, on the night of Dec. 14, 1763, nearly fifty of them fell upon some

peaceful and friendly Indians at Conestoga, on the Susquehanna, who were living quietly there, under the guidance of Moravian missionaries. These Indians were wrongly suspected of harboring or corresponding with hostile barbarians. Very few of the Indians were ever at Conestoga, and all who remained—men, women, and children

success, and, at the age of twenty and twenty-one, he played with equal success at Drury Lane, London. While there he produced many dramas, chiefly adaptations from the French. In one of these occurs the song "Home, Sweet Home," by which he is chiefly known. Payne became a correspondent of Coleridge and Lamb; and, in 1818, when he was twenty-six years of age, his tragedy of *Brutus* was successfully brought out at Drury Lane. Payne returned to America in 1832. He was appointed consul at Tunis, and died in office there. His remains were brought to Washington late in March, 1883, and interred at Georgetown.



MEDAL AWARDED TO LEE. (See p. 1058.)

—were murdered by the "Paxton Boys," as they called themselves. The village, with the winter stores, was laid in ashes. The citizens of Lancaster collected the scattered survivors into the workhouse for protection. The "Paxton Boys" burst into it, and before the citizens could assemble, murdered all the Indians and fled. The Moravian Indians at Wyalusing and Nain hurried to Philadelphia for protection, but the "Paxton Boys" threatened to go there in large numbers and kill them, and they were sent to Province Island, put under the charge of a garrison there, and were saved. The government offered a reward for the arrest of the murderers, but such was the state of feeling in the interior of Pennsylvania that no one dared to move in the matter. It assumed a political and religious aspect. The proprietary governor was blamed for not removing these friendly Indians to Philadelphia long before, as he had promised to do. The Moravians and Quakers were blamed for fostering "murderous Indians." The citizens of Lancaster were blamed for what they did and what they did not do; and the whole Presbyterian Church (the Scotch-Irish were mostly Presbyterians) was charged with shielding the murderers from the hands of justice. The participants in the crime were not ignorant and vulgar borderers, but men of such high standing and consequence that the press, in denouncing their acts, forbore to give their names.

Payne, JOHN HOWARD, was born in New York, June 9, 1792; died at Tunis, Africa, April 10, 1852. He was very precocious, editing *The Thespian Mirror* when only thirteen years of age. He became a poet, a dramatist, and an actor of renown. At the age of fifteen and sixteen he published twenty-five numbers of a periodical called *The Pastime*, and in 1809, at the age of seventeen, he made a successful entrance upon the theatrical profession at the Park Theatre, New York, as "Young Norval." In 1810 he played "Hamlet" and other leading parts with great

1869. After serving as clerk in his uncle's store in Georgetown, D. C., in 1812-13, he became a partner with Elisha Riggs, in New York, and afterwards in Baltimore. In July, 1843, he became a banker, in London, and amassed an immense fortune, which he used in making princely benefactions, as follows: To his native town, \$200,000, to establish a lyceum and library; to the first Grinnell expedition in search of Sir John Franklin, \$10,000; to found an institute of science, literature, and the fine arts, in Baltimore, \$1,400,000; and, in 1862, to the city of London, \$2,500,000, for the benefit of its poor, for which the queen gave him her portrait, the city its "freedom," and the citizens erected a statue of him. In 1866 he gave to Harvard University \$150,000 to establish a museum and professorship of American archaeology and ethnology, and, the same year, to the Southern Educational Fund, just created, \$2,000,000. He also gave to Yale College, to found a geological branch of instruction, \$150,000.

Peace and Loyalty in South Carolina. The fall of Charleston in May, 1780, and the presence of large bodies of British troops marching into the interior, caused all resistance in that state to cease for a time. On June 3 Sir Henry Clinton issued a proclamation, signed by himself alone, in which he required all the inhabitants of the province who were then prisoners on parole to take an active part in securing the royal government. "Should they neglect to return to their allegiance," said the proclamation, "they will be treated as rebels to the government of the king." For a while there seemed to be only one side in politics in the Palmetto State; and when he was on the eve of departure for New York, Sir Henry reported to Germain that "the inhabitants from every quarter declare their allegiance to the king, and offer their services in arms. There are few men in South Carolina who are not either our prisoners or in arms with us." He left behind him a slumbering volcano.

Peace Commissioners. General and Admiral Howe, who arrived at New York almost simultaneously (July, 1776), were authorized as joint commissioners to treat with the Americans for reconciliation, pursuant to a recent act of Parliament. They had very limited powers. They were not allowed to recognize the validity of any Congress, or of the commission of any military officer among the colonies; they could only treat with persons as individuals; grant pardons to individuals or communities which should lay down their arms or dissolve their governments, but they might not be judges of any complaints, nor promise any redress. They began the business of their mission in the spirit of these instructions by addressing the American commander-in-chief as "Mr. Washington, Esq.," in superscribing a note which they sent by a flag, accompanied with a copy of the declaration of the royal clemency. Washington refused to receive it. An officer who bore a second note (which also was not received), assured Washington that the commissioners were invested with large powers to effect reconciliation. "They seem to have power only to grant pardons," said Washington—"having committed no fault, we need no pardon." The admiral addressed a letter to Dr. Franklin, whom he had known personally in England, and received a reply, courteous in tone, but in nowise soothing to his feelings as a statesman or a Briton. As they had equal power to negotiate peace or wage war, the commissioners now prosecuted the latter, and not long afterwards the battle on Long Island occurred, in which the Americans were defeated. General Sullivan was among the prisoners. Thinking it to be a favorable time to try their peace measures again, the commissioners sent Sullivan, on his parole, to Congress, to induce that body to designate some person with whom the admiral might hold a conference. They appointed Messrs. Franklin, Adams, and Rutledge a committee to meet him, informally, at a place on Staten Island (which he had indicated) opposite Amboy. They met there (Sept. 11, 1776) at the house of the loyalist Colonel Billop. Both parties were very cour-



THE BILLOP HOUSE.

teous. Lord Howe told them he could not receive them as representatives of the Congress, but as private gentlemen, and that the independence of the colonists, lately declared, could not be considered for a moment. "You may call us what you please," they said, "we are, nevertheless, the representatives of a free and

independent people, and will entertain no proposition which does not recognize our independence." Further conference was unnecessary; the gulf between them was too great.

Peace Commissioners, AMERICAN. After the total destruction of the Southern Army near Camden (August, 1780), some of the Southern members of Congress, alarmed at the progress of the British, became so anxious for the aid of Spain that they proposed (October, 1780) to abandon all claims to the navigation of the Mississippi as the price of a Spanish subsidy and alliance. Meanwhile (January, 1781) the Empress of Russia had been joined by the Emperor of Germany in an offer of mediation. Great Britain, getting wearied of the war, had accepted the offer. These facts being communicated to Congress by the French minister, a committee was appointed to confer with him. Their report, the opinions of the French ambassador, and the financial pressure made Congress greatly modify its terms of peace on which they had so strenuously insisted. They waived an express acknowledgment of independence. They were willing (May) to accept anything which substantially amounted to it. The treaty with France was to be maintained in full force, but all else was intrusted to the discretion of the negotiators for peace who might be appointed, former instructions indicating the wishes of Congress. These concessions (June) were opposed by the New England delegates, but were adopted by the votes of Southern members, who, again invaded, were anxious for peace. It was proposed to have five commissioners who should represent the different sections of the Union, and John Adams, John Jay, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, and Henry Laurens were appointed. The Russian and German mediation resulted in nothing. Great Britain haughtily refused to acknowledge the independence of the United States in any form. (*See Treaty of Peace, Preliminary and Definitive.*)

Peace Commissioners, NEW. On June 4, 1778, the Earl of Carlisle, George Johnstone, and William Eden, commissioners appointed by the king under Lord North's Conciliatory Bills (which see), arrived at Philadelphia with Adam Ferguson as secretary. The brothers Howe, who were to be of the commission, could not join them, but Sir Henry Clinton took the place of Sir William. The commissioners sent their credentials and other papers by Ferguson to the Congress at York, Penn., with a flag. That body and the American people, having already perused the bills and found in them no word about independence, had resolved to have nothing to do with commissioners that might be sent, and to meet no advance on the part of the government of Great Britain unless the fleets and armies should be withdrawn and the independence of the United States be declared. Their papers were returned to them with a letter from the president of the Congress saying they could not treat excepting on a basis of acknowledged independence. The commissioners tried by various arts to accomplish their purpose, but failed, and, after issuing

an angry and threatening manifesto, sailed for England in October.

Peace Conference at Hampton Roads.

Francis P. Blair, Sr., conceived the idea that through his personal acquaintance with most of the Confederate leaders at Richmond he might be able to effect a peace between the government and the insurgents. So, without informing the President of his purpose, he asked Mr. Lincoln for a pass through the National lines to the Confederate capital. On Dec. 26, 1864, the President handed Mr. Blair a card on which was written, "Allow Mr. F. P. Blair, Sr., to pass our lines to go South and return," and signed his name to it. This self-constituted peace commissioner went to Richmond, had several interviews with President Davis, and made his way back to Washington in January, 1865, with a letter written to himself by Jefferson Davis, in which the latter expressed a willingness to appoint a commission "to renew the effort (see *Greeley's Peace Mission*) to enter into a conference with a view to secure peace to the two countries." This letter Mr. Blair placed in the hands of the President, when the latter wrote a note to Blair which he might show to Davis, in which he expressed a willingness now, as he had ever had, to take proper measures for "securing peace to the people of our common country." With this letter Blair returned to Richmond. Mr. Lincoln's expression, "our common country," as opposed to Davis's "the two countries," deprived the latter of all hope of a negotiation on terms of independence for the "Confederate States." But there was an intense popular desire for the war to cease which he dared not resist, and he appointed Alexander H. Stephens, John A. Campbell, and R. M. T. Hunter, commissioners to proceed to Washington. They were permitted to go on a steamer only as far as Hampton Roads, without the privilege of landing, and there, on board the vessel that conveyed them, they held a conference (Feb. 3, 1865) of several hours with President Lincoln and Secretary of State Seward. That conference clearly revealed the wishes of both parties. The Confederates wanted an armistice by which an immediate peace might be secured, leaving the question of the separation of the "Confederate States" from the Union to be settled afterwards. The President told them plainly that there would be no suspension of hostilities and no negotiations, except on the basis of the disbandment of the insurgent forces and the recognition of the national authority throughout the Republic. He declared, also, that he should not recede from his position on the subject of slavery, and the commissioners were informed of the adoption by Congress three days before of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution (which see). So ended the Peace Conference. In a speech at a public meeting in Richmond on Jan. 6, Davis, in reference to the words of President Lincoln—"our common country"—said, "Sooner than we should ever be united again, I would be willing to yield up everything I hold on earth, and, if it were possible, would sacrifice my life a thousand times before I would succumb." The meeting passed

resolutions spurning with indignation the terms offered by the President as a "gross insult" and "premeditated indignity" to the people of the "Confederate States." Davis declared that in less than twelve months they would "compel the Yankees to petition them for peace upon their own terms." He spoke of "His Majesty Abraham the First," and said that "before the campaign was over, Lincoln and Seward might find they had been speaking to their masters." At a war-meeting held a few days afterwards at Richmond, it was resolved that they would never lay down their arms until their independence was won.

Peace Congress. On Jan. 19, 1861, a series of resolutions were adopted by the Virginia Legislature, recommending a National Peace Convention or Congress to be held in the city of Washington on the 4th day of February, for the alleged purpose of effecting a general and permanent pacification; commending the Crittenden Compromise (which see) as a just basis of settlement; and appointing two commissioners, one to go to the President of the United States, and the other to the governors of the seceding states, to ask them to abstain from all hostile action pending the proceedings of the proposed convention. The proposition for such a convention was received with great favor. The President (Buchanan) laid it before Congress with a commendatory message, but the Virginians accompanied this proposition with a menace. On the same day the Legislature resolved, "That if all efforts to reconcile the unhappy differences between the sections of our country shall prove abortive, then every consideration of honor and interest demands that Virginia shall unite her destinies with the slave-holding states." Delegates to the Peace convention were chosen from nearly every state but the seven seceding ones. They met at Willard's Hotel, in Washington city, Feb. 4. The convention was permanently organized by the appointment of ex-President John Tyler, of Virginia, to preside, and Crafts J. Wright, of Ohio, as secretary. The convention was opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. P. D. Gurley. Mr. Guthrie, of Kentucky, opened the business by offering a resolution for the appointment of a committee consisting of one from each state represented, to whom all resolutions and propositions for the adjustment of difficulties might be referred, with authority to report a plan to "restore harmony and preserve the Union." The committee was appointed, and Mr. Guthrie was chosen its chairman. He made a report on the 15th, in which several amendments to the Constitution were offered. It proposed, *First*. The re-establishment of the boundary between slavery and freedom on the line fixed by the Missouri Compromise (which see)—36° 30' north latitude. It also proposed that when any territory north or south of that line should contain the requisite number of inhabitants to form a state, it *should* (the national Constitution says *may*) be admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original states, either with or without slavery, as the constitution of the new state may determine. *Sec-*

and. That territory should not be acquired by the United States unless by treaty, nor, except for naval or commercial stations, unless such treaty should be ratified by four fifths of all the members of the Senate. *Third.* That neither the Constitution nor any amendment thereof should be construed to give power to Congress to interfere with slavery in any of the states of the Union, nor in the District of Columbia, without the consent of Maryland and the slaveholders concerned, compensation to be made for slaves emancipated to owners who refuse their consent; nor to interfere with slavery under the jurisdiction of the United States, such as in arsenals, navy-yards, etc., in states where it was recognized; nor to interfere with the transportation of slaves from one slave-labor state to another; nor to authorize any higher taxation on slaves than on land. *Fourth.* That the clause in the Constitution relating to the rendition of slaves should not be construed to prevent any of the states, by appropriate legislation, and through the action of their judicial and ministerial officers, from enforcing the delivery of fugitives from labor to the person to whom such service or labor should be due. *Fifth.* That the foreign slave-trade should be forever prohibited. *Sixth.* That the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 5th of the foregoing propositions, when in the form of ratified amendments to the Constitution, and the clause relating to the rendition of fugitive slaves, should not be amended or abolished without the consent of all the states. *Seventh.* That Congress should provide by law that the United States should pay to the owner the full value of his fugitive slave in all cases where the law-officer whose duty it was to arrest such fugitive should be prevented from doing so by violence or intimidation, or where such fugitive should be rescued, after arrest, and the claimant thereby should lose his property. This was the majority report, and was substantially the Crittenden Compromise then before the Senate. Two members of the committee—Baldwin, of Connecticut, and Seddon, of Virginia—each presented a minority report. The former proposed a general convention of all the states to consider amendments to the Constitution; the latter objected to the majority report because it fell short of the demands of Virginia. He proposed an amendment to the Constitution that would protect the slaveholder in transporting his slaves anywhere, as property; also that should forever exclude from the ballot-box and public office "persons who are in whole or in part of the African race." He also proposed an amendment recognizing the right of peaceable secession. Seddon was afterwards the Confederate "Secretary of War." Other propositions were submitted by members in open convention, among them one from Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, proposing an adjournment of the convention to the 4th of April, to enable all the states to be represented. The various propositions were earnestly discussed for several days. David Dudley Field, of New York, proposed (Feb. 26) to amend the majority report by striking out the 7th section and inserting the words "No state shall withdraw

from the Union without the consent of all the states convened in pursuance of an act passed by two thirds of each House of Congress." This was rejected by a vote of eleven states against ten. The votes were by states. When, on the same day, the majority report was taken up for final action, Baldwin's proposition, offered as a substitute, was rejected by a vote of thirteen states against eight. Seddon then offered his substitute, and it was rejected—sixteen states against four. James B. Clay, a son of Henry Clay, then offered Crittenden's Compromise. It was rejected by fourteen states against five. Guthrie's report was then taken up, and after some modifications was adopted. Following this, T. E. Franklin moved, as the sense of the convention, that the highest political duty of every citizen of the United States is allegiance to the national government, and that no state has a constitutional right to secede therefrom. It was rejected by ten states against seven. Mr. Guthrie offered a preamble to his propositions, which was agreed to, and Mr. Tyler was requested to present the plan to Congress forthwith. This ended the business of the convention, when Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, obtained leave to place on record and have printed with the proceedings of the convention a resolution deploring the secession of some of the states; expressing a hope that they would return; that "the republican institutions guaranteed each state cannot and ought not to be maintained by force," and that therefore the convention deprecated any effort of the Federal government to coerce, in any form, the said states to reunion or submission, as tending to an irreparable breach, and leading to incalculable ills. The proceedings of the convention were immediately laid before the Senate (March 2, 1861). After a long debate on that and several other propositions, it was finally decided by a vote of twenty-five to eleven to postpone the "Guthrie plan" in favor of a proposition of amendment adopted by the House of Representatives, which provided that "no amendment shall be made to the Constitution which will authorize or give to Congress the power to interfere within any state with the domestic institutions thereof." The Senate concurred, and the Crittenden Compromise being called up, it was rejected. The Peace convention was a failure. It was a vain attempt to conciliate the slave power.

Peace Congress at Vienna (1782). Prince Kaunitz agreed with Vergennes that, in a proposed peace congress at Vienna, the United States government should be represented, so that direct negotiations between it and Great Britain might proceed simultaneously with those of the European powers. The proposition was pronounced by the able Queen of France to be a masterpiece of political wisdom. But England refused to negotiate for peace with France until that power should give up its connection with the American "rebels." This proposition was embodied by Kaunitz in the preliminary articles which he prepared for the peace congress. He cast the blame of its ill-success on the unreasonable pretensions of the British ministry.

Peace Establishment (1784). When the evacuation of the seaboard by the British was completed (November, 1783) the Northern and Western frontier posts continued to be held by British garrisons. These were Oswegatchie (now Ogdensburg), Oswego, Niagara, Presque Isle (now Erie), Sandusky, Detroit, Mackinaw, and some of lesser importance. The occupation of these posts by garrisons did not enter into the calculations for an immediate peace establishment at the close of the Revolution, and the military force retained was less than seven hundred men. These were under the command of Knox, and placed in garrison at West Point and Pittsburgh. Even these were discharged very soon afterwards, excepting twenty-five men to guard the stores at Pittsburgh and fifty-five for West Point. No officer above the rank of captain was retained in the service. It was provided, however, that whenever the Western posts should be surrendered by the British, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania should furnish their quota of seven hundred twelve-months' men to do garrison duty.

Peace Establishment (1815). At the close of the war President Madison proposed a military peace establishment of 20,000 men. When Congress considered it, the House of Representatives proposed 6000, and the Senate proposed 15,000. There was a compromise, and 10,000 was the number agreed to. Two major-generals, four brigadier-generals, and the necessary staff, regimental, and company officers, were selected by the President from those in the service. The supernumerary officers and men, ac-

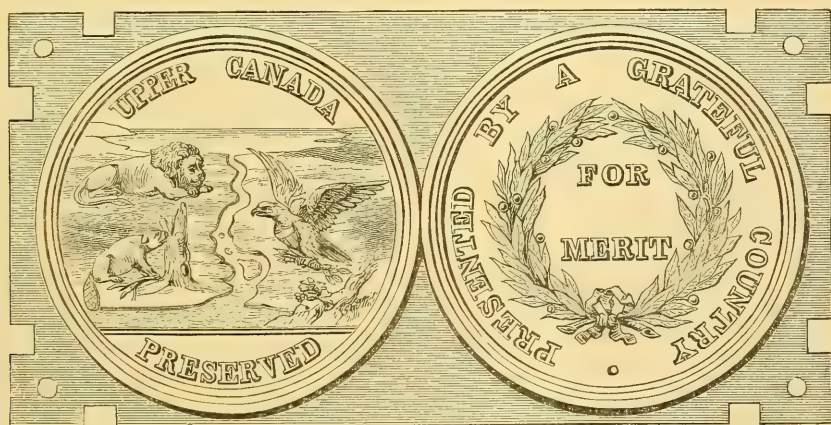
counting \$200,000 annually for three years for its gradual increase. A board of three naval officers was created to exercise, under the Secretary of the Navy, the general superintendence of the Navy Department. The grade of officers in the naval service remained unaltered, a proposition to create the offices of admiral and vice-admiral having failed.

Peace Medals. There was rejoicing in Great Britain as well as America on the concluding of peace in 1814, particularly among the manufacturing and mercantile classes. A medal was



MEDAL COMMEMORATIVE OF THE TREATY OF PEACE.

struck in commemoration of the great event, which bore upon one side the words "TREATY OF PEACE AND AMITY BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. SIGNED AT GHENT, DEC. 24, 1814;" and upon the other a feminine figure standing on the segment of a globe, bearing the cornucopia of plenty, and holding in one hand the olive-branch of peace. Another was struck, which is represented in the above engraving. The British government, grateful for the loyalty of Canada during the war, caused a medal of gratitude to be struck, as seen in the engraving below.



MEDAL OF GRATITUDE.

ording to the original terms of enlistment, were to be discharged, with three months' extra pay. The naval establishment was left as it was, with an additional appropriation of

Peace Party (1812-15). On the declaration of war (June, 1812), an organization known as the "Peace party" soon appeared, composed of the more violent opposers of the administration

and disaffected Democrats, whose partisan spirit it held their patriotism in complete subordination. Lacking the sincerity and integrity of the patriotic members of the Congressional minority, whose protest against the war had been conscientiously made, this Peace faction endeavored—by attempting to injure the public credit, preventing enlistments into the armies, spreading false stories concerning the strength of the British and the weakness of the Americans, and public speeches, sermons, pamphlets, and newspaper essays—to compel the government to sheath the sword and hold out the olive-branch of peace at the cost of national honor and independence. Their unscrupulous, and sometimes treasonable, machinations were kept up during the whole war, and prolonged it by embarrassing their government. The better portion of the Federal party discountenanced these acts. With a clear perception of duty to the country, rather than to their party, leaders like Quincy, Emott, and a host of others gave their support to the government in its hour of need.

Peace Party (1861–65). The first call for the marshalling of the hosts of the Peace party, so conspicuous during the late Civil War, was sounded in Congress when (July 10, 1861) a loan bill was introduced authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to borrow \$250,000,000 for the support of the government and to prosecute a war in its defence. Clement L. Vallandigham, a representative in Congress from Ohio, made an elaborate speech against the measure and the entire policy of the administration in its vindication of the national authority by force of arms. He charged the President with usurpation in calling out and increasing the military and naval forces of the country; in blockading ports; in suspending the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*; and other acts which the safety of the government seemed to require—and all done without the express authority of Congress. He declared that the denunciation of slavery and slaveholders was the cause of the war; denounced the revenue laws as injurious to the cotton-growers; charged his political opponents with being anxious for war instead of peace, and of having adopted a war policy for partisan purposes; warned the country that other usurpations would follow, such as the denial of the right of petition and the freedom of conscience; and pronounced the war for the “coercion of sovereign states” to be “unholy and unjust.” From that time until the close of the war, and afterwards, Mr. Vallandigham used all his powers in giving “aid and comfort” to the Secessionists. He and the Peace party opposed every measure of the administration for suppressing insurrection during the entire war. They were doubtless sincere; but the friends of the Republic regarded them as mistaken and mischievous. Benjamin Wood, representative from New York, proposed (July 15) that Congress should take measures for assembling a border-state convention to devise means for securing peace. Mr. Powell, of Kentucky, introduced (July 18) an addition to a bill for the reorganization of the army, which de-

clared that no part of the army or navy should be employed in “subjecting or holding as a conquered province any sovereign state now or lately one of the United States.” To this J. C. Breckinridge (who soon afterwards held a brigadier-general’s commission in the Confederate army) added “or to abolish slavery therein.” From the beginning of the Civil War there was a faction, composed of the disloyal politicians of the opposition, who used every means in their power to embarrass their government and give aid and comfort to the Secessionists. They affiliated with the “Knights of the Golden Circle” (which see), and, like the Peace faction in 1812–15, they were practical enemies of their country. Matthew F. Maury, formerly Superintendent of the National Observatory, in a letter to the *London Times* (Aug. 17, 1863), said, in proof that there was no chance for the preservation of the Union, “There is already a Peace party in the North. All the embarrassments with which that party can surround Mr. Lincoln, and all the difficulties that it can throw in the way of the War party in the North, operate directly as so much aid and comfort to the South.” The faction issued many publications in furtherance of their views, and never ceased their operations until the close of the war which they had prolonged.

Peace, PROCLAMATION OF (1783). When the preliminary treaty of peace arrived, the Continental Congress adopted (April 11, 1783) a proclamation declaring peace between the United States and Great Britain; and on the 19th Washington proclaimed, in the camp at Newburgh, the cessation of hostilities. This was just eight years after the skirmish at Lexington.

Peace, RESOLUTIONS FOR (1782). During the holiday recess of Parliament (1781–82) the people and legislators of England had the surrender of Cornwallis to reflect upon, and came to the conclusion that further efforts to subdue the colonies were useless. On Feb. 22, 1782, a motion was offered by Conway, in the House of Commons, against continuing the war in America. It was then negatived by a majority of one. Five days later, Conway’s resolution for an address to the king on the subject was carried by a majority of nineteen. To this address the stubborn king gave an equivocal answer. On March 4 Conway brought forward an address to the king to declare that the House would consider as enemies to the king and country all those who should further attempt the prosecution of a war on the continent of America for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience. It was adopted without a division. The next day, with like unanimity, leave was given by the House to bring in an “enabling bill,” allowing the king to make a peace or truce with America. It was accordingly brought in, but it was ten weeks before it became a law under a new administration. The North administration was no more. Of it Dr. Johnson said, “Such a bunch of imbecility never disgraced the country. It was composed of many corrupt and greedy men, who yielded to

the stubbornness of the king for the sake of the honors and emoluments of office."

Peace, TREATY OF (1814-15). The British government rejected the mediation of the Empress of Russia in bringing about a peace with the United States (see *Russian Mediation*), but finally offered to treat directly with the United States, proposing London as the meeting-place of commissioners; or, in case the United States government objected, Gothenburg, in Sweden. The President accepted the proposition, and chose the latter place. The ancient city of Ghent, in southern Netherlands (now Belgium), was substituted, and there the commissioners of the two governments met in the summer of 1814. The American commissioners were John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell, and Albert Gallatin. The British commissioners were Lord Gambier, Henry Goulburn, and William Adams. These joined the American commissioners at Ghent, Aug. 6, 1814. Christopher Hughes, Jr., then American



CHRISTOPHER HUGHES, JR.

chargé d'affaires at Stockholm, was appointed secretary to the American commissioners. Negotiations were speedily opened, when a wide difference of views appeared, which at first threatened the most formidable obstructions to an agreement. The discussions continued several months, and a conclusion was reached by a mutual agreement to a treaty on Dec. 24, 1814, when it was signed by the respective commissioners. It provided for the mutual restoration of all conquered territory, and for three commissions—one to settle the titles to islands in Passamaquoddy Bay, another to mark out the northeastern boundary of the United States as far as the St. Lawrence, and a third to run the line through the St. Lawrence and the Lakes to the Lake of the Woods. In case of disagreement in either commission, the point in dispute

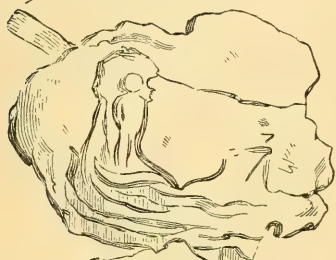
was to be referred to some friendly power. No provision was made as to the boundary west of the Lake of the Woods, nor as to the fisheries on the shores of British America. It took away from the British a nominal right (never used), that of navigating the Mississippi; and from the New England fishermen a valuable right, hitherto used from the earliest time, that of catching and curing fish on the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It was agreed that both parties should use their best endeavors to suppress the African slave-trade. Hostilities on land were to terminate with the ratification of the treaty of peace, and on the ocean at specified periods, according to distance, the longest being four months. It did not secure to the Americans what they went to war for—namely, immunity from search and impressment. The treaty was signed by the commissioners, with their seals attached, as seen in the engraving on pages 1066-7, which gives a fac-simile of the last paragraph of the treaty and of their signatures. These were carefully copied by the writer from the originals at Washington. The treaty was ratified on the 28th by the Prince Regent, and sent to America, where the Senate of the United States ratified it (Feb. 17, 1815) by unanimous vote. It was promulgated the next day by proclamation of President Madison.

Peace with the Indians. The energy with which the French and Indian War had been conducted since the accession of Pitt to the premiership of England, especially in the campaign of 1758, had alarmed the Indian allies of the French, and they withdrew from the field in large numbers. The blow struck by Bradstreet at Fort Frontenac had been severely felt on the Ohio in the failure of expected supplies from that quarter (see *Frontenac, Fort, Capture of*), and the Indians, from the Six Nations in New York to the Miamis in Ohio, were strongly inclined to peace. Before the capture of Fort Duquesne (November, 1758) a treaty had been concluded with the Six Nations, Delawares, and other tribes, by which all existing difficulties had been finally settled and peace restored to the frontiers of Pennsylvania and Virginia, and Maryland was relieved from Indian incursions. (See *Easton, Treaties at*.)

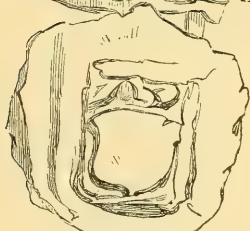
Peacock and Épervier. In March, 1814, the *Peacock*, 18 guns, Captain Warrington, sailed from New York on a cruise. She was off the coast of Florida for some time without encountering any conspicuous adventure. Finally, on April 29, Warrington discovered three sail to the windward, under convoy of an armed brig of large dimensions. The two war-vessels made for each other, and very soon a close and severe battle ensued. The *Peacock* was so badly injured in her rigging at the beginning that she was compelled to fight "running at large," as the phrase is. She could not manœuvre much, and the contest became one of gunnery. The *Peacock* won the game at the end of forty minutes. Her antagonist, which proved to be the *Épervier*, 18 guns, Captain Wales, struck her colors. She was badly injured, no less than forty-

SEALS AND SIGNATURES OF THE COMMISSIONERS.

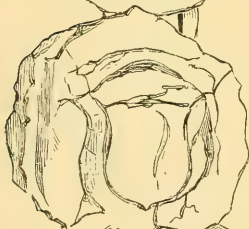
Done in Triplicate at Ghent
the twenty fourth day of December
one thousand eight hundred and
fourteen



Gambier



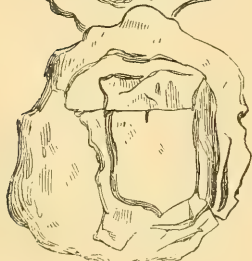
Henry Goulburn



William Adams



John Quincy Adams



J. A. Bayard



H. Clay

Jon^a Russell

Albert Gallatin

B. Nicholson, came near being captured by two English frigates. She entered the Savannah River in safety on May 1, 1814. The *Peacock* reached the same port on May 4. This capture produced much exultation. Congress thanked Warrington in the name of the nation, and gave him a gold medal. In another cruise to the shores of Portugal soon afterwards, the *Peacock* captured fourteen vessels, and returned to New York at the end of October.

Peacock and Nautilus. After parting with Biddle (see *Hornet*, *Chase of the*), Captain Warrington pursued his cruise in the *Peacock*, and on June 30, 1815, when off Anjer, in the Strait of Sunda, between Sumatra

five round-shot having struck her hull. Twenty-two of her men were killed or wounded. Only two of the *Peacock's* men were wounded; and so little was she injured that an hour after the battle she was in perfect fighting order. The *Épervier* sold for \$55,000, and on board of her was found \$118,000 in specie. She was such a

and Java, he fell in with the East India cruiser *Nautilus*, 14 guns, Lieutenant Charles Boyce. Broad sides were exchanged, when the *Nautilus* struck her colors. She had lost six men killed and eight wounded. The *Peacock* lost none. This event occurred a few days after the period set by the treaty of peace for the cessation of hos-



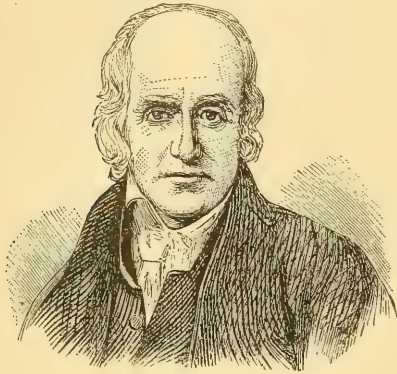
WARRINGTON MEDAL.

valuable prize that Warrington determined to take her into Savannah himself. On the way, when abreast of Amelia Island, on the coast of Florida, the *Épervier*, in charge of Lieutenant J.

ilities. Warrington was ignorant of any such treaty, but, being informed the next day of its ratification, he gave up the *Nautilus* and did everything in his power to alleviate the suffer-

ings of her wounded crew. He then returned home, bearing the distinction of having fired the last shot in the second war for independence. (See *Nautilus*.) When the *Peacock* reached America every cruiser, public and private, that had been out against the British had returned to port, and the war over.

Peale, CHARLES WILSON, was born at Chestertown, Md., April 16, 1741; died in Philadelphia, Feb. 22, 1827. He was at first apprenticed to a saddler, and afterwards carried on that business, as well as silversmith, watch-maker, and carver. He finally became a portrait-painter,



CHARLES WILSON PEALE.

and was a good sportsman, naturalist, preserver of animals, an inventor, and was the first dentist in the country who made sets of artificial teeth. He took instructions from Copley, in Boston, in 1770-71. He studied at the Royal Academy in London. In 1772 he painted the first portrait of Washington ever executed, in the costume of a Virginia colonel, and at the same time he painted a miniature of Mrs. Washington. He did military service and carried on portrait-painting during the war for independence; and for fifteen years he was the only portrait-painter in America. He made a portrait gallery of Revolutionary worthies, and opened, in Philadelphia, the first museum in the country, and was the first to give lectures on natural history. Mr. Peale painted several portraits of Washington, among them one for Houdon's use in making his statue of the patriot. He labored long for the establishment of an academy of the fine arts in Philadelphia, and when it was founded he co-operated faithfully in its management, and contributed to seventeen annual exhibitions. Most of his family inherited his artistic and philosophical tastes.—**REMBRANDT**, his son, painted a portrait of Washington from life, which is now in the Senate-chamber in Washington, and was commended by personal friends of the patriot as the best likeness of him (excepting Houdon's statue) ever made. Rembrandt was born in Bucks County, Penn., Feb. 22, 1778; died in Philadelphia, Oct. 3, 1860. He studied under West in London, and, going to Paris, painted portraits of many eminent men for his father's museum.—**Charles Wilson Peale's** youngest son, **TITIAN**, yet (1883) living in Philadelphia, is also

a painter and naturalist. He was painter and naturalist to the South Sea Surveying and Exploring Expedition (which see.)

Pea Ridge, BATTLE AT. When the Confederates under General Price fled into Arkansas (see *Missouri Purged*) in February, 1861, General Curtis and a strong force of Nationals pursued him. Curtis crossed the Arkansas line on Feb. 18 and drove Price and his followers over the Boston Mountains. He then fell back and took a position near Pea Ridge, a spur of the Ozark Mountains. Meanwhile Price had been joined by General Earl Van Dorn, a dashing young officer who was his senior in rank, and now took chief command of the Confederates. Forty heavy guns thundered a welcome to the young general. "Soldiers!" cried the general, "behold your leader! He comes to show you the way to glory and immortal renown. He comes to hurl back the minions of the despots at Washington, whose ignorance, licentiousness, and brutality are equalled only by their craven natures. They come to free your slaves, lay waste your plantations, burn your villages, and abuse your loving wives and beautiful daughters." Van Dorn came from western Arkansas with generals McCulloch, McIntosh, and Pike. The latter was a New England man and a poet, and came at the head of a band of Indians whom he had lured into the service. The whole insurgent force then numbered 25,000 men; the National troops, led by Curtis, did not exceed 11,000 men, with fifty pieces of artillery. On March 5, Curtis was informed by his scouts of the swift approach of an overwhelming force of Confederates; he concentrated his army in the Sugar Creek valley. He was compelled to fight or make a disastrous retreat. Choosing the former, he prepared for the struggle. Meanwhile Van Dorn, by a quick movement, had flanked Curtis and gained his rear, and on the morning of the 7th he moved to attack the Nationals, not doubting his ability to crush him and capture his train of two hundred wagons. Curtis's troops were in battle order. His first and second divisions, on the left, were commanded respectively by Generals Asboth and Sigel; the third was under General J. C. Davis, and composed the centre, and the fourth, on the right, was commanded by Colonel Carr. His line of battle extended about four miles, and there was only a broad ravine between his troops and the heavy Confederate force. Towards noon the battle was opened by a simultaneous attack of Nationals and Confederates. A very severe conflict ensued, and continued a greater part of the day with varying fortunes to each party, the lines of strife swaying like a pendulum. At about eleven o'clock the pickets on Curtis's extreme right under Major Weston were violently assailed, and Colonel Osterhaus, with a detachment of Iowa cavalry and Davidson's Peoria Battery, supported by Missouri cavalry and Indiana infantry, attacked a portion of Van Dorn's troops before he was fairly ready for battle. Colonel Carr went to the assistance of Weston, and a severe engagement ensued. Thus the battle near Pea Ridge was opened. Osterhaus

met with a warm reception, for the woods were swarming with Confederates. His cavalry were driven back, when General Davis came to his rescue with General Sigel, who attacked the Confederate flank. Soon afterwards Davis fought severely with McCulloch, McIntosh, and Pike. Then the battle raged most fiercely. The issue of the strife seemed doubtful, when the Eighteenth Indiana attacked the Confederate flank and rear so vigorously with ball and bayonet that they were driven from that part of the field, when it was strewn with the dead bodies of Texans and Indians. The Confederates now became fugitives, and in their flight they left their dead and wounded on the field. Among the latter were Generals McCulloch and McIntosh, mortally hurt. Osterhaus, and Sigel with his heavy guns, now went to the assistance of Colonel Carr on the right. But Carr had held his ground. There were no indications that the Confederates wished to renew the fight, for it was now sunset. The Nationals bivouacked on the battle-field that night among the dead and dying. The contest was renewed at dawn (March 8), when the Nationals hurled such a destructive tempest of shot and shell upon the Confederates that the latter soon broke and fled in every direction in the wildest confusion. Van Dorn, who had been a greater part of the day with the troops that fought Carr, concentrated his whole available force on Curtis's right. The latter had been vigilant, and at two o'clock in the morning he had been joined by Sigel and his command. The whole four divisions of the army were in position to fight Van Dorn at daylight. With batteries advantageously planted, and infantry lying down in front of them, Curtis opened a terrible cannonade. Battery after battery of the Confederates was silenced in the course of two hours, and so horrible was the tempest of iron that Van Dorn and his followers were compelled to fly to the shelter of the ravines of Cross Timber Hollow. At the same time, Sigel's infantry, with the troops of the centre and right, engaged in the battle. Van Dorn fled so suddenly, and in such a scattering manner, that it was difficult for Curtis to determine the main route of his retreat. General Price had been posted some distance off, and he, too, participated in the flight. The Confederate army, made so strong and hopeful by Van Dorn's speech twenty-four hours before, was now broken into fragments. This conflict, called the battle of Pea Ridge by the Nationals and Elkhorn by the Confederates, was a sanguinary one. The Indians under Pike shamefully tomahawked, scalped, and mangled the bodies of National soldiers. It is said they were maddened with intoxicating drink before the battle. The Nationals lost 1351 killed, wounded, and missing. The loss of the Confederates was never reported. It was probably about the same as that of the Nationals.

Pearson, GEORGE F., was born at Exeter, N. H., in 1799; died at Portsmouth, N. H., June 30, 1867. He entered the navy as midshipman, March 11, 1815, and rose to captain in 1855. While he was at Constantinople, in 1837 (then

lieutenant), the Sultan offered to give him command of the Turkish navy, with the rank of admiral, and the salary of \$10,000 a year. It was declined. He effectually cleared the Gulf of Mexico of pirates. In 1865-66 he was in command of the Pacific squadron.

Peck, JOHN JAY, was born at Maulins, N. Y., Jan. 4, 1821; died at Syracuse, N. Y., April 21, 1879. He graduated at West Point, in 1843, entering the Second Artillery. He served in the war against Mexico, and resigned in 1853, settling in Syracuse as a banker. In August, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and major-general July 4, 1862. He performed excellent service during the whole Civil War, especially in defence of Suffolk. (See *Suffolk, Siege of*.) He was mustered out in August, 1865, after which he was president of the State Life Insurance Company, Syracuse.

Peerage of Mrs. Pitt. When, on Oct. 5, 1761, William Pitt, well advanced in years, feeble from repeated attacks of hereditary gout, and his nervous system unstrung, stood before young King George, and offered his resignation of the seals of office, his appearance and the recollection of his great services stirred the generous nature of the monarch, and he made the retiring minister unlimited offers of reward. Pitt, melted by the king's generosity, said: "I confess, sir, I had but too much reason to expect your majesty's displeasure. I did not come prepared for this exceeding goodness; pardon me, sir, it overpowers, it oppresses me!" and he burst into tears. The next day he offered Pitt the governorship of Canada, with a salary of \$20,000. "I should be doubly happy," he said, "could I see those dearer to me than myself comprehended in that token of royal approbation and goodness." The king took the hint, and conferred a peerage on his wife, with a grant of \$12,000, to be paid annually during the lives of herself, her husband, and their eldest son. She was named Countess of Chatham.

Pegram, JOHN, was born at Richmond, Va., in 1832; died at Petersburg, Va., Feb. 6, 1865, of wounds received in battle. He graduated at West Point in 1856. He left the army, and took command of a Confederate regiment, which he led when made a prisoner by General McClellan. (See *Rich Mountain*.) In 1862 he was made a brigadier-general, was a noted leader in all the campaigns in Virginia, and was regarded as one of the ablest of the Confederate division commanders. Wounded in a battle at Hatcher's Run (which see), he died soon afterwards.

Peirce, BENJAMIN, LL.D., scientist, was born at Salem, Mass., April 4, 1809, and graduated at Harvard University in 1829. In 1831 he became tutor in mathematics there, and from 1842 to 1867 he was Perkins Professor of Astronomy and Mathematics, and also consulting astronomer to *The Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac* since its establishment in 1849. Dr. Peirce was a pupil of Dr. Bowditch, and read the proof-sheets of his translation of the *Mécanique Céleste*. In September, 1867, he was appointed superintendent of the United States Coast Survey, which

position he held until his death, October 6, 1881. He was a member of leading scientific societies at home and abroad; an associate of the Royal Astronomical Society of London since 1842; member of the Royal Society of London since 1852; was president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1853; and one of the scientific council that established the Dudley Observatory at Albany in 1855. Dr. Peirce published many scientific essays; and in 1851 he discovered and announced the fluidity of Saturn's rings.

Pemaquid, Maine. On Feb. 29, 1631, the President and Council for New England granted to Robert Aldworth and Giles Elbridge one hundred acres of land for every person whom they should transport to the province of Maine within seven years, who should continue there three years, and an absolute grant of twelve thousand acres of land as "their proper inheritance forever," to be laid out near the Pemaquid River. In 1677 Governor Andros sent a sloop, with some forces, to take possession of the territory in Maine called Cornwall, which had been granted to the Duke of York. He caused a fort (Frederick) to be built at Pemaquid Point, a headland of the southwest entrance to Bristol Bay. The Eastern Indians, who, ever since King Philip's War, had been hostile, now appeared friendly, and a treaty was made with them at Casco (April 12, 1678) by the commissioners, which put an end to a distressing war. In 1692 Sir William Phipps, with four hundred and fifty men, built a large stone fort there, which was superior to any structure of the kind that had been built by the English in America. It was called Fort William Henry, and was garrisoned by sixty men. There, in 1693, a treaty was made with the Indians, by which they acknowledged subjection to the crown of England, and delivered hostages as a pledge of their fidelity; but, instigated by the French, they violated the treaty the next year. The French, regarding the fort at Pemaquid as "controlling all Acadia," determined to expel the English from it. An expedition against it was committed to Iberville and Bonaventure, who anchored at Pentagoet (Aug. 7, 1696), where they were joined by the Baron de Castine, with two hundred Indians. (See *Castine, Vincent*.) These auxiliaries went forward in canoes, the French in their vessels, and invested the fort on the 14th. Major Chubb was in command. To a summons from Iberville to surrender, the major replied: "If the sea were covered with French vessels and the land with Indians, yet I would not give up the fort." Some skirmishing occurred that day, and, having completed a battery, the next day Iberville threw some bombs into the fort, which greatly terrified the garrison. Castine sent a letter, assuring the garrison that, if the place should be taken by assault, they would be left to the Indians, who would give no quarter; he had seen the king's letter to that effect. The garrison, compelling Chubb to surrender, were sent to Boston, to be exchanged for French and Indian prisoners, and the costly fort was demolished.

Pemberton, JOHN C., was born in Philadelphia in 1818, and graduated at West Point in 1837. He served in the Seminole War, and was aide-de-camp to General Worth in the war against Mexico. He entered the Confederate service in April, 1861, as colonel of cavalry and assistant adjutant-general to General J. E. Johnston. He rose to lieutenant-general, and was the opponent of Grant in northern Mississippi in 1863, to whom he surrendered, with his army, at Vicksburg (which see). Died in 1881.

Pendleton, EDMUND, was born in Caroline County, Va., Sept. 9, 1721; died at Richmond, Va., Oct. 23, 1803. He was a leading member of the Virginia House of Burgesses when the Revolution broke out, and, as a conservative patriot, was opposed to radical Patrick Henry. He was a member of the Continental Congress (1774-75), and President of the Virginia conventions of December, 1775, and May, 1776, the latter instructing their representatives in Congress to vote for independence. Mr. Pendleton had been a member of the Committee of Correspondence before the war, and during the earlier period of the war was one of the Committee of Safety, which controlled the military and naval affairs of Virginia. On the organization of the State Senate he was appointed speaker of the Assembly, and with Wythe and Jefferson revised the colonial laws. He was president of both the Court of Chancery and Court of Appeals, and in 1788 he presided over the convention that ratified the national Constitution, of which he was a powerful champion. In 1789 Washington appointed Mr. Pendleton Judge of the United States District Court of Virginia, but he declined it; and when war with France seemed imminent, in 1798, he protested against hostilities towards a sister republic.

Peninsular Campaign is the name of the campaign conducted by General McClellan in 1862 on the Virginia peninsula, between the York River and its tributaries and the James River, which rivers empty into Chesapeake Bay or its adjacent waters. On the extremity of the point of land between them stands Fortress Monroe. The campaign continued from the landing of General Heintzelman's corps of the Army of the Potomac at Fortress Monroe, March 22, 1862, until the departure of the army from Harrison's Landing, in August of the same year, including the famous seven days' battle before Richmond.

Penn, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Caroline County, Va., May 17, 1741; died September, 1788. He studied law with Edmund Pendleton, was an eloquent and effective speaker, and possessed a high order of talent. In 1774 he settled in Greenville County, N. C., and was a delegate in the Continental Congress from there in 1775-76, and from 1778 to 1780. Mr. Penn was placed in charge of public affairs in North Carolina when Cornwallis invaded the state in 1781.

Penn, JOHN, called the "American Penn," because born here, was a native of Philadelphia, and died in Bucks County, Penn., in February, 1795.

His government of Pennsylvania was ended by the Revolution, yet he remained in America. In 1777, having refused to sign a parole, he was confined at Fredericksburg, Va. His estate was confiscated, and he claimed of the British government, for himself and brother Richard, as compensation for their losses, about \$4,700,000, but they received only a part of that sum.

Penn, WILLIAM, was the founder of Pennsylvania and one of the most distinguished members of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, as a preacher and writer. His father was Admiral Sir William Penn, of the royal navy, and his mother was an excellent Dutchwoman, of Rotterdam. William was born in London, Oct. 14,



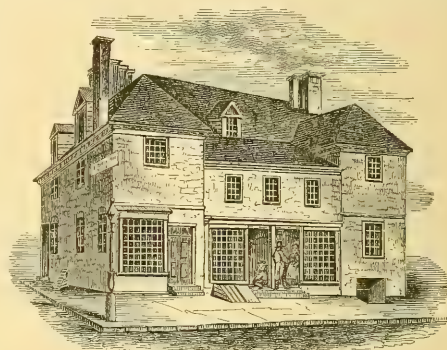
WILLIAM PENN.

1644; died at Ruscombe, Berkshire, July 30, 1718. He received very strong religious impressions while he was yet a child. At the age of fifteen years he entered Christ Church College, Oxford, where, through the preaching of Thomas Loe, he became a convert to the doctrine of the Quakers. He, with two or three others, refused to conform to the worship of the Established Church, or to wear the surplice, or gown, of the student. He and his companions even went so far as to strip some of the students of their robes, for which he was expelled from the college. For this offence his father beat him and turned him out of the house. The mother reconciled them, and the youth was sent to France, with a hope that gay society in Paris might redeem him from his almost morbid soberness. It failed to do so, and, on his return, in 1664, in compliance with the wishes of his father, he became a student of law. The great fire in London, in 1665, drove him from the city and deepened his serious convictions. Then he was sent to the management of his father's estates, near Cork, Ireland, where he again fell in with Thomas Loe, and became a Quaker in all but garb. On returning to England, his father tried to persuade him to conform to the customs of polite society, but he steadily refused. He soon became a Quaker preacher and a powerful controversial writer, producing several no-

table pamphlets. He attacked the generally received doctrines of the Trinity, but afterwards partially retracted, when it had produced great excitement in the religious society of England. He was confined in the Tower nine months, during which he wrote his principal work, entitled *No Cross, no Crown*. The Duke of York, under whom Admiral Penn had served, procured his release. Penn was arrested for preaching in the streets, in London, charged with creating a tumult and disturbing the peace. His trial took place in the mayor's court. The jury declared him not guilty, but the court determined to convict him, and ordered the jury to bring in a verdict of guilty. They refused, and were fined and sent to Newgate Prison. Afterwards he suffered much persecution for his non-conformity. He travelled in Holland and Germany to propagate the doctrines of Friends, and there interceded in behalf of his persecuted brethren. In 1672 Penn married a daughter of Sir William Springett, and, the next few years, devoted his time to preaching and writing. In 1674 he became umpire in a dispute between Fenwick and Byllinge, both Quakers, concerning their property rights in New Jersey. Penn decided in favor of Byllinge, and afterwards bought the domain from him. Penn at once became zealously engaged in the work of colonization, and, desiring to have a safe asylum from persecution for his brethren, he obtained a grant of a large domain in America from Charles II., in 1681, in payment of a debt of about \$80,000 due to his father from the crown. The charter vested the perpetual proprietorship of the vast region (with Delaware, which was then annexed to it) containing forty-five thousand square miles, in him and his heirs, in the fealty of an annual payment of two beaver-skins. Penn wished to call the domain New Wales, and afterwards, on account of extensive forests, he suggested Sylvania. The king ordered it to be called Penn Sylvania, because he had great admiration for Penn's father. Penn tried to get the secretary to change the name, but could not, and it was called Pennsylvania in the charter. Penn, with others, purchased East Jersey, which was already a flourishing colony. (See *New Jersey*.) He proposed a liberal scheme of government for his colony. In September, 1682, he embarked for America on the ship *Welcome*, and, at the end of six weeks, landed (Oct. 28, O. S.) near the site of New Castle, Del., where he was joyfully received by the settlers. After conferring with Indian chiefs and making some unimportant treaties, he went up the Delaware to the site of a portion of Philadelphia, and there made a famous treaty, which gave great satisfaction to the natives. (See *Penn's Treaty*.) Then he purchased land from the Swedes, between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, upon which he caused Philadelphia to be laid out. (See *Brotherly Love, City of*.) Penn visited New York and New Jersey, and, after meeting a General Assembly (see *Pennsylvania*), he sailed for England, August, 1684. The king died a few months after Penn's arrival in England. He was succeeded by James, Duke of York, who

was a warm friend of Penn. The latter took lodgings near the court, where he constantly used his influence in obtaining relief for his suffering brethren, who thronged his house by hundreds, seeking his aid. He finally obtained a royal decree, by which more than twelve hundred Quakers were released from prison. This was followed by a proclamation of the king (April, 1687), declaring liberty of conscience to all, and removing tests and penalties. Meanwhile Penn had made a tour on the Continent, and, by order of James, had a conference with the monarch's son-in-law, William of Orange, and tried to persuade him to adopt the principles of universal toleration. Because Penn had been personally intimate with James, soon after the Revolution (1688) he was summoned before the Privy Council to answer a charge of treason. No evidence appearing against him, he was discharged. Not long afterwards, a letter from the exiled monarch to Penn, asking him to come to France, having been intercepted, he was again brought before the council, in presence of King William. Penn declared his friendship for James, but did not approve his policy, and he was again discharged. In 1690 he was a third time accused, and was arrested on a charge of conspiracy, tried by the Court of the King's Bench, and acquitted. The charge was renewed, in 1691, by a man who was afterwards branded by the House of Commons as a cheat, a rogue, and a false accuser. In the meantime Pennsylvania had been much disturbed by civil and religious quarrels, and, in 1692, the monarchs deprived Penn of his authority as governor of the province, and directed Governor Fletcher, of New York, to assume the administration of Pennsylvania. Powerful friends interceded in Penn's behalf, and he was honorably acquitted (November, 1693) by the king and council. Three months later his wife, Gulielma Maria, died, and, within two years, he married Hannah Callowhill, a Quaker lady of great excellence. His proprietary rights having been fully restored to him (August, 1694), he sailed for Pennsylvania with his wife and daughter, in September, 1699. He was soon recalled by tidings that the House of Lords was considering a measure for bringing all the proprietary governments in America under the crown. Penn hastened to England, giving to Philadelphia a city charter, dated Oct. 25, 1701. It was one of his last official acts. The measure which hastened his departure from America was soon abandoned; but he was deeply moved with anxiety about his affairs in Pennsylvania, where his son, whom he had sent as his deputy, had been guilty of disgraceful conduct. At the same time his confidential agent in London, who was a Friend, had left to his executors false charges against Penn to a very large amount. To avoid extortion, Penn suffered himself to be confined in Fleet Prison (debtor's jail) for a long time (1708), until his friends compromised with his creditors. In 1712 Penn made arrangements for the transfer of his proprietary rights to the crown for \$60,000, when he was prostrated by repeated shocks of paralysis. He lived six years

longer, much of the time unable to move, and never regained his mental vigor. Penn's remains were buried in Jordan's Cemetery, near the village of Chalfont St. Giles, in Buckinghamshire. William Penn's character was frequently assailed by the wicked and envious, during his life, but always without success, and Lord Macanlay, in our day, has been equally unsuccessful in his assaults upon the honor, honesty, purity, and integrity of the founder of Pennsylvania, for official records have disproved the truth of allegations made by contemporaries and the eminent historian. William Penn had a fine country residence, sometimes called "The Palace," on the bank of the Delaware River, nearly opposite Bordentown. It was constructed in 1683, at an expense of about \$35,000. In 1700 his city residence in Philadelphia was the "Slate-roof House," on the northeast corner of Second

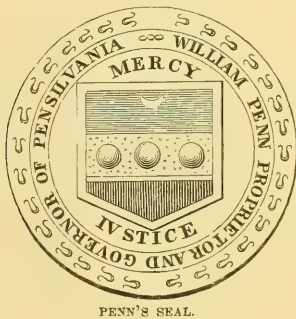


SLATE-ROOF (PENN'S) HOUSE.

Street and Norris's Alley. It was a spacious building for the time, constructed of brick and covered with slate. It was built for another in 1690. Penn occupied it while he remained in America, and there his son, John Penn, governor of Pennsylvania when the Revolution broke out, was born. In that house the agent of Penn (James Logau) entertained Lord Cornbury, of New York, and his suite of fifty persons. The house was purchased by William Trent, the founder of Trenton. Arnold occupied it as his headquarters in 1778, and lived there in extravagant style.

Penn's Advertisement and Code. When he had secured his charter for Pennsylvania, William Penn issued an advertisement which contained inducements for persons to emigrate to the new province, and a scheme of administration of justice suited to the disposition of the Quakers. He declared that his object was to establish a just and righteous government in the province, that would be an example for others. He assumed that government is a part of religion itself, as sacred in its institution and end; that any government is free to the people under it, whatever be its frame, where the laws rule and the people are a party to the laws. He declared that governments depend upon men, not men upon governments; and he guaranteed liberty of conscience. He declared that none should be molested or prejudiced in matters of faith and

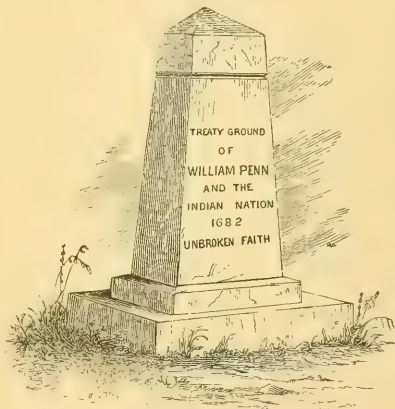
worship, and that nobody should be compelled, at any time, to frequent or maintain any religious place of worship or ministry whatsoever. He said that prisons must be converted into schools of reformation and education; that litigation ought to give way to arbitration; that an oath was a superfluity, and made lying punishable as a crime. Trial by jury was established, and in all cases where an Indian was involved, the jury should consist of six white men and six barbarians; and that the person of an Indian should be held as sacred as that of a white man. Penn advertised his land at forty shillings an acre, and servants could hold fifty acres in fee-simple. Penn was so well known in his own country and on the Continent, that perfect confidence was placed in his declarations of every sort. English Friends, in large numbers, proposed to come over, and a German company, led by Franz Pastorius, bought fifteen thousand acres. This was the commencement of German emigration to Pennsylvania. The colony flourished. The



motto on Penn's seal—"MERCY AND JUSTICE"—expressed prominent traits of his character.

Penn's Treaty. After William Penn had completed the annexation of the territory of Delaware to Pennsylvania, and stood upon his own domain, among almost a thousand new emigrants, on the site of New Castle, he went, in a boat, many miles up the river to the present Kensington District, Philadelphia. There, under a wide-spreading elm, then just shedding its later foliage, he met representatives of many neighboring tribes, and concluded a treaty with them for the purchase of their lands, which confirmed former treaties made by his cousin, William Markham, his general agent. It was to be an everlasting covenant of peace and friendship between the two races. "We meet," said Penn, "on the broad pathway of good faith and goodwill; no advantage shall be taken on either side, but all shall be openness and love. I will not call you children, for parents sometimes chide their children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers differ. The friendship between me and you I will not compare to a chain, for that the rains might rust, or a falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body was to be divided into two parts; we are all one flesh and blood." Then Penn gave the chiefs presents, and they, in turn, handed him a belt of wampum, an official pledge of

their fidelity. Delighted with his words, and with implicit faith in his promises, they said: "We will live in love with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and moon shall endure." This promise was kept; not a drop of the blood of a Quaker was ever shed by an Indian. Penn had achieved a mighty victory by the power of justice and love. There is no written record of that treaty extant; it seemed an ineradicable tradition among both races. Of the personal character of the European actors in it we have more information. Penn was then thirty-eight years of age. Most of his companions—the deputy-governor and a few others—were younger than he, and were dressed in the garb of Friends—the fashion of the more simple Puritans during the Protectorate of Cromwell. The Indians were partly clad in the skins of beasts, for it was on the verge of winter (Nov. 4, 1682), and they had brought their wives and children to the council, as was their habit. The scene must have been a most interesting one—Europeans and Indians mingling around a great fire, kindled under the high branches of the elm, and the contracting parties smoking the calumet. That tree was blown down in 1810, and was found to be two hundred and thirty-three years old. Upon its site the Penn Society, of Philadelphia, erected a commemorative monu-



TREATY MONUMENT.

ment. It stands near the intersection of Beach and Hanover streets.

Pennsylvania, COLONY OF, one of the thirteen original states of our Union, has for its entire eastern boundary the Delaware River, so called (with the bay) in compliment to Lord De la Warr, or Delaware, governor of Virginia. (See *Virginia*.) The Dutch claimed jurisdiction over the waters of the bay and river, and this right was first assailed by a colony of Swedes, who settled upon the west side of those waters in 1638, but were subdued and absorbed by the Dutch in 1655. (See *New Sweden*.) The territory west of the Delaware was granted by Charles II., in 1684, to William Penn, son of the eminent Admiral Penn, and a member of the Society of Friends. (See *Penn, William*.) He

sent settlers to colonize the domain, under the general superintendence of William Markham, who kindly treated the Swedes already there. Penn purchased the land from the Indians (see *Penn's Treaty*), and founded a capital city. The present area of the State of Delaware was originally included in Penn's grant, and, to prevent any difficulty, the territory was formally surrendered to Penn by the Duke of York in the autumn of 1682, on the arrival of the proprietor of Pennsylvania. That territory was afterwards known as the Lower Counties. (See *Delaware, The Colony and State of*.) They continued in that dependent relation until the close of the century, when an independent legislature was granted them, but not a separate government. Penn arrived at the site of New Castle, Del., in the fall of 1682, where he was received with joy by the inhabitants—Dutch, English, and Swedes. The settlers were quite numerous, and the domain was divided into six counties. He proceeded up the Delaware, and, after making a treaty with the Indians, he called representatives of the counties to meet him at the newly laid out city of Philadelphia in March following. They were there at the appointed time—Dutch, English, Swedes, and Welsh, for many of the latter people had settled in Pennsylvania. A "Charter of Liberties" was then granted to the colonists and signed and sealed by Penn's own hand. It guaranteed liberty and justice. Population increased, and when the proprietor left for England (August, 1684) there were twenty settled townships and seven thousand inhabitants in Pennsylvania. He left Thomas Lloyd, a Quaker preacher, governor of the province, with five members of the council to assist him in administering the government. Because of his personal regard for King James, Penn was accused of disaffection to the new government after the accession of William and Mary (1689), and suffered imprisonment and deprivation of his colonial rights for a time. Meanwhile discontents had sprung up in Pennsylvania, and the "three lower counties on the Delaware," offended at some action of the council, seceded (April, 1691), and, with the reluctant assent of Penn, set up a distinct and separate government, with William Markham as governor. Penn's colonial government was taken from him in 1692, and the province was placed under the authority of Governor Fletcher, of New York, who reunited the Delaware counties (May, 1693) to the parent province. All suspicion of Penn's loyalty being removed, his chartered rights were restored to him (Aug. 30), and he appointed his original agent, Markham, deputy-governor. Penn returned to America in December, 1699, and was pained to find discontents rife again. There was a clamor for greater political privileges. He gave them a new charter (Nov. 6, 1701), far more liberal in its concessions than the former. The people of Pennsylvania cheerfully accepted it, but those of the lower counties, whose delegates had withdrawn from the Assembly, declined it. The people of these territories evidently aimed at independence. Penn acquiesced

in their decision, and allowed them a distinct Assembly. This satisfied them, and their first independent Legislature convened at New Castle in 1703. Although Pennsylvania and Delaware each had a distinct Legislature, they were under one government until 1776. The boundaries between the provinces of Pennsylvania and Maryland continued to be a topic of dispute for many years; it was finally settled by a survey by Mason and Dixon (1763-67). (See *Mason and Dixon's Line*.) The peaceful policy with the Indians inaugurated by Penn at the beginning kept the commonwealth quiet while the descendants of Penn ruled it. Members of the Society of Friends had been the chief settlers until, between 1715 and 1725, there was a heavy immigration of German and Scotch-Irish families, and a few years later there was another large immigration. During the French and Indian War, western Pennsylvania was the theatre of stirring events, in which George Washington became first distinguished, and when the quarrel with Great Britain waxed hot, the people of Pennsylvania were conspicuous participants, notwithstanding there was difference of opinion concerning the policy of political independence. In the war that was waged for liberty her sons were found everywhere engaged on the side of the patriots. A state constitution was adopted on Sept. 28, 1776, when Pennsylvania took her place in the union of states.

Pennsylvania Applies for a Royal Government. An attempt of the Pennsylvania Assembly, in 1764, to enact a new militia law brought on another quarrel between the proprietaries and the representatives of the people. One of the former, John Penn, was now governor. He claimed the right to appoint the officers of the militia, and insisted upon several other provisions, to which the Assembly would not give its assent. At the same time a controversy arose concerning the interpretation of the decision of the Lords of Trade and Plantations, authorizing the taxation of the proprietary estates. At the annual election (May, 1764) the proprietary party in Philadelphia, by great exertions, defeated Franklin in that city. Yet the anti-proprietary party had a large majority in the Assembly. The new Assembly sent Franklin to England again as their agent, authorized to ask for the abrogation of the proprietary authority, and the establishment of a royal government. The mutterings of the gathering tempest of revolution which finally gave independence to the Americans were then growing louder and louder, and nothing more was done in the matter. The opponents of the proprietaries in Pennsylvania were by no means united on this point. The Episcopalians and Quakers were favorable to a change, while the Scotch-Irish Presbyterians were opposed to it, because they feared the ascendancy of the Church of England. The patronage of the proprietaries attached many to their interests, and the sweet memories of William Penn inclined many to favor them.

Pennsylvania Committee of Safety. (See *Pennsylvania Volunteers*.)

Pennsylvania Convention (1774). A state convention assembled at Philadelphia in 1774, and took the government of Pennsylvania into its own hands. The regular Assembly continued to meet, but no quorum could be obtained; and finally, with an impotent protest, the old colonial legislature expired in September.

Pennsylvania for Independence. On June 18, 1774, there was a general conference of the committees of the several counties in the state. They assembled at Carpenters' Hall. In this conference few, if any, of the old Assembly appeared. Thomas McKean was chosen president, and on the 19th the one hundred and four members present unanimously approved the action of Congress respecting the formation of states. They condemned the present government of the colony as incompetent, and a new one was ordered to be formed on the authority of the people. On the afternoon of the 24th, with equal unanimity, the delegates declared, for themselves and their constituents, their willingness to concur in a vote of Congress for independence.

Pennsylvania Legislature Hesitates. Timidity marked the course of the Legislature of Pennsylvania in the autumn of 1775, while the people at large, especially in Philadelphia, were zealously in favor of the martial proceedings of Congress. The Assembly was under the influence of John Dickinson, who opposed independence to the last. When the Assembly met (Oct. 16, 1775), all of the members present subscribed to the usual engagement of allegiance to the king. In a few days the Quakers presented an address in favor of conciliatory measures, and deprecating everything "likely to widen or perpetuate the breach with the parent state." The Committee of Sixty for the City and Liberties of Philadelphia, headed by George Clymer and Thomas McKean, went in procession, two by two, to the State-house, and delivered a remonstrance, calculated to counteract the influence of Dickinson and the Quakers. This halting spirit in the Pennsylvania Assembly appeared several months longer, and on the vote for independence (July 2, 1776) the Pennsylvania delegates were divided.

Pennsylvania Paper-currency. In 1723 Pennsylvania made its first issue of a paper-currency. It issued, in March, paper bills of credit to the amount of \$60,000, made them a legal tender in all payments on pain of confiscating the debt or forfeiting the commodity, imposed sufficient penalties on all persons who presumed to make any bargain or sale on cheaper terms in case of being paid in gold or silver, and provided for the gradual reduction of the bills by enacting that one eighth of the principal, as well as the whole interest, should be paid annually. It made no loans but on land security or plate deposited in the loan office, and obliged borrowers to pay five per cent. for the sums they took up. The scheme worked so well that, in the latter end of the year, the government emitted bills to the amount of \$150,000 on the same terms. In 1729 there was a new emission of \$150,000 to be reduced one sixteenth

a year. Pennsylvania was one of the last—if not the very last—provinces that emitted a paper-currency.

Pennsylvania, POSITION OF (1861). The great State of Pennsylvania, with 3,000,000 inhabitants, was profoundly moved by the rising tempest of secession at near the close of 1860. There was an immense assemblage of citizens in Independence Square, Philadelphia (called by Mayor Alexander Henry), on Dec. 13. In his proclamation, the mayor said disunion was inevitable, unless "the loyal people, casting off the spirit of party, should in a special manner avow their unflinching fidelity to the Union and their abiding faith in the Constitution and laws." The Protestant bishop of the diocese (Alonzo Potter, D.D.) opened the meeting with prayer, and it was addressed by patriotic men of all parties. The prevailing sentiment expressed in the speeches was highly conservative, and even submissive to the demands of the slaveholders, while some more earnest souls recommended a manly and energetic assertion of the sovereignty of the national government. The resolutions adopted by the meeting proposed the repeal of the Personal Liberty Act of Pennsylvania, and the obligations of the people to assist in the full execution of the Fugitive Slave Law; pointed with "pride and satisfaction to the recent conviction and punishment, in Philadelphia," of those who had attempted to rescue an alleged fugitive slave from bondage; recommended the passage of a law providing for the payment of full remuneration to the owner of a slave who might lose him by such rescue; declared they regarded slaves as property, in accordance with the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States; and, also, "that all denunciation of slavery, as existing in the United States, and of our fellow-citizens who maintain that institution and who hold slaves under it, are inconsistent with the spirit of brotherhood and kindness which ought to animate all who live under and profess to support the Constitution of the American Union." These obsequious resolutions were passed a week before the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession was passed. They did not express the sentiments of the people of Pennsylvania, as was made manifest immediately afterwards. On Jan. 15, 1861, Andrew J. Curtin—a Republican—was inaugurated governor of the state, and his address on that occasion was a foreshadowing of the energy and loyalty to the Union which he displayed throughout the war that ensued. Two days afterwards the Legislature, by resolutions, approved the course of Major Anderson in Charleston and of Governor Hicks of Maryland. (See *Maryland, Position of.*) In a series of resolutions adopted on the 24th, they pointedly condemned the secession movements in the South, and pledged "the faith and power of Pennsylvania" to the support of measures for suppressing the rising insurrection, saying: "All plots, conspiracies, and warlike preparations against the United States, in any section of the country, are treasonable in their character," and that all the powers of government should be used, if necessary, to sup-

press them "without delay." By its loyal government and firm Legislature, Pennsylvania was placed squarely as a staunch supporter of the government, and fully redeemed all its pledges.

Pennsylvania, RAPID GROWTH OF THE COLONY OF. The same year that Penn landed (1682), twenty-three ships sailed up the Delaware. In less than a year eighty houses and cottages had been built, three hundred farms laid out, and plentiful crops had been gathered. In 1684 there were three hundred and fifty-seven large and well-built houses, and fifty townships had been settled. There were six hundred houses in 1685, and in one year ninety vessels brought more than seven thousand emigrants to the province.

Pennsylvania Reserves. General Patterson, commander of the Department of Pennsylvania (see *Military Departments in 1861*), comprehended the wants of government, and, while the capital was cut off from communication with the loyal people of the state, he took the responsibility of officially requesting (April 25) the governor of Pennsylvania to direct the organization in that state of twenty-five regiments of volunteers. It was done. These were in addition to the sixteen regiments called for by the Secretary of War. The Legislature took the twenty-five regiments into the service of the state, the Secretary of War first declining to receive them. This was the origin of the fine body of soldiers known as the Pennsylvania Reserves, who were gladly accepted by the Secretary after the battle of Bull's Run.

Pennsylvania State Government. The first attempt to organize a state government in Pennsylvania was a failure. A new state constitution had been formed, and an election for members of Assembly had been held. A very large and influential party in the state, regarding the new constitution as too democratic, had plotted against it in some counties, and these had produced a neglect to choose the councillors in whom the executive authority was vested. In consequence of these machinations, when the Assembly met (Nov. 28, 1776), they were compelled to adjourn without organizing a legislature. Councillors were afterwards elected, and a new state government was organized on March 4, 1777, with Thomas Wharton, Jr., as president.

Pennsylvania, THE STATE OF, was governed by a code framed by William Penn, and several times amended, until 1776, when a provisional constitution was prepared by a convention, of which Benjamin Franklin was president. In 1790 a new constitution was adopted, which has since been several times amended. In 1838 provision was made for electing, instead of appointing, county officers; the right of voting was limited to white persons, and the term of judicial offices was reduced from life to ten and fifteen years. In 1850 the judiciary was made elective by the people; subscriptions to internal improvements by municipal authorities was prohibited, and in 1864 the right of suffrage was guaranteed to soldiers in the field. An amended constitution

went into force on Jan. 1, 1874. Philadelphia, the oldest and largest city of Pennsylvania, was the scene of very important events—the meeting of the Continental Congress, the adoption and signing of the Declaration of Independence, and the framing of the National Constitution.



STATE SEAL OF PENNSYLVANIA.

It was the national capital for several years. In Pennsylvania occurred the first very severe strain that tested the strength of the national government, in the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), in 1794. Lancaster was chosen as the seat of the state government in 1799, and in 1812 Harrisburg became the state capital. In the Civil War Pennsylvania was invaded by the Confederates, and on its soil the decisive battle of the war occurred, at Gettysburg (which see). The next year (1864) the Confederates penetrated to Chambersburg, and nearly destroyed the town by fire. At the beginning of the Civil War, Pennsylvania raised a large body of reserve troops (see *Pennsylvania Reserves*), and during the war furnished to the national army 387,284 troops. Population in 1890, 5,258,014.

Pennsylvania Troops at the Capital. Pennsylvania has the honor of having sent the first troops to the National capital for its defence, in April, 1861. The troops comprised five companies from the interior of the state—namely, "Washington Artillery" and "National Light Infantry," of Pottsville, Schuylkill Co.; the "Ringgold Light Artillery," of Reading, Berks Co.; the "Logan Guards," of Lewistown, Mifflin Co.; and the "Allen Infantry," of Allentown, Lehigh Co. On the call of the President, the commanders of these companies telegraphed to Governor Curtin that their ranks were full and ready for service. They were assembled at Harrisburg on the evening of April 17. Accompanied by forty regular soldiers destined for Fort McHenry, they went by rail to Baltimore the next morning, and while passing from one railway station to another were subjected to gross insults and attacked with missiles by a mob. They were without arms, for their expected new muskets were not ready when they got to Harrisburg. They found Maryland a hostile territory to pass through, but they reached the capital in safety early in the evening of April 18. They were received by the government and loyal people there with heartfelt joy, for rumors that the minute-men of Maryland and Virginia were about to seize Washington city had been prevalent all day. The Pennsylvanians were hailed as deliverers. They were marched to the capitol-grounds, greeted by cheer after cheer, and assigned to quarters in the hall of the House of Representatives. The startling rumor soon spread over the city that 2000 National troops had arrived, well armed with Minié rifles. The real number was 530. The disunion-

ists and the sympathizers were overawed just in time to save the capital from seizure.

Pennsylvania Volunteers. The skirmishes at Lexington and Concord caused great commotion in other colonies. A large public meeting was held at Philadelphia (April 24, 1775), at which measures were taken for entering into a volunteer military association, the spirit of which pervaded the whole province. Many of the young Quakers took part in the organization, in spite of the remonstrance of their elders, and were disowned. They afterwards formed a society called "Free Quakers." Thomas Mifflin (afterwards a major-general) was a leading spirit among these. John Dickinson (which see) accepted the command of a regiment; so, also, did Thomas McKean and James Wilson, both afterwards signers of the Declaration of Independence. The Assembly, which met soon afterwards, voted £1800 towards the expenses of these volunteers. They also appointed a Committee of Safety, with Dr. Franklin as chairman, which not only took measures for the defence of Philadelphia, but soon afterwards assumed the whole executive authority of the province.

Pennymite and Yankee War. Trouble began in Wyoming valley between Connecticut settlers under the auspices of the Susquehanna Company and the Pennsylvanians in 1769, when the former made a second attempt to clear the way for planting a colony in that region. (See *Susquehanna Company*.) In 1768 the proprietary of Pennsylvania purchased of the Six Nations the whole Wyoming valley, and leased it for seven years to three Pennsylvanians, who built a fortified trading-house there. In February, 1769, forty pioneers of the Susquehanna Company entered the Wyoming valley and invested the block-house, garrisoned by ten men, who gave Governor Penn notice of the situation. Three of the Connecticut men were lured into the block-house under pretence of making an adjustment of difficulties, and were seized by the sheriff and taken to jail at Easton. Other emigrants flocked in from Connecticut, and the sheriff called upon the posse of the county to assist in their arrest. The Connecticut people, also, had built a block-house, which they named Forty Fort. The sheriff broke down its doors, arrested thirty of the inmates, and sent them to Easton jail. When admitted to bail, they returned with about two hundred men from Connecticut, who built Fort Durkee, just below Wilkesbarre, so named in honor of their commander, John Durkee, the "bold Bean-hiller of Norwich." Then the sheriff reported to the governor that the whole power of the county was insufficient to oppose the "Yankees." Meanwhile the company had sent commissioners to Philadelphia to confer upon a compromise. The governor (Penn) refused to receive them, and sent an armed force, under Colonel Francis, into the valley. The sheriff joined Francis with a strong armed party, with a 6-pound cannon. Colonel Durkee and several of the inhabitants were captured, and the fort was surrendered upon conditions which were immediately vio-

lated. The next year Colonel Durkee, released, took command of the Connecticut people, and captured the sheriff's cannon; also one of the leading Pennsylvanians (Amos Ogden), who had fortified his house. Imitating the bad faith of their opponents, the Yankees seized his property and burned his house. Governor Penn now (1770) called upon General Gage, in command of the British troops at New York, for a detachment "to restore order in Wyoming." He refused. In the autumn Ogden marched by the Lehigh route, with one hundred and forty men, to surprise the settlers in Wyoming. From the mountain-tops he saw the farmers in the valley pursuing their avocations without suspicion of danger. He swooped down upon the settlement in the night, and assailed Fort Durkee, then filled with women and children. The fort and the houses of the settlement were plundered, and many of the chief inhabitants were sent to Easton jail. The Yankees left the valley, and the "Pennymites," as the Pennsylvanians were called, took possession again. On the night of Dec. 18 the Connecticut people, led by Lazarus Stewart, returned, and, attacking Fort Durkee, with the shout of "Huzza for King George!" captured it and drove the Pennymites out of the valley. In January following they returned in force, when Stewart, perceiving that he could not long resist them, fled from the valley (Jan. 20, 1771), leaving a garrison of twelve men in the fort, who were made prisoners and sent to Easton. Peace reigned there until near midsummer, when Captain Zebulon Butler, with seventy armed men from Connecticut and a party under Stewart, suddenly descended from the mountains and menaced a new fort which Ogden had built. The besieged, within strong works, were well supplied with provisions, and defied their assailants. Ogden managed to escape, went to Philadelphia, and induced the governor (then Hamilton) to send a detachment of one hundred men to Wyoming. The expedition was unsuccessful. The besiegers kept them at bay, and the siege, during which several persons were killed, was ended Aug. 11. By the terms of capitulation, the Pennsylvanians were to leave the valley. So ended the contest for 1771. The Yankees held the coveted domain, and, under the advice of the Connecticut Assembly, they organized civil government there upon a democratic system. The government was well administered, the colony rapidly increased, and the people were prosperous and happy. The settlement was incorporated with the colony of Connecticut, after a judicial decision in England. (See *Susquehanna Company*.) The territory was called Westmoreland, and attached to Litchfield County, Conn., and its representatives were admitted into the General Assembly. Wilkesbarre was laid out, and for four years peace smiled upon the beautiful valley. Suddenly, in the autumn of 1775, the Pennsylvanians, encouraged by Governor Penn, renewed the civil war, killing and imprisoning the inhabitants. The Continental Congress interfered in vain; but when the proprietary government was abolished, in the

progress of the contest for independence, this "Pennymite and Yankee War" was suddenly ended.

Penobscot. The first permanent English occupation of the region of the Penobscot—to which the French laid claim—was acquired in 1759, when Governor Pownall, of Massachusetts, with the consent of the Legislature, caused a fort to be built on the western bank of the Penobscot (now Fort Knox), near the village of Prospect, which was named Fort Pownall. An armed force from Massachusetts took possession of the region, built the fort, cut off the communications of the Eastern Indians (the only ones then hostile to the English), and so ended the contest for the Penobscot region by arms.

Penobscot, EXPEDITION TO THE. A British force of several hundred men from Nova Scotia entered eastern Maine and established themselves in a fortified place on the Penobscot River. Massachusetts sent a force to dislodge the intruders. The expedition consisted of nineteen armed vessels (three of them Continental), under Captain Saltonstall, of Connecticut, and fifteen hundred militia, commanded by General Lovell. These were borne on the fleet of Saltonstall, and landed (July 26, 1779) near the obnoxious post, with a loss of one hundred men. Finding the works too strong for his troops, Lovell sent to General Gates, at Boston, to forward a detachment of Continentals. Hearing of this expedition, Sir George Collins, who had been made chief naval commander on the American station, sailed for the Penobscot with five heavy war-ships. The Massachusetts troops re-embarked (Aug. 13) when Sir George approached, and, in the smaller vessels, fled up the river. When they found they could not escape, they ran five frigates and ten smaller vessels ashore and blew them up. The others were captured by the British. The soldiers and seamen escaped to the shore, and suffered much for want of provisions while traversing an uninhabited country for one hundred miles.

Penobscot Taken Possession of by the French. The "Company of New France," which had purchased Sir W. Alexander's rights to territory in Nova Scotia through Stephen, Lord of La Tour, in 1630, conveyed the territory on the banks of the River St. John to this nobleman in 1635. Rossellon, commander of a French fort in Acadia, sent a French man-of-war to Penobscot and took possession of the Plymouth trading-house there, with all its goods. A vessel was sent from Plymouth to recover the property. The French fortified the place, and were so strongly intrenched that the expedition was abandoned. The Plymouth people never afterwards recovered their interest at Penobscot.

Pensacola (1814). In April, 1814, Andrew Jackson was commissioned a major-general in the army of the United States and appointed to the command of the Seventh Military District. While he was yet arranging the treaty with the conquered Creeks, he had been alarmed by reports of succor and refuge given to some of them by the Spanish authorities at Pensacola,

and of a communication opened with them by a British vessel which had landed arms and agents at Appalachicola. In consequence of his report of these doings, he received orders to take possession of Pensacola. But these orders were six months on the way. Meanwhile two British sloops-of-war, with two or three smaller vessels, had arrived at Pensacola, and were proclaimed (Aug. 4) as the van of a much larger naval force. Colonel Edward Nichols had been permitted to land a small body of troops at Pensacola, and to draw around him, arm, and train hostile refugee Creeks. Jackson's headquarters were at Mobile. Late in August the mask of Spanish neutrality was removed, when nine British vessels of war lay at anchor in the harbor of Pensacola, and Colonel Nichols was made a welcome guest of the Spanish governor. A British flag, raised over one of the Spanish forts there, proclaimed the alliance; and it was found that Indian runners had been sent out from Pensacola among the neighboring Seminole-Creeks, inviting them to Pensacola, there to be enrolled in the service of the British. Almost one thousand of these barbarians were gathered there, where they received arms and ammunition in abundance from the British officers. Nichols also sent out proclamations to the inhabitants of the Gulf region containing inflammatory appeals to the prejudices of the French and the discontent of others; and he told his troops that they were called upon to make long and tedious marches in the wilderness and to conciliate the Indians. At this juncture Jackson acted promptly and effectively, without the advice of his tardy government. He caused a beat-up for volunteers, and very soon two thousand sturdy young men were ready for the field. After they arrived Jackson took some time to get his forces well in hand; and early in November he marched from Fort Montgomery, which was due north from Pensacola, with four thousand ardent troops—some Mississippi dragoons in the advance—and encamped within two miles of Pensacola on the evening of Nov. 6. He sent word to the Spanish governor that he had come, not to make war on a neutral power, nor to injure the town, but to deprive the enemies of the Republic of a place of refuge. His messenger (Major Pierre) was instructed to demand the surrender of the forts. When Pierre approached, under a flag of truce, he was fired upon by a 12-pounder at Fort St. Michael, which was garrisoned by British troops. Jackson sent Pierre again at midnight with a proposition to the governor to allow Americans to occupy the forts at Pensacola until the Spanish government could send a sufficient force to maintain neutrality. This proposition was rejected; and Jackson, satisfied that the governor's protestations of inability to resist the British invasion were only pretexts, marched upon Pensacola before the dawn with three thousand men. They avoided the fire of the forts and the shipping in the harbor, and the centre of the column made a gallant charge into the town. They were met by a two-gun battery in the principal street, and showers of

bullets from the houses and gardens. The Americans, led by Captain Laval, captured the battery, when the frightened governor appeared with a white flag and promised to comply with any terms if Jackson would spare the town. An instant surrender of all the forts was demanded and promised, and, after some delay, it was done. The British, also alarmed by this sudden attack, blew up Fort Barancas, six miles from Pensacola, which they occupied; and early in the morning (Nov. 7, 1814) their ships left the harbor, bearing away, besides the British, the Spanish commandant of the forts, with four hundred men and a considerable number of Indians. The Spanish governor (Manriquez) was indignant because of the flight of his British friends, and the Creeks were deeply impressed with a feeling that it would be imprudent to again defy the wrath of General Jackson. He had, by this expedition, accomplished three important results—namely, the expulsion of the British from Pensacola, the scattering of the gathering Indians in great alarm, and the punishing of the Spaniards for such perfidy.

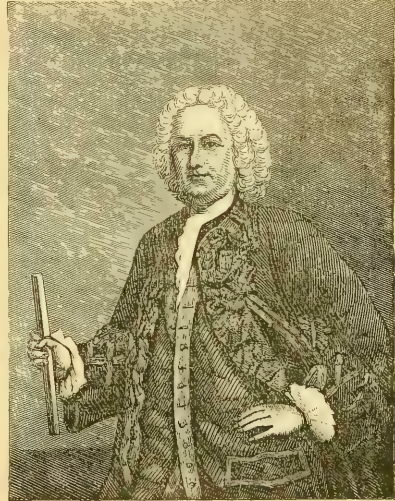
Pensacola Occupied by the Spaniards. When Iberville (which see), the Canadian, was on his way to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River, he attempted to enter Pensacola Bay, but found himself confronted by Spaniards in arms, who had come from Vera Cruz and built a fort there, under the guns of which lay two Spanish ships. The Spaniards still claimed the whole circuit of the Gulf of Mexico, and, jealous of the designs of the French, had hastened to occupy Pensacola harbor, the best on the Gulf. The barrier there constructed ultimately established the dividing line between Florida and Louisiana. In 1696 Don Andre d'Arriola was appointed the first governor of Pensacola, and took possession of the province. He built a fort with four bastions, which he called Fort Charles; also a church and some houses.

Pensacola Taken by the Spaniards (1781). On Feb. 28, 1781, Galvez, the Spanish governor of Louisiana, sailed from New Orleans with fourteen hundred men to seize Pensacola, Fla. He could effect but little alone; but finally he was joined (May 9) by an armed squadron from Havana, and by a reinforcement from Mobile. Galvez now gained possession of the harbor of Pensacola, and soon afterwards Colonel Campbell, who commanded the British garrison there, surrendered. Pensacola and the rest of Florida had passed into the possession of the British by the treaty of 1763. Two years after Galvez captured the place (1783) the whole province was retroceded to Spain.

Pensions of Revolutionary Soldiers. In 1820 a curtailment of the public expenses was clamored for, and the first act in that direction was to weed out the Revolutionary pensioners. Their number then was about sixteen thousand, the greater part citizens of the Northern States. Their aggregate pensions amounted to \$3,000,000 annually. An act was passed to restrict pensioners to such applicants as, upon a schedule

of their property, exhibited under oath, the Secretary of War (Calhoun) should judge indigent. All were excluded, with a very few exceptions, whose schedules exceeded \$200. Under this stringent rule the list of pensioners was reduced about one half. (See Supplement.)

Pepperell, Sir William, was born at Kittery Point, Me., June 27, 1696; died there, July 6, 1759. His father, a Welshman, came to New England as apprentice to a fisherman, where he married. The son became a merchant,



SIR WILLIAM PEPPERELL.

amassed a large fortune, and became an influential man. Fitted by temperament for military life, he was frequently engaged against the Indians, and attained much distinction. About 1727 he was appointed one of his majesty's council for the province of Massachusetts, and held the office, by re-election, thirty-two consecutive years. Appointed Chief-justice of Common Pleas in 1730, he became eminent as a jurist. In 1745 he commanded the successful expedition against Louisburg, and was knighted. On visiting England in 1749, he was commissioned colonel in the British army; became major-general in 1755; and lieutenant-general in 1759. From 1756 to 1758 Sir William was acting governor of Massachusetts before the arrival of Powhall.

Pequod Fort, ATTACK ON THE. The principal fort of the Pequods, or rather their palisaded village, was upon a hill near the Mystic River, in the town of Stonington, Conn. It was crowded with men, women, and children, all unsuspecting of danger near, when, on the night of May 25, 1637, Captain John Mason, with about two hundred New-Englanders and several hundred Indians, lay near, like crouching tigers, ready to spring upon their prey. Sounds of mirth were heard in the fort until late in the night. Just at dawn, when deep slumber made the Indian camp silent, Mason and his followers, led by Uncas and a Pequod sachem who

had deserted his people, crept silently to within a rod of the palisades and completely surrounded the fort. The sleepers were awakened by the barking of a dog, when a Pequod sprang to his feet and cried, "Englishmen! Englishmen!" There were two sally-ports to the fort. Into one of these Mason entered, and Captain John Underhill (which see) rushed in at the other, each followed by white men and Indians. There was no chance for escape to the doomed Pequods but by overpowering the assailants. In the confusion of a sudden awakening, the resistance was feeble. The women and children tried to hide themselves. The assailants made indiscriminate slaughter. The weapons were not swift enough in the work of destruction. "We must burn them," Mason cried, and, snatching a firebrand, he thrust it into the dried branches and mats that covered the wigwams. Others followed the example, and very soon the whole palisaded village was ablaze. Through the fire and smoke the Indians attempted to escape, but they met the guns and swords of Englishmen first, and the weapons of a circle of hostile barbarians more remote. "Such a dreadful terror did the Almighty let fall upon their spirits," wrote Mason, "that they would fly from us and run into the very flames, where many of them perished." Of the whole six or seven hundred people who lay quietly slumbering before the dawn within the palisades, only seven escaped the fire and sword. "Thus," piously exclaimed Captain Mason, "did the Lord judge among the heathen!" Only two Englishmen were killed, and about twenty wounded. The Indians who escaped carried the dreadful news to Sassacus, who, a few miles distant, had still about three hundred warriors at his command. Fearing these, the treacherous Narragansets deserted the English, but Uncas remained true. The Pequod War continued five months. (See *Pequod War*.)

Pequod War, THE. The most powerful of the New England tribes were the Pequods (see *Indians*), whose territory extended from Narraganset Bay to Hudson's River, and over Long Island. Sassacus, their emperor, ruled over twenty-six native princes. He was bold, cruel, cool, calculating, treacherous, haughty, fierce, and malignant. Jealous of the friendship of the English for the Mohegans, and believing the garrison at the mouth of the Connecticut River would soon be strengthened (see *Saybrook*) and endanger his dominions, Sassacus determined to exterminate the white people. He tried to induce the Narragansets and the Mohegans to join him in the business. The united tribes might put 4000 braves on the war-path at once, while there were not more than 250 Englishmen in the Connecticut valley capable of bearing arms. Sassacus undertook the task alone. First his people kidnapped children, murdered men alone in the forests or on the waters, and swept away fourteen families. A Massachusetts trading-vessel was seized by the Indians at Block Island, plundered, and its commander, John Oldham, murdered. They were allies of the Pequods, who protected them. The authorities at Boston

sent Endicott and Captain Gardiner to chastise them. With a small military force in three vessels they entered Long Island Sound. They killed some Indians at Block Island, and left the domain a blackened desolation. Then they went over to the mainland, made some demands which they could not enforce; desolated fields, burned wigwams, killed a few people and departed. The exasperated Pequods sent ambassadors to the Narragansets urging them to join in a war of extermination. Through the influence of Roger Williams, who rendered good for evil, the Narragansets were not only kept from joining the Pequods, but became allies of the English in making war upon them. All through the next winter the Pequods harassed the settlements in the Connecticut valley, and in the spring of 1637 the colonists determined to make war upon the aggressors. They had slain more than thirty Englishmen. Massachusetts sent troops to assist the Connecticut people. The English were joined by the Mohegans under Uncas, and the entire army was under the command of Captain John Mason, who had been a soldier in the Netherlands. The little army proceeded by water to the Narraganset country, whence the Pequods would least expect attack, and marched upon their rear. The Indians, seeing them sail eastward, concluded the English had abandoned the expedition and the Connecticut valley. It was a fatal mistake. The white people were joined by many Narragansets and Niantics, and while Sassacus was dreaming of the flight of the Europeans, more than five hundred warriors, pale and dusky, were marching swiftly to attack his stronghold near the waters of the Mystic River. Mason was accompanied by Captain Underhill, another brave soldier. When the invaders reached the foot of the hill on which the fort of Sassacus stood—a circular structure strongly palisaded, embracing seventy wigwams covered with matting and thatch—they were yet undiscovered. The sentinels could hear the sounds of revelry among the savages within the fortress. At midnight all was still. Two hours before the dawn (May 26, 1637) the invaders marched upon the fort in two columns. The Indian allies grew fearful, for Sassacus was regarded as all but a god. Uncas was firm. The dusky warriors lingered behind, and formed a cordon in the woods around the fortress to kill any who might attempt to escape. The moon shone brightly. Stealthily the little army crept up the hill, when an aroused sentinel awakened the sleepers within the fort. Mason and Underhill, approaching from opposite directions, burst in the sally-ports. The terrified savages rushed out, but were driven back by swords and musket-balls. Their thatched wigwams were fired, and within an hour about six hundred men, women, and children were slain. The blood-thirsty and the innocent shared the same fate. Only seven of the Pequods escaped death, and Cotton Mather afterwards wrote, "It was supposed that no less than five or six hundred Pequod souls were brought down to hell that day." Sassacus was not there; he was at another fort near the Thames, opposite the site of New Lon-

don. Sassacus sat stately and sullen when told of the massacre at the Mystic. His warriors were furious, and they threatened his life if he did not immediately lead them against the invaders. Just then the blast of a trumpet was heard. The white invaders were near, full two hundred strong. The savages fled with their women and children across the Thames, through the forest and over green savannas westward, closely pursued. The fugitives took refuge in Sasco Swamp, near Fairfield, where they all surrendered to the English excepting Sassacus and a few followers who escaped. A nation had perished in a day. That blow gave peace to New England for forty years. The last representative of the pure blood of the Pequods, probably, was Ennice Mauwee, who died at Kent, Conn., about the year 1860, aged one hundred years. Sassacus took refuge with the Mohawks, who, at the request of the Narragansets, cut off his head.

Percy (Earl), HUGH, was born Aug. 25, 1742; died July 10, 1817. Entering the army in his youth, he first saw service under Prince Ferdinand in Germany. He commanded as brigadier-general against the Americans in 1775-76. To Lexington, on the morning of the affray there (April, 1775), he led a timely reinforcement, and in the fall of 1776 he assisted in the reduction of Fort Washington (which see). The next month his mother died, when he succeeded to the baronetcy of Percy, and returned to England. He became Duke of Northumberland in June, 1786.



HUGH PERCY.

Perkins, JACOB, inventor, was born at Newburyport, Mass., July 9, 1766; died in London, July 30, 1849. So early as his fifteenth year he carried on the business of a goldsmith in Newburyport, and he early invented a method for plating shoe-buckles. He made dies for coining money when the United States Mint was under consideration. He was then twenty-one, and when he was twenty-four he invented a machine for making nails at one operation, and steel plates for bank-notes, which, it was supposed, could not be counterfeited. After living in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, he went to England (1815), where he perfected steam-engines, and for many years carried on a large manufactory in London. He originated the process used by bank-note engravers for transferring an engraving from one steel plate to another, and perfected many other inventions, for which he received the gold medal of the Society of Arts in London.

Perry, MATTHEW CALBRAITH, was born at Newport, R. I., in 1794; died in New York, March 4, 1858. He was a brother of Commodore O. H. Perry, and entered the navy as midshipman in 1809. In command of the *Cyane*, in 1819, he fixed the locality of the settlement of Liberia. (See *Colonization Society, American*.) He captured several pirate vessels in the West Indies from 1821

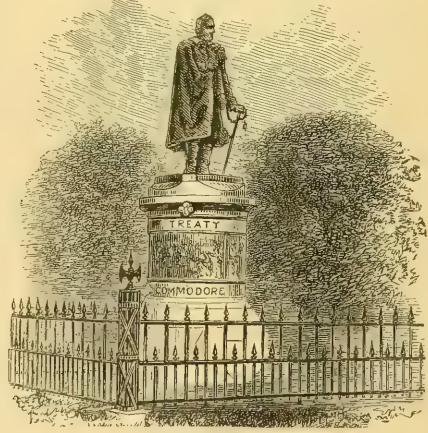
to 1824, and was employed on shore from 1833 to 1841, when he again, as commodore, went to sea in command of squadrons for several years, engaging in the siege of Vera Cruz in 1847. From 1852 to 1854 he commanded the expedition to Japan, and negotiated a very important treaty with the rulers of that empire, which has led to wonderful results in the social and religious condition of that people, and secured great advantages to America.

Perry, OLIVER HAZARD, was born at South Kingston, R. I., Aug. 23, 1785; died in Trinidad, W. I., of yellow fever, Aug. 23, 1819. He entered



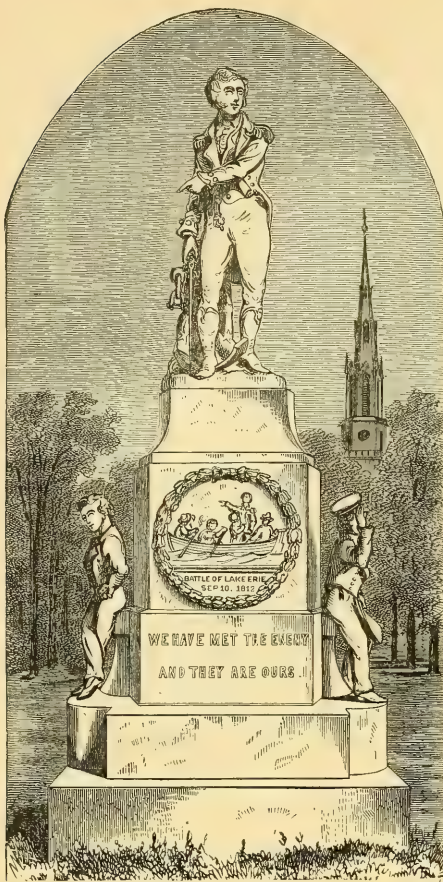
OLIVER HAZARD PERRY.

the navy as midshipman in 1799; served in the Tripolitan War; had charge of a flotilla of gun-boats in New York harbor in 1812; and in 1813 was called to the command of a fleet on Lake Erie. He first served under Chauncey on Lake Ontario. His squadron was built at Presque Isle (now Erie), and on Sept. 10, 1813, he gained a complete victory over a British squadron. (See



PERRY'S MONUMENT, NEWPORT.

Lake Erie, Battle of.) He was then only master-commander, but was immediately promoted to captain, and received the thanks of Congress



PERRY'S STATUE.

and a medal. He assisted Harrison in retaking Detroit late in 1813. In 1815 Perry commanded the *Java* in Decatur's squadron in the Mediterranean, and in 1819 he was sent against the pirates in the West Indies. The name and fame of Perry is held in loving remembrance by the Americans. In 1860 a fine marble statue of him by Walcutt was erected in a public square in Cleveland, O., with imposing ceremonies, and a fine monument to his memory has been erected in Newport, R. I. At the unveiling of the statue at Cleveland, George Bancroft, the historian, delivered an address; Dr. Usher Parsons, Perry's surgeon in the fight on Lake Erie, read an historical discourse, and, at a dinner afterwards, about three hundred surviving soldiers of the War of 1812-15 sat down. The average of their ages was about seventy years, and the aggregate of the venerable company was about 20,000 years!

Perry's Battle-flag. On the evening of the 9th of September, 1813, Commodore Perry called around him the officers of his squadron and gave in-

structions to each in writing, for he had determined to attack the British squadron at its anchorage the next day. The conference ended at about ten o'clock. The unclouded moon was at its full. Just before the officers departed, Perry brought out a square battle-flag which had been privately prepared for him at Erie. It was blue, and bore in large white letters made of muslin the alleged dying words of Lawrence—"DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP." "When this flag shall be hoisted at the main-yard," said Perry, "it shall be your signal for going into action." This flag is at the Naval Academy, Annapolis. (See *Lake Erie, Battle of*.)

Perry's Famous Despatch. When Commodore Perry had fought the victorious battle on Lake Erie (which see), and his eye saw at a glance that victory was secure, he wrote in pencil on the back of an old letter, resting the paper on his navy cap, the following despatch to General Harrison, the first clause of which has often been quoted:

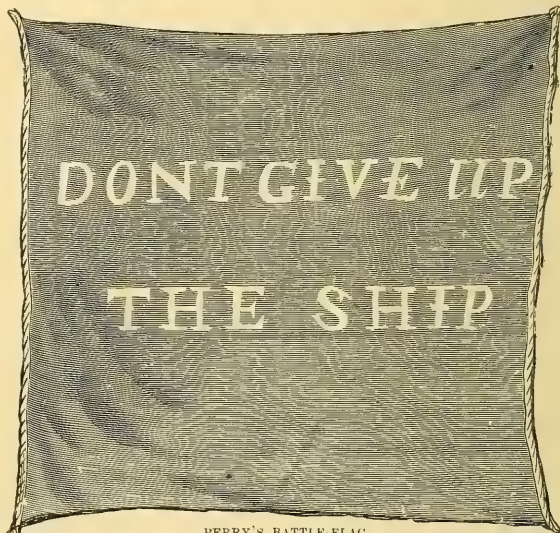
"We have met the enemy and they are ours: two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop.

Yours, with great respect and esteem,
O. H. PERRY."

Many songs were written and sung in commemoration of Perry's victory. One of the most popular of these was "American Perry," beginning,

"Bold Barclay one day to Proctor did say,
I'm tired of Jamaica and cherry;
So let us go down to that new floating town
And get some American Perry.
Oh, cheap American Perry!
Most pleasant American Perry!
We need only bear down, knock and call,
And we'll have the American Perry."

Among the caricatures of the day was one by Charles, of Philadelphia, representing John Bull, in the person of the king, seated, with his hand pressed upon his stomach, indicating pain, which the fresh juice of the pear, called Perry, will produce. Queen Charlotte, the king's wife (a fair likeness of whom is given), enters with a bottle labelled "Perry," out of which the cork has flown, and in the foam are seen the names of the vessels



PERRY'S BATTLE-FLAG.

composing the American squadron. She says, "Johnny, won't you take some more Perry?" John Bull replies, while writhing in pain produced by perry, "Oh! Perry!!! Curse that Perry! One disaster after another—I have not half recovered of the bloody nose I got at the boxing-

match!" they made Richard Hawes "Provisional Governor of Kentucky" while Bragg's plundering bands were scouring the state and driving away southward thousands of hogs and cattle and numerous trains bearing bacon, breadstuffs, and store-goods taken from merchants in various large

*I have met the enemy and they are ours.
Two Ships, two Brigs one
Schooner & one Sloop.*

Yours, with great respect and esteem

O. D. Perry.

FAC-SIMILE OF PERRY'S DESPATCH.

match!" This last expression refers to the capture of the *Boxer* by the American schooner *Enterprise*. This caricature is entitled "Queen Charlotte and Johnny Bull got their dose of Perry." The point will be better perceived by remembering that one of the principal vessels of the British squadron was named the *Queen Charlotte*, in honor of the royal consort. In a ballad of the day occur the following lines:

"On Erie's wave, while Barclay brave,
With *Charlotte* making merry,
He chanced to take the belly-ache,
We drenched him so with *Perry*."

towns. As a show of honesty, these raiders gave Confederate scrip in exchange. Regarding Kentucky as a part of the Confederacy (see *Kentucky Ordinance of Secession*), conscription was put in force by Bragg at the point of the bayonet. The loyal people cried for help. The cautious Buell made a tardy response. He had been engaged in a race for Louisville with Bragg, and on the 1st of October turned to strike his opponent. His army, 100,000 strong, was arranged in three corps, commanded respectively by Generals Gilbert, Crittenden, and McCook. General George



Perryville, BATTLE AT. Bragg's troops formed a junction with those of General E. Kirby Smith (see *Richmond, Ky.*) at Frankfort, Oct. 1, when

H. Thomas, Buell's second in command, had charge of the right wing, and soon began to feel the Confederates. Bragg, outflanked, fell slow-

ly back towards Springfield, when Buell, informed that he was moving to concentrate his army at Harrodsburg or Perryville, ordered the central division of his army under Gilbert to march for the latter place. The head of this division, under General R. B. Mitchell, fell in with a heavy force of Confederates (Oct. 7) within five miles of Perryville, drawn up in battle order. These were pressed back about three miles, when General Sheridan's division was ordered up to an eligible position. Buell was there, and, expecting a battle in the morning, he sent for the flank corps of Crittenden and McCook to close up on his right, and, if possible, surround the Confederates. There was a delay in the arrival of Crittenden, and Bragg, perceiving his peril, had begun to retreat. He was anxious to secure the exit of the plunder-trains from the state. As Crittenden did not speedily arrive, Bragg resolved to give battle in his absence. His army was immediately commanded by General Polk. There had been a sharp engagement on the morning of the 8th, when the Confederates were repulsed and driven back by troops under Colonel D. McCook, of Sheridan's division, with Barnett's battery, some Michigan cavalry, and a Missouri regiment. The Confederates were repulsed, and so ended the preliminary battle of that day. Mitchell, Sheridan, Rousseau, and Jackson advanced with troops to secure the position, and a Michigan and an Indiana battery were planted in commanding positions. A reconnoissance in force was now made. Bragg was stealthily approaching, being well masked, and Cheatham's division fell suddenly and heavily upon McCook's flank with horrid yells, when the raw and outnumbered troops of General Terrell broke and fled. General Jackson had been killed. In an attempt to rally his troops, Terrell was mortally wounded. When Terrell's force was scattered, the Confederates fell with equal weight upon Rousseau's division. An attempt to destroy it was met by Starkweather's brigade and the batteries of Bush and Stone, who maintained their positions for nearly three hours, until the ammunition of both infantry and artillery was nearly exhausted. Bush's battery had lost thirty-five horses. Meanwhile, Rousseau's troops fought stubbornly, and held their position while resisting Confederates commanded by Bragg in person. The Confederates finally made a fierce charge on the brigade of Lytle, hurling it back with heavy loss. They pressed forward to Gilbert's flank, held by Mitchell and Sheridan. The latter held the king-point of the Union position. He quickly turned his guns on the assailants, when Mitchell sent Carlin's brigade to the support of Sheridan's right. This force charged at the double-quick, broke the Confederate line, and drove them through Perryville to the protection of their batteries on the bluff beyond. Meanwhile, Colonel Gooding's brigade had been sent to the aid of McCook, and fought with great persistence for two hours against odds, losing full one third of its number, its commander being made prisoner. General Buell did not know the magnitude of the sanguinary battle until four o'clock in the after-

noon, when McCook sent a request for reinforcements. They were promptly sent. The conflict ended at dark in a victory for the Nationals, the Confederates having been repulsed at all points, and during the night they retired to Harrodsburg, where Bragg was joined by Kirby Smith and General Withers. All fled towards East Tennessee, leaving 1200 of their sick and wounded at Harrodsburg, and about 25,000 barrels of pork at various points. The retreat was conducted by General Polk, covered by Wheeler's cavalry. Buell's effective force that advanced on Perryville was 58,000, of whom 22,000 were raw troops. He lost in the battle at Perryville 4348 men, of whom 916 were killed. The Confederate loss was estimated at about the same. Bragg claimed to have captured fifteen guns and 400 prisoners. It is believed that the Confederates lost more than they gained by their plundering raid. Buell was soon superseded in command by General Rosecrans, and the name of the Army of the Ohio was changed to the Army of the Cumberland.

Personal Liberty Laws. The unrighteous provisions of the Fugitive Slave Law (which see), and the danger to the liberty of free colored citizens, caused several states to pass laws for their protection. The laws of Maine provided that no public officer of the state should arrest or aid in so doing, or in detaining in any building belonging to the state, or county or town within it, any alleged fugitive slaves; so that business was left to the United States officers. The laws of New Hampshire provided that any slave coming into that state by the consent of the master should be free, and declared that an attempt to hold any person as a slave within the state was a felony, unless done by an officer of the United States in the execution of legal process. This was to relieve the people of the duty of becoming slave-catchers by command of the United States officers. The law in Vermont provided that judicial officers of the state should take no cognizance of any warrant or process under the Fugitive Slave Law, and that no person should assist in the removal of any alleged fugitive from the state, excepting United States officers. It also ordered that the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*, and a trial of facts by a jury, should be given to the alleged fugitive, with the state's attorney for counsel. This was a nullification of the Fugitive Slave Law. The law in Massachusetts provided for trial by jury of alleged fugitive slaves, who might have the services of any attorney. It forbade the issuing of any process under the Fugitive Slave Law by any legal officer in the state, or "to do any official act in furtherance of the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1793 or that of 1850." It forbade the use of any prison in the state for the same purpose. All public officers were forbidden to assist in the arrest of alleged fugitive slaves, and no officer in the state, acting as United States commissioner, was allowed to issue any warrant, excepting for the summoning of witnesses, nor allowed to hear and try any cause under the law. This, also, was a virtual nullification of the Fugitive Slave Law. The law in

Connecticut was intended only to prevent the kidnapping of free persons of color within its borders, by imposing a heavy penalty upon those who should cause to be arrested any free colored person with the intent to reduce him or her to slavery. The law in Rhode Island forbade the carrying away of any person by force out of the state, and provided that no public officer should officially aid in the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law, and denied the use of the jails for that purpose. Neither New York, New Jersey, nor Pennsylvania passed any laws on the subject, their statute-books already containing acts which they deemed sufficient to meet the case. The law in Michigan secured to the person arrested the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*, a trial by jury, and the employment of the state's attorney as counsel. It denied the use of the jails in the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law, and imposed a heavy penalty for the arrest of free colored persons as fugitive slaves. The law in Wisconsin was precisely like that of Michigan. The remainder of the free-labor states refrained from passing any laws on the subject.

Peters, HUGH, was born at Fowey, Cornwall, Eng., in 1599; executed in London, Oct. 16, 1660. He was a clergyman and politician, and after imprisonment for non-conformity he went to Rotterdam, where he preached several years. He came to New England in 1635, succeeded Roger Williams as pastor at Salem, and excommunicated his adherents. In politics and commerce he was equally active. In 1641 he sailed for England, to procure an alteration in the navigation laws, and had several interviews with the king (Charles I.). He preached to and commanded a regiment of Parliamentary troops in Ireland in 1649, and afterwards held civil offices. After the restoration he was committed to the Tower, and soon afterwards beheaded for high-treason, as having been concerned in the death of Charles I. He wrote a work called *A Good Work for a Good Magistrate*, in 1651, in which he recommended burning the historical records in the Tower. Differing estimates have been made of his character.

Peters, RICHARD, was born near Philadelphia, Aug. 22, 1744; died there, Aug. 21, 1828. He was a distinguished lawyer, a good German scholar, and a bright wit. At the beginning of the Revolution he commanded a company, but Congress placed him with the Board of War, of which he was made secretary in June, 1776, and served as such until December, 1781. In 1782-83 he was a member of Congress, and from 1789 until his death he was United States District Judge of Pennsylvania. Our country is indebted to Judge Peters for the introduction of gypsum as a fertilizer. In 1797 he published an account of his experience with it on his own farm. He was President of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society.

Peters, SAMUEL ANDREW, D.D., LL.D., was born at Hebron, Conn., Dec. 12, 1735; died in New York, April 19, 1826. He graduated at Yale College in 1757, became a clergyman of the Church of England, and in 1762 took charge of

the Episcopal churches at Hebron and Hartford. He opposed the movements of the patriots, and became exceedingly obnoxious to them, and in 1774 he was obliged to flee to England. In 1781 he published *A General History of Connecticut*, which has been characterized as the "most unscrupulous and malicious of lying narratives." In it he gave pretended extracts from the "Blue Laws" (which see), and the whole narrative shows an "independence of time, place, and probabilities." In 1794 he was chosen bishop of Vermont, but was never consecrated. In 1805 he returned to America, and towards the latter years of his life lived in obscurity in New York city, chiefly on a small pension.

Petersburg, FINAL STRUGGLE AT. The Army of the Potomac had its winter quarters in front of the Army of Northern Virginia in 1864-65. The left of the former held a tight grasp upon the Weldon road, while the Army of the James, on the north side of that river, and forming the right of the besiegers of Petersburg and Richmond, had its pickets within a few miles of the latter city. Sheridan, at the same time, was at Kernstown, near Winchester, full master of the Shenandoah valley from Harper's Ferry to Staunton. Grant's chief business during the winter was to hold Lee tightly while Sherman, Thomas, and Canby were making their important conquests, in accordance with the comprehensive plan of the lieutenant-general. The leaders in the Confederate government at Richmond contemplated the abandonment of Virginia and the concentration of the troops of Lee and Johnston south of the Roanoke. The politicians of Virginia would not allow such a movement, nor would Lee have led the Army of Northern Virginia out of that state; so Davis and his compeers had to abandon their project. Besides, Grant held Lee so firmly that he had no free choice in the matter. It was near the close of March, 1865, before Grant was ready for a general movement against Lee. Early in December Warren had seized the Weldon road farther south than had yet been done. He destroyed it (Dec. 7) all the way to the Meherrin River, meeting with little opposition. A few weeks later there was some sharp skirmishing between Confederate gunboats and National batteries near Dutch Gap Canal. (See *Amphibious Engagement on the James River*.) A little later a movement was made on the extreme left of the Nationals to seize the Southside Railway and to develop the strength of Lee's right. The entire army in front of Petersburg received marching orders, and, on Feb. 6, the flanking movement began. After a sharp fight near Hatcher's Run, the Nationals permanently extended their left to that stream. (See *Hatcher's Run, Battle of*.) Grant now determined to cut off all communication with Richmond north of that city. The opportunity offered towards the middle of February. Lee had drawn the greater portion of his forces from the Shenandoah valley, and Sheridan, under instructions, made a grand cavalry raid against the northern communications with the Confederate capital, and especially for the seizure of Lynchburg. It was

a most destructive march, and very bewildering to the Confederates. (See *Sheridan's Raid*, 1865.) This raid, the junction of the National armies in North Carolina, and the operations at Mobile (which see) and in central Alabama (see *Wilson's Raid*), satisfied Lee that he could no longer maintain his position, unless, by some means, his army might be vastly increased and new and ample resources for its supply obtained. He had recommended the emancipation of the slaves and making soldiers of them, but the slave interest was too powerful in the civil councils of the Confederacy to obtain a law to that effect. Viewing the situation calmly, he saw no hope for the preservation of his army from starvation or capture, nor for the existence of the Confederacy, except in breaking through Grant's lines and forming a junction with Johnston in North Carolina. He knew such a movement would be perilous, but he resolved to attempt it; and he prepared for a retreat from the Appomattox to the Roanoke. Grant saw symptoms of such a movement, and, on March 24 (1865), issued an order for a general forward movement on the 29th. On the 25th Lee's army attempted to break the National line at the strong point of Fort Steadman, in front of the Ninth Corps. (See *Fort Steadman*.) They also assailed Fort Haskell, on the left of Fort Steadman, but were repulsed. These were sharp but fruitless struggles by the Confederates to break the line. The grand movement of the whole National army on the 29th was begun by the left, for the purpose of turning Lee's right, with an overwhelming force. At the same time Sheridan was approaching the Southside Railway to destroy it. Lee's right intrenched lines extended beyond Hatcher's Run, and against these and the men who held them the turning column marched. General Ord, with three divisions of the Army of the James, had been drawn from the north side of that river and transferred to the left of the National lines before Petersburg. The remainder of Ord's command was left in charge of General Weitzel, to hold the extended lines of the Nationals, full thirty-five miles in length. Sheridan reached Dinwiddie Court-house towards the evening of March 29. Early that morning the corps of Warren (Fifth) and Humphreys (Second) moved on parallel roads against the flank of the Confederates, and, when within two miles of their works, encountered a line of battle. A sharp fight occurred, and the Confederates were repulsed, with a loss of many killed and wounded and 100 made prisoners. Warren lost 370 men. Lee now fully comprehended the perils that menaced him. The only line of communication with the rest of the Confederacy might be cut at any hour. He also perceived the necessity of strengthening his right to avert the impending shock of battle; likewise of maintaining his extended line of works covering Petersburg and Richmond. Not aware of the withdrawal of troops from the north side of the James, he left Longstreet's corps, 8000 strong, to defend Richmond. Lee had massed a great body of his troops—some 15,000—at a point in

front of the corps of Warren and Humphreys, the former on the extreme right of the Confederates. There Lee attempted (March 30) to break through the National lines, and for a moment his success seemed assured. A part of the line was pushed back, but Griffin's division stood firm and stemmed the fierce torrent, while Ayres and Crawford re-formed the broken column. Warren soon assumed the offensive, made a countercharge, and, by the aid of a part of Hancock's corps, drove back the Confederates. Lee then struck another blow at a supposed weak point on the extreme left of the Nationals, held by Sheridan. A severe battle ensued. (See *Five Forks, Battle of*.) Both parties lost heavily. On the evening of the same day all the National guns in front of Petersburg opened on the Confederate lines from Appomattox to Hatcher's Run. Wright, Parke, and Ord, holding the intrenchments at Petersburg, were ordered to follow up the bombardment with an assault. The bombardment was kept up until four o'clock in the morning (April 2), and the assault began at daybreak. Parke carried the outer line of the Confederate works in his front, but was checked at an inner line. Wright drove everything before him to the Boydton plank-road, where he turned to the left towards Hatcher's Run, and, pressing along the rear of the Confederate intrenchments, captured several thousand men and many guns. Ord's division broke the Confederate division on Hatcher's Run, when the combined forces swung round to the right and pushed towards Petersburg from the southwest. On the same day the Southside Railway was first struck at three points by the Nationals, who had driven the Confederates from their intrenchments and captured many. This achievement effectually cut off one of Lee's most important communications. Gibbon's division of Ord's command captured two strong redoubts south of Petersburg. In this assault Gibbon lost about 500 men. The Confederates were now confined to an inner line of works close around Petersburg. Longstreet went to the help of Lee, and the latter ordered a charge to be made to recover some of the lost intrenchments. It failed; and so ended the really last blow struck for the defence of Richmond by Lee's army. General A. P. Hill, one of Lee's best officers, was shot dead while reconnoitring. Lee now perceived that he could no longer hold Petersburg or the capital with safety to his army. At half-past ten o'clock on Sunday morning (April 2) he telegraphed to the government at Richmond: "My lines are broken in three places; Richmond must be evacuated this evening." Then Lee's troops withdrew from Petersburg, and the struggle there ended.

Petersburg, OPERATIONS AGAINST (1864). This city, on the south side of the Appomattox River, about twenty miles from Richmond and fifteen from City Point, was occupied, in the summer of 1864, by a large Confederate force, who cast up strong intrenchments upon its exposed sides. When the Army of the Potomac was led to the south side of the James River

(June 14-16), it began immediate operations against Petersburg, which was now the strong defence of Richmond. Butler, at Bermuda Hundred, was very securely intrenched. Grant sent General Smith's troops quickly back to him after the battle at Cool Arbor (which see), and directed him to co-operate with the Army of the Potomac in an attempt to capture Petersburg. On June 10 Butler sent 10,500 men, under Gillmore, and 1500 cavalry, under Kautz (which see), to attack the Confederates at Petersburg; at the same time two gunboats went up the Appomattox to bombard an earthwork a little below Petersburg. The troops crossed the Appomattox four miles above City Point, and marched on Petersburg, while Kautz swept round to attack on the south. The enterprise was a failure, and the Nationals retired. Five days later there was another attempt to capture Petersburg. Smith arrived at Bermuda Hundred with his troops on June 14, and pushed on to the front of the defences of Petersburg, northeastward of the city. These were found to be very formidable, and, ignorant of what forces lay behind these works, he proceeded so cautiously that it was near sunset (June 15, 1864) before he was prepared for an assault. The Confederates were driven from their strong line of rifle-pits. Pushing on, they captured a powerful salient, four redoubts, and a connecting line of intrenchments about two miles and a half in extent, with 15 guns and 300 prisoners. Two divisions of Hancock's corps had come up, and rested upon their arms within the works just captured. While these troops were reposing, nearly the whole of Lee's army were crossing the James River at Richmond, and troops were streaming down towards Petersburg to assist in its defence. During the night (June 15-16) very strong works were thrown up, and a cloud of warriors were behind them. The coveted prize was lost. Twenty-four hours before, Petersburg might have been easily taken; now it defied the Nationals, and endured a most distressing siege for ten months longer. Now, at the middle of June, a large portion of the Army of Northern Virginia was holding the city of Petersburg and the surrounding intrenchments, and a great part of the Army of the Potomac, with the command of Smith upon its right, confronted the Confederates. On the evening of the 16th a heavy bombardment was opened upon the Confederate works, and was kept up until six o'clock the next morning. Birney, of Hancock's corps, stormed and carried a redoubt on his front, but Burnside's corps could make no impression for a long time, in the face of a murderous fire. There was a general advance of the Nationals, but at a fearful cost of life. At dawn General Potter's division of Burnside's corps charged upon the works in their front, carried them, and captured four guns and 400 men. He was relieved by General Ledlie's column, which advanced to within half a mile of the city, and held a position from which shells might be cast into the town. They were driven back with great loss. On the same day (June 16) General Butler sent out General Terry to force Beauregard's lines, and destroy

and hold, if possible, the railway in that vicinity. He had gained possession of the track, and was proceeding to destroy it, when he was attacked by a division of Longstreet's corps, on its way from Richmond to Petersburg. Terry was driven back to the intrenchments at Bermuda Hundred before aid could reach him. On the morning of the 17th the Seventh and Ninth corps renewed the attack upon the works at Petersburg, when the hill upon which Fort Steadman was afterwards built was carried and held by the former. Another attack was made by the Ninth in the afternoon, and a severe battle began, and continued until night, with great slaughter. Desperate attempts had been made to recapture what the Confederates had lost, and that night a heavy Confederate force drove back the Ninth (Burnside's) Corps. A general assault was made on the 18th, with disaster to the Nationals, who were repulsed at every point. And now, after a loss of nearly 10,000 men, further attempts to take Petersburg by storm were abandoned for a while, and Grant prepared for a regular siege. He at once began intrenching, and to extend his left in the direction of the Petersburg and Weldon Railway, which he desired to seize, and thus envelop Petersburg with his army. He moved the corps of Hancock and Wright stealthily to the left, to attempt to turn the Confederate right. The former was pushed back. On the following morning (June 22) the Nationals were attacked by divisions of the corps of A. P. Hill, driving back a portion of them with heavy loss. At sunset Meade came up and ordered both corps to advance and retake what had been lost. It was done, when Hill retired with 2500 prisoners. The next morning Hancock and Wright advanced, and reached the Weldon road without much opposition, until they began to destroy it, when a part of Hill's corps drove off the destroyers. The National line had now been extended to the Weldon road. Meanwhile a cavalry expedition, 8000 strong, under Kautz and Wilson, had been raiding upon the railways leading southward from Petersburg, the latter being in chief command. They destroyed the buildings at Reams's Station, ten miles south of Petersburg, and the track for a long distance. They then struck the Southside Railway, and destroyed it over a space of twenty miles, fighting and defeating a cavalry force under Fitzhugh Lee. Kautz pushed on, and tore up the track of the Southside and Danville Railway, at and near their junction. The united forces destroyed the Danville road to the Staunton River, where they were confronted by a large force of Confederates. They were compelled to fight their way back to Reams's Station, on the Weldon road, which they had left in the possession of the Nationals; but they found the cavalry of Wade Hampton there, and a considerable body of Confederate infantry. In attempting to force their way through them, the Nationals were defeated, with heavy loss, and they made their way sadly back to camp with their terribly shattered army of troopers. Their estimated loss during the raid was nearly 1000 men. Now, after a san-

guinary struggle for two months, both armies were willing to seek repose, and for some time there was a lull in the storm of strife. The Union army lay in front of a formidable line of redans and redoubts, with lines of intrenchments and abatis, altogether forty miles in length, extending from the left bank of the Appomattox around to the western side of Petersburg, and to and across the James to the northeastern side of Richmond. Within eight or nine weeks, the Union army, then investing Petersburg, had lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about 70,000 men. Reinforcements had kept up its numbers, but not the quality of its materials. Many veterans remained, but a vast number were raw troops. The Nationals had been building fortifications at the same time, and preparing for an effective siege. Butler, by a quick movement, had thrown Foster's brigade across the James River at Deep Bottom, and formed an intrenched camp there, within ten miles of Richmond, and connected with the army at Bermuda Hundred by a pontoon bridge. By this movement a way was provided to move heavy masses of troops to the north side of the James at a moment's warning, if desired. Lee met this by laying a similar bridge at Drewry's Bluff. By the close of July, 1864, Grant was in a position to choose his method of warfare—whether by a direct assault, by the slower process of a regular siege, or by heavy operations on the flanks of the Confederates.

Petersburg, SIEGE OF (1864). The regular siege of Petersburg began in July. General Grant had caused strong works to be built in front of those of the Confederates. On the 25th of June operations began for mining under the Confederate forts so as to blow them up. One of these operations was in charge of Lieutenant-colonel Pleasants, who completed it on the 22d of July. When the mine was ready Grant sent Hancock to assist Foster to flank the Confederates at Deep Bottom, and, pushing on to Chapin's Bluff, below Drewry's Bluff, to menace Lee's line of communication across the river. (See *Petersburg, Operations against*.) It was done; and, to meet the seeming impending danger to Richmond, Lee withdrew five of his eight remaining divisions on the south side of the James, between the 27th and the 29th. Grant's opportunity for a grand assault now offered. The mine under one of the principal forts was exploded early on the morning of July 30, with terrible effect. In the place of the fort was left a crater of loose earth, 200 feet in length, full 50 feet in width, and from 20 to 30 feet in depth. The fort, its guns, and other munitions of war, with 300 men, were thrown high in air and annihilated. Then the great guns of the Nationals opened a heavy cannonade upon the remainder of the Confederate works, with precision and fatal effect, all along the line; but, owing partly to the slowness of motion of a portion of the assaulting force, the result was a most disastrous failure on the part of the assailants. A fortnight later General Grant sent another expedition to the north side of the James, at Deep Bottom, composed of the divisions of Birney and

Hancock, with cavalry under Gregg. They had sharp engagements with the Confederates on the 13th, 16th, and 18th of August, in which the Nationals lost about 5000 men without gaining any special advantage excepting the incidental one of giving assistance to troops sent to seize the Weldon Railway south of Petersburg. This General Warren effected on the 18th of August. Three days afterwards he repulsed a Confederate force which attempted to recapture the portion of the road held by the Unionists; and on the same day (Aug. 21) General Hancock, who had returned from the north side of the James, struck the Weldon road at Reams's Station and destroyed the track for some distance. The Nationals were finally driven from the road with considerable loss. (See *Reams's Station, Battle of*.) For a little more than a month after this there was comparative quiet in the vicinity of Petersburg and Richmond. The National troops were moved simultaneously towards each city. General Butler, with the corps of Birney and Ord, moved upon and captured Fort Harrison (which see) on Sept. 29. These troops charged upon another fort near by, but were repulsed with heavy loss. Among the slain was General Burnham, and Ord was severely wounded. In honor of the slain general the captured works were named Fort Burnham. In these assaults the gallantry of the colored troops was conspicuous. Meanwhile, Meade had sent Generals Warren and Parke, with two divisions of troops each, to attempt the extension of the National left to the Weldon road and beyond. It was a feint in favor of Butler's movement on the north side of the James, but it resulted in severe fighting on Oct. 1 and 2, with varying fortunes for both parties. Now there was another pause, but not a settled rest, for about two months, when the greater portion of the Army of the Potomac was massed on the Confederate right, south of the James. On Oct. 27 they assailed Lee's works on Hatcher's Run, westward of the Weldon road, where a severe struggle ensued. (See *Boydton Plank-road*.) The Nationals were repulsed, and, on the 29th, they withdrew to their intrenchments in front of Petersburg. Very little was done by the Army of the Potomac until the opening of the spring campaign of 1865. The losses of that army had been fearful during six months, from the beginning of May until November, 1864. The aggregate number in killed, wounded, missing, and prisoners was over 80,000 men, of whom nearly 10,000 were killed in battle. Add to these the losses of the Army of the James during the same period, and the sum would be full 100,000 men. The Army of the Potomac had captured 15,378 prisoners, sixty-seven colors, and thirty-two guns. They had lost twenty-five guns. The Confederates had lost, including 15,000 prisoners, about 40,000 men.

Petition of Congress Refused. On the 26th of January, 1775, Dr. Franklin, William Bollen, and Arthur Lee, agents of the colonies in England, by authority of the First Continental Congress (which see), presented a petition to the king from that body. It was referred to Parliament, and the agents solicited a hearing at the bar of

the House, in explanation and defence of the petition. This request elicited a violent debate. The friends of the ministry, while they refused to hear and discuss the petition, insulted it, as containing nothing but pretended grievances. It was rejected by a large majority.

Petition to the King. A petition to the king was adopted and signed by the members of the Continental Congress present July 8, 1775, in which, after allusion to the oppression the colonists had been subjected to, they declared their loyalty to the throne. It was taken to England from Philadelphia by Richard Penn, who delivered it to Lord Dartmouth. Penn assured him the colonies had no designs for independence. On the strength of that testimony the Duke of Richmond moved in the House of Lords that the petition, which had been laid before Parliament, be made the basis of a conciliation with America. After a warm debate the motion was rejected, and no further notice was taken of the petition.

Petitions and Remonstrances against Taxation Schemes. In 1764, when the Stamp Act and other Parliamentary schemes for taxing the colonies attracted attention and opposition in America, a committee of the Massachusetts Assembly adopted a strong petition to Parliament, drawn by James Otis, which was really a remonstrance. The Council refused to concur, when a joint-committee was charged with the duty of drafting another petition. It was drawn by Thomas Hutchinson, a strong loyalist, but was too tame to suit the more ardent spirits in the Massachusetts government. After some alterations it was adopted, and intrusted to Dr. Franklin, lately appointed agent of the colony of Pennsylvania in England for the overthrow of the proprietary government. Their instructions to the agent were more decided in tone, especially on the topic of self-taxation as a right, not as a mere usage or favor. Connecticut sent a petition couched in the same moderate language. But one from New York was so strong and decided that no member of Parliament could be found to present it. It was re-echoed by Rhode Island. In Virginia a committee composed of the leading members of the House of Burgesses was appointed to draw up a petition to the king, a memorial to the House of Lords, and a remonstrance to the House of Commons, in tones moderate but firm, on the subject of self-taxation. But all these petitions and remonstrances produced no sensible effect on the king and Parliament. The Stamp Act was passed. (See *Stamp Act*.)

Petrel, THE PRIVATEER (1861). The United States revenue cutter *Aiken*, which had been surrendered to the insurgents at Charleston, in December, 1860, was converted into a privateer, manned by a crew of thirty-six men, mostly Irish, and called the *Petrel*. On July 28, 1861, she went to sea, and soon fell in with the National frigate *St. Lawrence*, which she mistook for a merchantman. She was regarded as a rich prize, and the *Petrel* bore down upon her, while she appeared to be trying to escape.

When the latter came within fair range, the *St. Lawrence* opened her ports and gave her the contents of three heavy guns. One of these sent a shell known as the "Thunderbolt," which exploded in the hold of the *Petrel*, while a 32-pound shot struck her amidships, below the water-mark. In an instant she was made a total wreck, and went to the bottom of the ocean, leaving the foaming waters over her grave thickly strewn with splinters and her struggling crew. Four of these were drowned; the remainder were saved. They were so dazed that they did not know what had happened. A flash of fire, a thunder-peal, the crash of timbers, and engulfment in the sea had been the incidents of a moment of their experience. Her surviving crew were sent to prison to answer the charge of piracy, but received the same treatment as those of the *Savannah*. (See *Savannah, The Privateer*.)

Petroleum. The early settlers around the headwaters of the Alleghany River, in Pennsylvania and New York, were acquainted with the existence of petroleum there, where it oozed out of the banks of streams. Springs of petroleum were struck in Ohio, in 1820, where it so much interfered with soft-water wells that it was considered a nuisance. Its real value was suspected by S. P. Hildreth, who wrote, in 1826: "It affords a clear, brisk light when burned in this way [in lamps in workshops], and it will be a valuable article for lighting the street-lamps in the future cities of Ohio." It remained unappreciated until 1859, when Messrs. Bowditch & Drake, of New Haven, Conn., bored through the rock at Titusville, on Oil Creek, Penn., and struck oil at the depth of seventy feet. They pumped 1000 gallons a day, and so the regular boring for petroleum was begun. From 1861 until 1876 the average daily product of all the wells was about 11,000 barrels. The total yield within that period was about 2,250,000,000 gallons of crude oil. The first export of petroleum was in 1861, of 27,000 barrels, valued at \$1,000,000. The total product of petroleum in 1889 was over 1,100,000,000 gallons, valued at \$26,554,052. Of the total quantity produced, 109,891 barrels were disposed of for lubricating, 12,330,813 for fuel, and 22,379,609 for illuminating purposes. Three fifths of the entire product was exported.

Phelps, JOHN WOLCOTT, was born at Guilford, Vt., Nov. 13, 1813, and graduated at West Point in 1836, serving in the artillery in the Seminole War. He served in the war against Mexico, and in the Utah expedition in 1858. (See *Mormons*.) He resigned in 1859. In May, 1861, he became colonel of a Vermont volunteer regiment, with which he established an intrenched camp at Newport-Newce, and was soon afterwards made brigadier-general. Attached to General Butler's expedition against New Orleans, he landed on Ship Island, Miss., on Dec. 4, 1861, when he issued a proclamation hostile to slavery. It was disavowed by his superiors, and the temporizing policy which he believed was to rule caused his resignation. He was the first officer who enlisted and disciplined

negro soldiers in the Civil War. (See *New Orleans, Capture of*.)

Phelps, OLIVER, was born at Windsor, Conn., in 1749; died at Canandaigua, N. Y., Feb. 21, 1809. He was a successful merchant, and during the war for independence was in the Massachusetts Commissary Department. In 1788 he, with Nathaniel Gorham, purchased a large tract of land (2,200,000 acres) in the State of New York, and at Canandaigua opened the first land-office established in America. (See *Holland Land Company*.) In 1795 he and William Hart bought the Connecticut Western Reserve, in Ohio, comprising 3,300,000 acres. (See *Western Reserve*.) Mr. Phelps afterwards settled with his family at Canandaigua, then a wilderness; represented that district in Congress from 1803 to 1805; and was judge of a circuit court.

Philadelphia. (See *Brotherly Love, City of*.)

Philadelphia Abandoned (1777). After the battle at the Brandywine, Washington fell back to Philadelphia, and on Sept. 16 he recrossed the Schuylkill and marched against the advancing British. The armies met twenty miles from Philadelphia, and began to skirmish, when a violent storm of rain prevented the impending battle. Washington again retired across the Schuylkill, and, while manœuvring to prevent Howe from crossing that river above him, the enemy crossed below him, and was thus placed between the American army and Philadelphia. Nothing but a battle and a victory could now save that city. Washington's troops, inferior in numbers and much fatigued by recent marches, were also sadly deficient in shoes and clothing; their arms were in a bad condition; and the regular supply of food had been rendered very precarious. Under these circumstances, it seemed too hazardous to risk a battle. The Congress had already left Philadelphia, and Washington was compelled to abandon it. He formed a camp at Skippack Creek, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. Howe found a large number of loyalists in Philadelphia, who welcomed him. He stationed the bulk of his army near Germantown, about five miles from the city (Sept. 25). Four regiments were quartered in the city, and Joseph Galloway, a Tory who had accompanied the army, was made chief of police there.

Philadelphia Excited (1814). The operations of the British blockading fleet on the New England coast, the capture of Washington city by the British, and the attack on Baltimore, in the summer of 1814, alarmed Philadelphia as well as New York, and the greatest patriotic efforts were exerted in the preparation of defences in both cities. (See *New York Excited*.) In Philadelphia a public meeting was held in the State-house yard on Aug. 26, and a committee of defence was appointed, with ample powers to adopt such measures as the exigency seemed to require. "They determined," says Wescott, "that, for the safety of the city, field fortifications should be thrown up in the most eligible situations on the western side of the town, and where an attack might be ex-

pected. A fort was planned near Gray's Ferry and Darby roads; also a redoubt opposite Hamilton's Grove, another upon the Lancaster road, and a third upon the site of an old British redoubt on the southern side of the hill at Fairmount, which would command the bridge at Market Street and the roads leading to it." To construct these works, the volunteer assistance of the citizens was given, and a hearty enthusiasm was shown in the service. Societies, trades, and religious associations of every kind organized bands of workers—as in New York—to perform the work systematically under the direction of the committee. Labor began on Sept. 3, and ended on Oct. 1, when the field-works were completed. Physicians, lawyers, clergymen, colored people, and persons in all walks of life participated in the patriotic work; and when all the defences were finished, it appeared that about fifteen thousand persons had labored on them. Those unable or unwilling to labor gave money in lieu of service. About \$6000 were so contributed. The method of procedure in the labor was as follows: "Arriving at the fortifications," says Wescott, "the citizens, having been previously divided into companies, were put to work." At ten o'clock the drum beat for 'grog,' when liquor sufficient for each company was dealt out by its captain. At twelve o'clock the drum beat for dinner, when more 'grog' was furnished. This was also the case at three and five o'clock in the afternoon. At six o'clock the drum beat the retreat, when, it was suggested in general orders, 'for the honor of the cause we are engaged in, freemen to live or die, it is hoped that every man will retire sober.' The enemy did not come, and the beautiful city was spared the horrors of war. The origin of the word "grog," used above, was as follows: Admiral Vernon wore a heavy coat at sea, made of thick stuff composed of silk and hair, which was called "program." He was usually called by the sailors, on this account, "Old Grog," the latter word the short for program. "Old Grog" was the first to introduce spirits and water not sweetened among his crew, and they gave it the name of "grog."

Philadelphia, THE FRIGATE, DESTRUCTION OF. The *Philadelphia*, Captain Bainbridge, chased a corsair into the harbor of Tripoli on Oct. 3, 1803. In endeavoring to beat off, the *Philadelphia* struck a sunken rock not laid down in the charts. In that helpless condition Bainbridge and his men were made prisoners, and the vessel was finally released and taken into the harbor of Tripoli. Bainbridge found means to inform Preble, at Malta, of his misfortune, and suggested the destruction of the *Philadelphia*, which the Tripolitans were fitting for sea. The Americans had captured a ketch, which was taken into the service and named *Intrepid*. She was devoted to the service of cutting out, or destroying, the *Philadelphia*. Lieutenant Stephen Decatur was placed in command, and, with seventy determined young men, sailed for Tripoli, accompanied by the brig *Siren*, Lieutenant Charles Stewart. On a moonlight evening (Feb. 16, 1804) the *Intrepid* sailed into the harbor, and

was warped alongside the *Philadelphia* without exciting suspicion, for she seemed like an innocent merchant-vessel with a small crew, as most of the officers and men were concealed below. At a signal given, officers and men rushed from their concealment, sprang on board the *Philadelphia*, and, after a desperate struggle, drove her turbaned defenders into the sea. She was immediately burned, and the *Intrepid* and *Siren* departed for Syracuse.

Philadelphia Troops Attacked in Baltimore (1861). Ten companies of the Washington Brigade of Philadelphia accompanied the Sixth Massachusetts regiment to Washington, under General Wilson C. Small. They were entirely unarmed. These remained at the President Street Station in Baltimore, while the Sixth Massachusetts went on to the Camden Street Station. After the latter had encountered the mob (see *Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore*), the Philadelphians, who had remained in the cars, were attacked. The mob had tried in vain to seize arms. Quite a large number of Union men of Baltimore had gathered around these troops, and many of the latter sprang out of the cars and engaged in a hand-to-hand fight with the rioters for about two hours, assisted by the Baltimore Unionists. The soldiers were discomfited by numbers. Order was finally restored, and the Philadelphians went on to Washington.

Philip, KING, Sachem of the Wampanoags, whose Indian name was Pometacom, or Metacomet, was the youngest son of Massasoit, the friend of the English. (See *Massasoit*.) His brother Alexander died, and in 1662 Philip became sachem. His wife was Woo-to-nek-anus-ke, daughter of Witamo, the feminine sachem of the Pokanokets, on the eastern shore of Narraganset Bay. Philip's tribe was the Wampanoags. Both he and they had been corrupted by contact with the English—with imaginary wants—and they were so anxious to have things like the white people that they had sold off a large portion of their lands to procure such luxuries. Of Philip's life before he became sachem very little is known. He had witnessed frequent broils between the English and the Narragansets, and felt that his people were often wronged. Yet he respected the treaty made by his father and renewed by his dead brother. In 1665 he went to Nantucket to kill an Indian who had profaned the name of his father, according to an Indian law that whoever should speak evil of the dead should be put to death by the next of kin. In 1671 the English were alarmed by warlike preparations made by Philip. A conference was held with Philip and some of his warriors in the meeting-house at Plymouth, when he averred that his warlike preparations were not against the English, but the Narragansets. This, however, it is said, he confessed was false, and that he had formed a plot against the English "out of the naughtiness of his own heart." He and four of his chief men signed a submission, and agreed to give up their arms to the Plymouth

authorities. Subsequently he was compelled to pay a sum of money to defray the expenses of the colony caused by his conduct. These things, especially the disarming of the Wampanoags, caused great indignation in the tribe. His warriors urged him to strike a blow for the extermination of the English, but he hesitated long. Finally he made open war in July, 1675, and perished at its close in 1676. (See *King Philip's War*.) The death of Philip occurred in this wise: An Indian deserter came to Captain Church, in Rhode Island, and told him that Philip was at Mount Hope, at the same time offering to guide him to the place and help to kill him, for the sachem had killed his (the informant's) brother, and it was his duty to kill the murderer. This was the "faithless Indian" who shot Philip. The barbarous law of England that a traitor should be quartered was carried out in the case of Philip. Church's Indian executioner performed that service with his hatchet upon the dead body of the sachem. (See *King Philip's War*.)

Philippi (VA.), SKIRMISH AT (1861). One of the earliest contests in the Civil War occurred June 3, 1861, at Philippi, on Tygart's Valley River, about sixteen miles southward from Grafton. Ohio and Indiana volunteers gathered at Grafton (on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad), and loyal armed Virginians who had assembled there, were divided into two columns, one commanded by Colonel Benjamin F. Kelley, and the other by Colonel E. Dumont, of Indiana. Colonel Porterfield, with fifteen hundred Virginians, one third of them mounted, was at Philippi. The two Union columns marched against him, by different routes, to make a simultaneous attack. In darkness and a drenching rain the columns moved over the rugged hills, through hot valleys, and across swollen streams. Kelley was misled by a treacherous guide, and Dumont approached Philippi first. His troops were discovered by a woman, who fired a pistol at Colonel Lander, and sent her boy to alarm Porterfield. The lad was caught and detained, but Porterfield's camp was put in commotion by the pistol. Dumont took position on the heights, with cannon commanding a bridge, the village, and the insurgent camp. Colonel Lander had taken command of the artillery, and, without waiting for the arrival of Kelley, he opened heavy guns upon the insurgents. At the same time Dumont's infantry swept down to the bridge, where the insurgents had gathered to dispute their passage. The Confederates were panic-stricken, and fled. Kelley, approaching rapidly, struck the flank of the flying insurgents, who were driven in wild confusion through the village and up the Beverly Road. The two columns pursued them about two miles, when the fugitives, abandoning their baggage-train, escaped. Colonel Kelley was severely wounded by a pistol-shot that passed through his right breast, and, fainting from loss of blood, fell into the arms of some of his soldiers. For a long time his recovery was doubtful, but, under the watchful care of a devoted daughter, he finally recovered, and was commissioned a brig-

adier-general. Colonel Dumont assumed the command of the combined columns. Lacking transportation, the Indiana troops were recalled to Grafton by the chief-commander, T. A. Morris.

Phillips, JOHN, was born at Andover, Mass., Dec. 6, 1719; died at Exeter, N. H., April 21, 1795. He graduated at Harvard University in 1735; studied theology; preached a while; and then, becoming a merchant, was very successful. He endowed a professorship in Dartmouth College; contributed largely to the college at Princeton, N. J.; and gave to the Phillips Academy at Andover \$31,000, besides a third interest in his estate. He also founded the Phillips Academy at Exeter (1781), and endowed it with \$134,000.—His nephew, **SAMUEL PHILLIPS, JR., LL.D.**, also generously endowed the academy at Andover, planning and organizing it and giving it lands and money. He was born at Andover, Feb. 7, 1751, and died there, Feb. 10, 1802. He, also, graduated at Harvard University (1771); was a member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress four years; assisted in framing a state constitution in 1779; was state senator twenty years; and president of the Senate fifteen years. He was a judge of the Court of Common Pleas; commissioner of the state to deal with Shays's insurrection (which see); and was lieutenant-governor of the state at his death. He left \$5000 to the town of Andover, the interest of which was to be applied to educational purposes. Mr. Phillips was one of the founders of the Academy of Arts and Sciences at Boston.

Phillips, WENDELL, orator and reformer, was born in Boston, Nov. 29, 1811. He graduated at Harvard University in 1831, and at the Cambridge Law School in 1833, and was admitted to the bar in 1834. At that time the agitation of the slavery question was violent and wide-spread, and in 1836 Mr. Phillips joined the Abolitionists. He conceived it such a wrong in the Constitution of the United States in sanctioning slavery that he could not conscientiously act under his attorney's oath to that Constitution, and he abandoned the profession. From that time until the emancipation of the slaves in 1863 he did not cease to lift up his voice against the system of slavery and in condemnation of the Constitution of the United States. His first great speech against the evil was in Faneuil Hall, in December, 1837, at a meeting "to notice in a suitable manner the murder, in the city of Alton, Ill., of Rev. Elijah P. Lovejoy, who fell in defence of the freedom of the press." Mr. Phillips was an eloquent, logical, and effective speaker. He conscientiously abstained from voting under the Constitution, and was ever the most earnest of "Garrisonian abolitionists." He was an earnest advocate of other reforms—temperance, labor, and other social relations. He was president of the American Anti-Slavery Society at the time of its dissolution, April 9, 1870. He died in 1884.

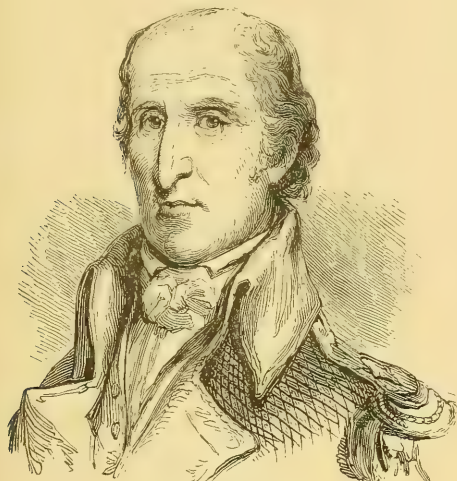
Phipps, SIR WILLIAM, was born at Woolwich, Me., Feb. 2, 1631; died in London, Feb. 18, 1695. He was one of twenty-six children by the same

father and mother, twenty-one of whom were sons. Nurtured in comparative poverty in childhood and youth, he was at first a shepherd-boy, and at eighteen years of age became an apprentice to a ship-carpenter. He went to Boston in 1673, where he learned to read and write. In 1684 he went to England to procure means to recover a treasure-ship wrecked near the Bahamas. With a ship furnished by the government, he was unsuccessful; but with another furnished by the Duke of Albemarle, he recovered treasure to the amount of about \$1,400,000, of which his share amounted to about \$75,000. The king knighted him, and he was appointed High Sheriff of New England. In 1690, in command of a fleet, he captured Port Royal (Acadia), and late in the same year he led an unsuccessful expedition against Quebec. Phipps went to England in 1692 to solicit another expedition against Canada. There he was appointed Captain-general and Governor of Massachusetts under a new royal charter, just issued, and he returned in May of that year, bringing the charter with him. In 1694 he was summoned to England to answer charges preferred against him, and there he died of a malignant fever. Sir William was a member of the congregation over which Cotton Mather preached. He was dull of intellect, rudely educated, egotistical, superstitions, headstrong, and patriotic, but totally unfitted for statesmanship or to be a leader in civil or military affairs.

Phonograph, THE, is a machine that may be attached to pianofortes or other keyed instruments of music, by which any air played may be written down on black paper. It rules and prints the notes simultaneously by the motive power of electro-magnetism. It was patented by Mr. Fenby, June 13, 1863. Machines for a similar purpose were produced in 1747, 1774, and 1827. In 1877-78 Thomas A. Edison, a remarkable inventor, produced a little instrument which he called a "phonograph," because it made a permanent record of sounds on tin-foil by means of indentations. By this simple contrivance words may be caught, as it were, exactly as they fall in modulations of the voice from a speaker's lips, laid away, and reproduced a hundred years hence in exactly the same tones and modulations as they were spoken. Had a phonograph caught an oration of Demosthenes, who lived more than twenty-two hundred years ago, it might have been reproduced, and so have settled the vexed question among philologists, "How did Demosthenes pronounce the Greek language?"

Pickens, ANDREW, was born in Bucks County, Penn., Sept. 13, 1739; died in Pendleton District, S. C., Aug. 17, 1817. His parents, who were of Huguenot descent, went to South Carolina in 1752. Andrew served in the Cherokee War (which see) in 1761, and at the beginning of the Revolution he was made a captain of militia, and soon rose to the rank of brigadier-general. He, with Marion and Sumter, by their zeal and boldness, kept alive the spirit of resistance in the South when Cornwallis overran South Carolina. He performed excellent service in the

field during the war, and for his conduct at the battle of the Cowpens (which see) Congress voted him a sword. He led the Carolina militia in the battle of Eutaw Spring, and in 1782



ANDREW PICKENS.

he led a successful expedition against the Cherokees. From the close of the war till 1793 he was in the South Carolina Legislature, and was in Congress from 1793 to 1795. In the latter year he was made major-general of militia, and was in the Legislature from 1801 to 1812. A successful treaty made by him with the Cherokees obtained from the latter the region of South Carolina now known as Pendleton and Greenville districts, and he settled in the former district.

Pickens, FRANCIS W., Governor of South Carolina, was born in St. Paul's Parish, S. C., April 7, 1807; died at Edgefield, S. C., Jan. 25, 1869. He became a lawyer, and was a distinguished debater in the South Carolina Legislature dur-



FRANCIS W. PICKENS.

ing the nullification excitement. He spoke and wrote much against the claim that Congress might abolish slavery in the District of Colum-

bia. He was minister to Russia (1857-60); and when South Carolina declared its secession from the Union, he was elected the first governor, or president, of that "sovereign nation." He maintained the dignity of his office until he relinquished it in 1862. Governor Pickens was a successful planter, of great wealth, and was popular in his state as a speaker before colleges and literary institutions.

Pickering, TIMOTHY, LL.D., was born at Salem, Mass., July 17, 1745; died there, Jan. 29, 1829. He graduated at Harvard University in 1763, and was admitted to the bar in 1768. Pickering was the leader of the Essex Whigs in the controversy preceding the war for independence; was on the Committee of Correspondence, and wrote and delivered the address of the people of Salem to Governor Gage, on the occasion of the Boston Port Bill (which see), in 1774. The first armed resistance to British troops was by Pickering, as colonel of militia, in February, 1775, at a drawbridge at Salem, where the sol-



TIMOTHY PICKERING.

diers were trying to seize military stores. He was a judge in 1775, and in the fall of 1776 he joined Washington, in New Jersey, with his regiment of seven hundred men. In May, 1777, he was made adjutant-general of the army, and after he had participated in the battles of Brandywine and Germantown, he was appointed a member of the Board of War. He succeeded Greene as quartermaster-general in August, 1780, and after the war resided in Philadelphia. In 1786 he was sent to the Wyoming Settlement, to adjust difficulties there (see *Susquehanna Company* and *Pennymite and Yankee War*), where he was personally abused, imprisoned, and put in jeopardy of his life. He was an earnest advocate of the national Constitution, and succeeded Osgood (which see) as United States Postmaster-general. In 1794-95 he was Secretary of War, and Secretary of State from 1795 to 1800. Pickering left office poor, and settling on some wild land in Pennsylvania, he there lived, with his family, in a log hut; but the liberality of friends enabled him to return to Salem in 1801. He was made Chief Judge of the Essex County Court of Common Pleas in 1802, and United States Sen-

ator from 1803 to 1811, when he was made a member of the Council. During the war of 1812-15 he was a member of the Massachusetts Board of War, and of Congress from 1815 to 1817.

Pictures for the Capitol. In 1816 Congress, by joint resolution, authorized the President of the United States to procure, for the ornamenting of the new Capitol, then building, four large paintings of Revolutionary scenes from the hand of John Trumbull, a worthy pupil of Benjamin West. He possessed a large number of portraits of the prominent actors in the events of the Revolution, painted by himself, and these he used in his compositions. These pictures are now in the rotunda of the Capitol, under the magnificent new dome, and are of peculiar historic value, as they perpetuate correct likenesses of the men whom Americans delight to pay homage to. These paintings represent the "Signers of the Declaration of Independence," the "Surrender of Burgoyne" at Saratoga, the "Surrender of Cornwallis" at Yorktown, and the "Resignation of Washington's Commission" at Annapolis. To these have since been added four others, of the same general size—namely, the "Landing of Columbus," by John Vanderlyn; the "Burial of De Soto," by George Powell; the "Baptism of Pocahontas," by J. G. Chapman; and the "Embarkation of the Pilgrims," by Robert W. Weir.

Picture-writing among the Indians. There was no written language in all North America when Europeans came, excepting in the form of pictography, which had a near relationship to the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians. It was used in aid of historic and other traditions, and in illustration of their mythology, which was rich in symbolism, and formed a part of their religious system. They personified their ideas by delineations of natural objects. An excellent illustration is given in the act of To-mo-chi-chi, an aged Creek chief, when he first visited Oglethorpe on the site of Savannah. He presented a buffalo's skin ornamented with a picture of an eagle, saying: "The eagle is an emblem of speed, and the buffalo of strength. The English are as swift as the bird, for they fly over vast seas, and, like the buffalo, are so strong nothing can withstand them. The feathers of the bird are soft, and signify love; the buffalo's skin is warm, and signifies protection. Therefore love and protect our little families."

Piedmont, BATTLE AT. General Hunter, with nine thousand men, advanced on Staunton early in June, 1864. At Piedmont, not far from Staunton, he encountered (June 5) an equal force of Confederates, under Generals Jones and McCausland. An obstinate and hard-fought battle ensued, which ended with the day, and resulted in the complete defeat of the Confederates. Their leader, General Jones, was killed by a shot through the head, and fifteen hundred Confederates were made prisoners. The spoils of victory were battle-flags, three guns, and three thousand small-arms.

Pierce, FRANKLIN, fourteenth President of the United States, was born at Hillsborough,

N. H., Nov. 23, 1804; died at Concord, N. H., Oct. 8, 1869. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1824, became a lawyer, was admitted to the bar in 1827, and in 1838 made his permanent res-



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

idence at Concord. He was in Congress from 1833 to 1837; United States Senator from 1837 to 1842; served first as colonel of United States infantry in the war against Mexico, and as brigadier-general, under Scott, in 1847, leading a large reinforcement for that general's army on its march for the Mexican capital. In June, 1852, the Democratic Convention nominated him for President of the United States, and he was elected in November. (See *Inauguration of President Pierce*.) President Pierce used his official influence to promote the interests of the pro-slavery party in Kansas, and in January, 1856, in a message to Congress, he denounced the formation of a free-state government in Kansas as an act of rebellion. During the Civil War, ex-President Pierce was in full sympathy with the Confederate leaders.

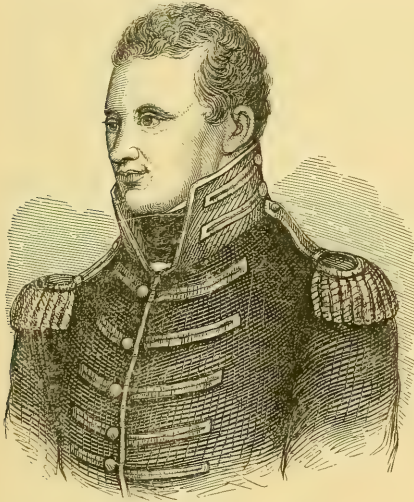
Pierce's Cabinet. On the 7th of March, 1853, President Pierce nominated the following persons for his cabinet ministers: William L. Marcy, of New York, Secretary of State; James Guthrie, of Kentucky, Secretary of the Treasury; Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, Secretary of War; James C. Dobbin, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Robert McClelland, of Michigan, Secretary of the Interior; James Campbell, of Pennsylvania, Postmaster-general; and Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, Attorney-general. The Senate confirmed these nominations the same day.

Pierson, ABRAHAM, first President of Yale College (1701-7), was born at Lynn, Mass., in 1641; died March 5, 1707. He graduated at Harvard College in 1668. He was ordained a colleague of his father, at Newark, N. J., in March, 1672, and from 1694 till his death was minister of Killingworth. His father (Abraham) was one of the first settlers of Newark (1667), and was the first minister in that town. He also preached to the Long Island Indians in their own language.

Pike, ALBERT, poet, born in Boston, Dec. 29,

1809. At the age of sixteen years he entered Harvard University, but, unable to support himself there, he taught school at Newburyport and Fairhaven, and in 1831 travelled (mostly on foot) to St. Louis, where he joined an expedition to New Mexico, acting as merchant's clerk and pedler in Santa Fé. Roving with trappers awhile, he became editor and proprietor of a newspaper in Arkansas in 1834, and in 1836 was admitted to the bar. Pike was an advocate for state supremacy, served in the war against Mexico in command of Arkansas cavalry, and in the Civil War he organized and led a body of Cherokee Indians, himself disguised in barbarian costume, in the battle of Pea Ridge (which see). After the war he edited the *Memphis Appeal* for a while. A collection of his poems was printed in Philadelphia, in 1854. He died in 1891.

Pike, ZEBULON MONTGOMERY, was born at Lamberton, N. J., Jan. 5, 1779; killed at York, Upper Canada, April 27, 1813. He was appointed a cadet in the regiment of his father (a captain in the army of the Revolution) and brevet



ZEBULON MONTGOMERY PIKE.

lieutenant-colonel in the United States army when he was twenty years of age. He was made captain in 1806, and was appointed (1805) to lead an expedition in search of the sources of the Mississippi River, which performed the required duties satisfactorily in eight months and twenty days of most fatiguing explorations. In 1806-7 he was engaged in a geographical exploration of Louisiana, when he was seized by the Spauliards, taken to Santa Fé, and, after a long examination and the seizure of his papers, was escorted to Natchitoches (July 1, 1807) and dismissed. The government rewarded him with a major's commission (May, 1808). Passing through the various grades, he was commissioned brigadier-general March 12, 1813. Early in that year he had been appointed adjutant and inspector-general of the army on the northern frontier. He lost his life in an attack upon York, Upper Canada. (See *York, Capture of*.)

Pikeville, BATTLE NEAR. General William Nelson was in command of about three thousand loyalists in eastern Kentucky in November, 1861. About one thousand insurgents, under Colonel J. S. Williams, were at Pikeville, the capital of Pike County, Ky. Nelson sent Colonel Sill, with Ohio and Kentucky troops, to gain the rear of Williams, while, with the remainder, he should attack his front. A battalion of Kentucky volunteers, under Colonel C. A. Marshall, moved in advance of Nelson. On the 9th these were attacked by Confederates in ambush, and a battle ensued, which lasted about an hour and a half, when the insurgents fled, leaving thirty of their number dead on the field. Nelson lost six killed and twenty-four wounded. He did not pursue, as he had no cavalry. Williams fled to the mountains at Pound Gap, carrying with him a large number of cattle and other spoils. Nelson joined Sill (who had fought his way) at Pikeville, where he said to his troops: "In a campaign of twenty days you have driven the rebels from Eastern Kentucky, and given repose to that portion of the States."

Pilgrim Fathers. The following are the names of the forty-one persons who signed the constitution of government on board the *Mayflower*, and are known as the Pilgrim Fathers: John Carver, William Bradford, Edward Winslow, William Brewster, Isaac Allerton, Miles Standish, John Alden, Samuel Fuller, Christopher Martin, William Mullins, William White, Richard Warren, John Howland, Stephen Hopkins, Edward Tilley, John Tilley, Francis Cook, Thomas Rogers, Thomas Tinker, John Ridgedale, Edward Fuller, John Turner, Francis Eaton, James Chilton, John Crackston, John Billington, Moses Fletcher, John Goodman, Degory Priest, Thomas Williams, Gilbert Winslow, Edward Margeson, Peter Brown, Richard Britteridge, George Soule, Richard Clarke, Richard Gardiner, John Allerton, Thomas English, Edward Doty, Edward Lister. Each subscriber placed opposite his name the number of his family. Edward Winslow buried his young wife in the spring of 1621. William White was also one of the victims of the fever that desolated the colony. Winslow, the young widower, married the young widow. This was the second nuptial ceremony celebrated among the Pilgrims at New Plymouth, and the first white mother in New England became the second white bride. (See *Maiden Bride, The First, in New England*.)

Pilgrims' First Landing at Cape Cod. The *Mayflower* first anchored in Cape Cod Bay, just within the cape, on Nov. 21 (N. S.), in what is now the harbor of Provincetown, the only windward port for many a league where the vessel could have long safely lain. It was there that the constitution of the Plymouth colony (see *Pilgrim Fathers*) was signed by the adult male members of the company. Nearly all the company went ashore, glad to touch land after the long voyage. They first fell on their knees, and thanked God for the preservation of their lives. The waters were shallow, and they had waded ashore—the men to explore the scenery.

the women to wash their clothes after the long voyage. (See *Pilgrims, The*.)

Pilgrims Prepare for America. The non-conformist English refugees in Holland under the pastorate of Rev. Mr. Robinson, yearning for a secluded asylum from persecution under the English government, proposed to go to Virginia and settle there in a distinct body under the general government of that colony. They sent Robert Cushman (which see) and John Carver to Eng-

at Norwich, who, after many difficulties, made their way to Amsterdam in small companies in 1608, and at Leyden they formed a congregation with John Robinson as pastor; and there, with their families, they were happy. At length they heard of "beautiful Virginia," and longed to enjoy the freedom of the forest; so they formed a plan for emigrating to America. The Dutch offered them a seat in the region of the newly discovered Mauritius or Hudson's River, but they

Jno: Brewster
 Wm Brewster
 John Winthrop
 Thomas Cushman
 Nathaniel Weston.
 Tho: Drexler

Miles Standish
 Isaac Allerton
 John Bradford
 Corbush Southworth
 William Bradford
 Tho: Southworth

HANDWRITING OF THE PILGRIMS. (See p. 1095.)

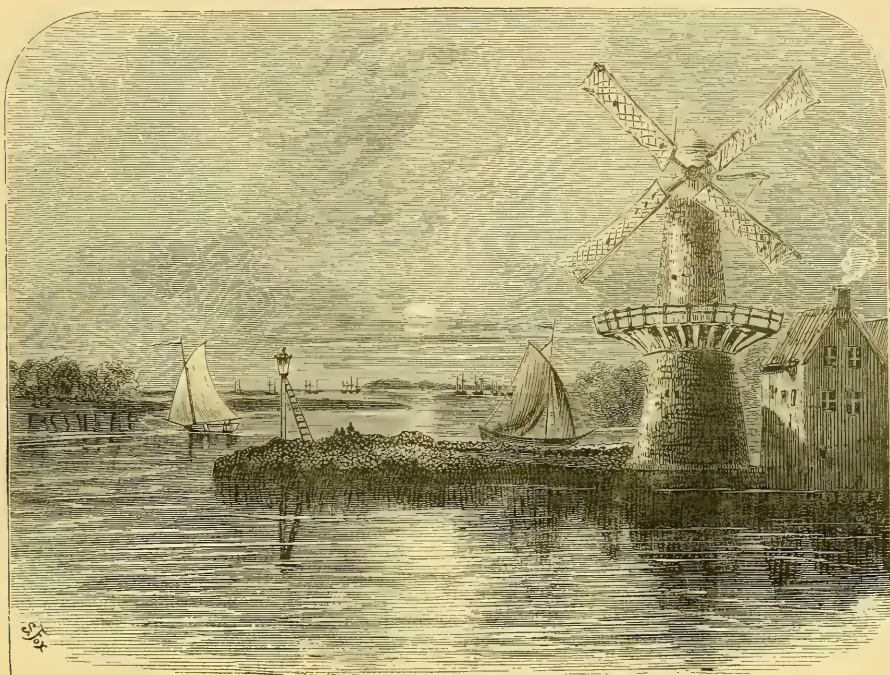
land in 1617 to treat with the London Company, and to ascertain whether the king would grant them liberty of conscience in that distant country. The company were anxious to have these people settle in Virginia, and offered them ample privileges, but the king would not promise not to molest them. These agents returned to Leyden. The discouraged refugees sent other agents to England in February, 1619, and finally made an arrangement with the company and with London merchants and others for their settlement in Virginia, and they at once prepared for the memorable voyage in the *Mayflower* in 1620. Several of the congregation at Leyden sold their estates and made a common bank, which, with the aid of their London partners, enabled them to purchase the *Speedwell*, a ship of sixty tons, and to hire in England the *Mayflower*, a ship of one hundred and eighty tons, for the intended voyage. They left Leyden for England in the *Speedwell* (July, 1620), and in August sailed from Southampton, but on account of the leakiness of the ship, were twice compelled to return to port. Dismissing this unseaworthy vessel, 101 of the number who came from Leyden sailed in the *Mayflower*, Sept. 6 (O. S.). These were the "Pilgrim Fathers," so called. (See *Pilgrim Fathers*.)

Pilgrims, THE. Persecution of the Puritans in England during the earlier years of the reign of King James I. caused large numbers of them to seek refuge in Holland, the asylum for the oppressed. (See *Puritans*.) Among these refugees were the members of a dissenting church

were loyal to England, notwithstanding its government oppressed them, so they declined, as they wished to settle on "English land." They sent two agents to England to ask permission of the Plymouth Company to settle within their domain, and to get a guarantee from the king that they should not be molested in their new home. The company readily gave their permission, but the king would not give them a written promise—only his word—which could not be trusted. A stock company was formed by London merchants and others, by the terms of which the services of such of the "Pilgrims," as they called themselves, as could not furnish money, should be considered as the equivalent of cash. The shares were \$50 each. All profits were to be reserved for seven years, at the end of which time the lands, houses, and every product of their joint industry were to be valued, and an equal portion to be divided among the shareholders. Captain Smith, the founder of Virginia, offered to accompany them, but his aristocratic notions were a bar to their acceptance of him. It was agreed that only a portion of the congregation—"the youngest and strongest"—should first go to America, under the spiritual guidance of Elder William Brewster, then a little more than fifty years of age. The larger portion were to remain in Holland with Mr. Robinson, and emigrate the next year. Two small vessels—*Speedwell* and *Mayflower*—were employed (the former purchased, the latter hired) for the voyage, and in the summer of 1620 a portion of the Leyden

congregation embarked at Delft Haven for England. On the 6th of August the two ships sailed for America. The *Speedwell*, springing a leak, returned; and being reported unseaworthy, she was left behind, while the *Mayflower*, a staunch vessel of one hundred and eighty tons, proceed-

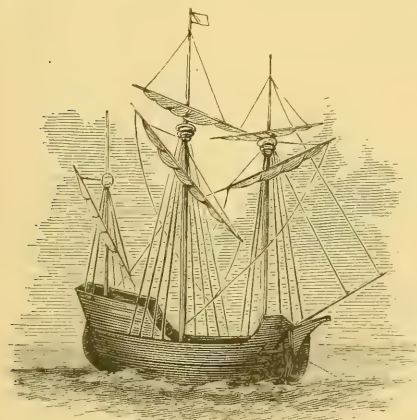
the youngest of the Pilgrims, being only twenty-one years of age; John Allerton, and Dr. Edward Fuller. After a voyage of sixty-three days, the *Mayflower* arrived off Cape Cod; but as they intended to land farther south, they proceeded in that direction, but were turned back by shoals



DELFT HAVEN.

ed on her voyage (Sept. 6) with forty-one men and their families, making in all one hundred and one souls. Among the most prominent of these "Pilgrim Fathers" were William Brewster and his numerous family, William Bradford, John Carver, a deacon in the church at Leyden, young Ed-

(Nantucket?), and entered Cape Cod Bay, where they anchored. Some of those who embarked from England had intimated that they would be governed by no law when ashore, when the following agreement was drawn up on the lid of Elder Brewster's chest (see *Brewster, William*), and every man (forty-one in all) was required to sign it: "In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are hereunder written, the loyal subjects of our dread sovereign lord, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, etc., having undertaken for the glory of God and advancement of the Christian Faith, and honor of our King and Country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern parts of Virginia, do by these presents solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic for our better ordering and preservation and furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof to enact, constitute, and frame such just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitution, and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names, at Cape Cod, the 11th of November [O. S.], in the year of the reign of our



THE MAYFLOWER.

ward Winslow and his bride, the richest couple of the flock; Miles Standish, a fiery little soldier, and his wife Rose; John Alden, a cooper, and

sovereign lord, King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth, Anno Domini 1620." Thus was signed on the lid of Elder Brewster's chest the first constitution of government, to which the signatures of a whole people were attached. (See *Pilgrim Fathers*.) More than a month passed after this act before the Pilgrims landed. Some of them explored the coast for a good place to plant a settlement. The weather became biting cold, and snow fell to a great depth. The savages were shy and some were hostile. The advance guard of the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, Dec. 21 [N. S.], 1620, and the others a few days afterwards. Just before landing, the wife of William White gave birth to a boy, who was named Peregrine. This was the first European child born in New England, if we except Snorre. (See *Northmen in America*.) In the midst of snow they built log cabins, but before spring flowers appeared nearly one half of the emigrants were in the grave. (See *Massachusetts*.) John Carver was chosen governor, and the remnant of the Pilgrims persevered, under great deprivations and perils, in their efforts to establish a permanent colony.

Pillow, GIDEON JOHNSON, was born in Williams County, Tenn., June 8, 1806; died at his residence at the mouth of the St. Francis River, Ark., Oct. 8, 1878. He graduated at the University of Nashville, studied law, and rose to the first rank in his profession. At the head of a brigade of Tennessee volunteers he joined General Scott at Vera Cruz in 1847, and performed gallant service throughout the war against Mexico. Scott made serious charges against him, but a court of inquiry acquitted him and left his fame untarnished. Pillow entered heartily into the great insurrection against the government in 1861, but his military career was cut short early in 1862 by his conduct at Fort Donelson (which see).

Pinckney, CHARLES, LL.D., was born in Charleston, S. C., in 1758; died there, Oct. 29, 1824. He was made prisoner at the capture of Charleston (1780), and sent to St. Augustine. (See *Gadsden, Christopher*.) He was a member of Congress from 1784 to 1787, and was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution in the latter year. He was governor of South Carolina (1789-92, 1796-98, and 1806-8); United States Senator from 1798 to 1801, and minister to Spain from 1802 to 1805, when he negotiated a release from that power of all claims to the territory purchased by the United States from France. (See *Louisiana*.) In Congress, from 1819 to 1821, he was an opponent of the Missouri Compromise (which see).

Pinckney, CHARLES COTESWORTH, LL.D., was born in Charleston, S. C., Feb. 25, 1746; died there, Aug. 16, 1825. He was educated in England; read law in London; passed nine months in a military academy in France, and returning in 1769 began the practice of law. He was a member of the first Provincial Congress of South Carolina, and was made colonel of a regiment. After the defence of Fort Sullivan (which see), he joined the army in the North, and was aid to

Washington in the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. He was engaged in the unsuccessful expedition into Florida in 1778, and the



CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY.

next year presided over the State Senate of South Carolina. On the surrender of Charleston (May, 1780), he was made a prisoner, and suffered cruel treatment until exchanged early in 1782. He was made brigadier-general in November, 1783, and in 1787 was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution. In July, 1796, he was appointed minister-plenipotentiary to the French republic, but the French Directory, failing to bribe him into a compliance with their demands, ordered him to leave the country, when he withdrew to Amsterdam in February, 1797. General Washington created him a major-general on his return home, and in 1800 he was a candidate for the vice-presidency of the United States.

Pinckney, THOMAS, Governor of South Carolina (1787-89), was born in Charleston, S. C., Oct.



THOMAS PINCKNEY.

23, 1750; died there Nov. 2, 1828. He was educated in England, and was admitted to the bar

in 1770. He joined the army in 1775; became a major and aid to General Lincoln, and afterwards to Count d'Estaing in the siege of Savannah (which see). He was distinguished in the battle at Stono River, and was aid to General Gates in the battle near Camden (see *Sanders's Creek, Battle at*), where he was wounded and made prisoner. In 1792 he was sent as minister to Great Britain, and in 1794 to Spain, where he negotiated the treaty of St. Ildefonso (see *Treaties*), which secured to the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi River. In 1799 he was a member of Congress, and in March, 1812, President Madison appointed him commander of the Sixth Military District. His last military service was under General Jackson at the last decisive battle with the Creeks at Horseshoe Bend (which see). General Pinckney married a daughter of Rebecca Motte (which see).

Pine, ROBERT EDGE, painter of portraits, was born in England in 1742; died in Philadelphia, October, 1788. He had gained considerable reputation in England before he came to America at the close of the Revolution. In Philadelphia he exhibited the first cast of the Venus de' Medici ever seen in America. Mr. Pine was befriended by Francis Hopkinson, and painted from life, at Mount Vernon, a portrait of Washington. He also painted portraits of other worthies of the period of the Revolution.

Pine Bluff, BATTLE AT. Fifty miles below Little Rock, on the south side of the Arkansas River, is Pine Bluff, the capital of Jefferson County. In October, 1863, it was occupied by Colonel Powell Clayton, with about 350 men and four guns. Marmaduke attempted to capture it with over 2000 men and twelve guns. He advanced upon the post in three columns. Clayton had just been reinforced by Indiana cavalry, making the number of his fighting-men about 600. About 200 negroes had built barricades of cotton-bales in the streets. The attack was made (October 25) by Marmaduke, and was kept up for about five hours. The Confederates were repulsed with a loss of 183 men killed, wounded, and prisoners; the Nationals lost 57, of whom 17 were killed. The town was badly shattered, and the court-house and many dwellings were laid in ashes.

Pinkney, WILLIAM, LL.D., was born at Annapolis, Md., March 17, 1764; died Feb. 25, 1822. His father, an Englishman, was a loyalist in the Revolution, but the son espoused its principles. He studied law with Judge Chase, and was admitted to practice in 1786, in which profession he soon acquired great reputation for his impassioned oratory. He was a delegate in the Maryland convention that ratified the national Constitution. After serving a term in the Maryland Legislature, he was married to a sister of Commodore Rodgers (1789), and the next year was elected to a seat in Congress, but declined the honor on account of the state of his private affairs. In 1796 he was appointed one of the commissioners in London under Jay's treaty, and obtained for the State of Maryland a claim on the Bank of England for \$800,000. Pinkney

was made attorney-general of his state in 1805, and the next year he was sent to England as minister-extraordinary to treat with the British government in conjunction with Monroe. He



WILLIAM PINKNEY.

was resident minister there from 1807 to 1811, and in the autumn of the latter year he was chosen to his State Senate from Baltimore. From December, 1811, until 1814, he was United States Attorney-general. In the latter year he entered the military service to repel a British invasion of his state, and was severely wounded in the battle of Bladensburg. Again in Congress (1815-16), he took a leading part. In 1816 he went to Naples as special minister there, and became resident minister at St. Petersburg, whence he returned home in 1818. From 1820 until his death he held a seat in the United States Senate. In that body he opposed with all his powers of oratory the admission of Missouri into the Union under the terms of the Compromise. (See *Missouri Compromise*.) His death was occasioned by over-exertion in a case in the Supreme Court of the United States.

Pins, AMERICAN. Our country was supplied with pins by England until the War of 1812-15, when the interruption of commerce caused a great rise in all imported articles. Pins sold for \$1 a paper. Their manufacture was first attempted here by two Englishmen in the State Prison at New York, but the effort, renewed in 1820 at the Bellevue Hospital, New York, was unsuccessful. Wellman Wright, an American, procured a patent in England for a machine for making solid-headed pins, and the first of these ever manufactured were introduced into London in 1833. An invention of a machine for making pins, by John I. Howe, was put into operation in New York in 1836. The Howe Manufacturing Company removed to Birmingham, Conn., in 1838, and there, in 1840, made solid-headed pins by a process invented by Mr. Howe. Earlier than this, Samuel Slocum invented a machine

for making solid-headed pins, and with Mr. Gillson established a manufactory in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in 1838. He invented a pin-sticking machine in 1840, which was never patented, and is used secretly in the factory at Poughkeepsie carried on by Messrs. Pelton. Great improvements have since been made. In 1870 there were nearly forty establishments for the manufacture of pins in the United States, the annual product of which amounted to about \$1,000,000.

Pinzon, AMBITION OF. Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who accompanied Columbus on his first voyage across the Atlantic, was led by his ambition to attempt to deprive that navigator of the honor of his great discovery. He commanded the *Pinta*, one of the three vessels of the squadron of Columbus. When he heard of the wreck of the vessel in which Columbus sailed, on the northern shores of Cuba (see *Columbus, Christopher*), instead of going to his relief, he kidnapped some natives of the West India Islands and sailed for Spain. Columbus, having lost all confidence in the honor of Pinzon, immediately followed him in the *Nina*. He saw the *Pinta*, but the two vessels soon parted company. Terrible storms swept over the Atlantic; and when the *Pinta* reached the port of Bayonne, Pinzon, believing the *Nina* had gone to the bottom of the sea, sent a letter to the Spanish monarchs recounting his adventures and discoveries, hoping thereby to gain honors and rewards. Meanwhile the *Nina* had reached the mouth of the Tagus, and Columbus sent a courier to the court of Spain to announce his great discoveries. Then he put to sea, and soon afterwards entered the port of Palos, where he was received with delight. The same evening the *Pinta* entered that harbor, and when Pinzon saw the flag of the *Nina* his heart failed him. He was in expectation of being greeted with great honors by the citizens and his sovereigns. He hastened into seclusion, filled with mortification and fear. Then came a letter from the monarchs, in answer to his, filled with reproaches for attempting to defraud the admiral of his just fame, and forbidding Pinzon to appear at court. The blow was fatal. Pinzon died of mortified pride and ambition a few days after reading the royal epistle.

Pinzon, VINCENT YAÑEZ, who commanded the *Nina* in the first voyage of Columbus (1492), in 1499 led an expedition composed of four caravels, which sailed from Palos in December, and first saw the continent of South America at Cape Augustine, Brazil. There he took possession of the country in the name of the crown of Castile. Sailing northward, he explored the coasts of Brazil, and discovered and named the River Amazon. He lost two or three of his ships on the homeward voyage. Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who commanded the *Pinta*, one of the ships of Columbus in his first voyage to America, was a brother of Vincent Yañez.

Pioneer Bishop in North America. John Talbot, who was chaplain of the British ship *Centurion* in 1673, visited Virginia, where he had lived ten years before. He soon afterwards left

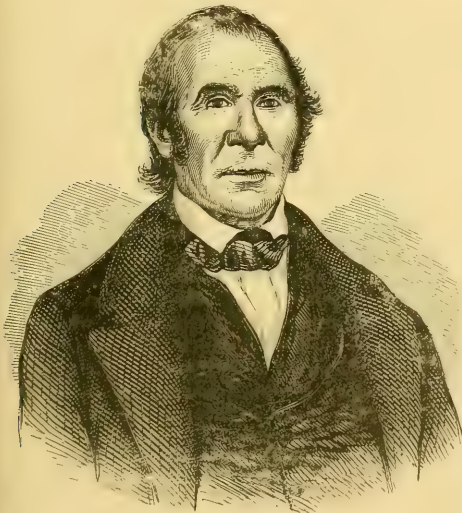
the service of the admiralty and became a missionary among the Indians, sometimes traveling five hundred miles on horseback to attend to their spiritual wants. Satisfied that the Church of England needed a bishop in America, he frequently spoke of it. In 1704 he was made rector of St. Mary's Church, New Brunswick, N. J. The next year the clergy of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania petitioned for a bishop, and Talbot was persuaded to carry the petition to London himself. He was favored by Queen Anne in his efforts to have the prayer of the petition granted, but failed to obtain the appointment of a suffragan, and he resolved to ask for consecration for himself by nonjuring bishops. This was done by two bishops in 1722, and in 1724 he returned to America and assumed episcopal authority. The governor of Pennsylvania (Keith) complained of him to the Lords of the Privy Seal, and he was summoned to England. He did not go. Bishop Talbot died at Burlington, Nov. 30, 1727, having exercised the episcopal office with fidelity for three years, as the pioneer bishop of North America.

Piqua, COUNCIL AT (1751). Late in 1750 the Ohio Land Company (which see) sent Christopher Gist, a dweller near the Yadkin, to explore the Ohio region as far as the falls (Louisville). He arrived at the Scioto valley early in 1751, and was kindly received by the great sachem of the Miami Confederacy, rivals of the Six Nations, with whom they were at peace. Agents of Pennsylvania and Virginia were there, come to make a treaty of friendship and alliance; and there, also, were white traders. The council was held at Piqua, far up the Scioto valley. It was a town of four hundred families, the largest in the Ohio region. On Feb. 21 the treaty was concluded, and just as it was signed some Ottawas came with presents from the governor of Canada. They were admitted to the council, and expressed a desire for a renewal of friendship with the French. A sachem arose, and, setting up the colors of the English and the French, denounced the latter as enemies of the Miamis. Having delivered his speech, he strode out of the council, when an Ottawa chief, the envoy of the French, wept and howled, pretending great sorrow for the Miamis. After one or two more speeches by braves in favor of the English, the great war-chief of the Miamis, in the presence of the Ottawa ambassadors, spoke as if to the French, saying, "Fathers, you have desired we should go home to you; but I tell you it is not our home, for we have made a path to the sun-rising, and have been taken by the hand by our brothers, the English, the Six Nations, the Delawares, the Shawnoese, and the Wyandots; and, we assure you, in that road we shall go. And as you threaten us with war in the spring, we tell you, if you are angry we are ready to receive you, and resolve to die here before we will go to you. That you may know this is our mind, we send you this string of black wampum. Brothers, the Ottawas, you hear what I say. Tell that to your fathers, the French; for that is our mind, and we speak it

from our hearts." The colors of the French were taken down and their ambassadors were dismissed. On March 1 Gist took his leave, bearing this message to the English beyond the Alleghanies: "Our friendship shall stand like the loftiest mountain." In the spring the French and Indians from Sandnsky struck the Miami a stunning blow. Piqua was destroyed, and the great chief of the Miami confederacy was taken captive, sacrificed, and eaten by the savage allies of the French.

Piracy, NEW ACT CONCERNING (1820). Privateersmen cruising under the Spanish-American flags degenerated into downright pirates. In 1819 Commodore Perry had been sent to the West Indies in the frigate *John Adams* to cruise against the pirates who swarmed there; but before he had accomplished much he was smitten by yellow-fever, and died (Aug. 23, 1819) just as his ship was entering the port of Trinidad. Two other small vessels were sent to cruise against them. Many convictions and executions for piracy had taken place; but as there had been many escapes through loop-holes in the law, the act on that subject was revised and strengthened. In one of the sections of the new act the name of piracy and the punishment of death were extended to the detention or transportation of any free negro or mulatto in any vessel as a slave.

Pirate, or Patriot, of the Thousand Islands, THE. William (commonly known as "Bill") Johnston had been an American spy on the Canadian frontier during the War of 1812-15. He was



WILLIAM JOHNSTON.

living at Clayton, N. Y., on the bank of the St. Lawrence, when the "patriot" war in Canada broke out in 1837. (See *Canadian Rebellion*.) Being a bold and adventurous man, and cordially hating the British, Johnston was easily persuaded by the American sympathizers in the movement to join in the strife. The leaders regarded him as a valuable assistant, for he was thoroughly

acquainted with the whole region of the Thousand Islands, in the St. Lawrence, from Kingston to Ogdensburg. He was employed to capture the steamboat *Robert Peel*, that carried passengers and the mail between Prescott and Toronto, and also to seize the *Great Britain*, another steamer, for the use of the "patriots." With a desperate band, Johnston rushed on board of the *Peel* at Wells's Island, not far below Clayton, on the night of May 29, 1838. They were armed with muskets and bayonets and painted like Indians, and appeared with a shout, "Remember the *Caroline*!"—a vessel which some persons from Canada had cut loose at Schlosser (on Niagara River), set on fire, and sent blazing over Niagara Falls. The passengers and baggage of the *Peel* were put on shore and the vessel was burned, because her captors could not manage her. Governor Marcy, of New York, declared Johnston an outlaw, and offered a reward of \$500 for his person. The Governor of Canada (Earl of Durham) offered \$5000 for the conviction of any person concerned in the "infamous outrage." Johnston, in a proclamation issued from "Fort Watson," declared himself the leader of the band; that his companions were nearly all Englishmen; and that his headquarters were on an island within the jurisdiction of the United States. Fort Watson was a myth. It was wherever Johnston was seated among the Thousand Islands, where for a long time he was concealed, going from one island to another to avoid arrest. His daughter, a handsome maiden of eighteen years, who was an expert rower, went to his retreat at night with food. At length he was arrested, tried at Syracuse on a charge of violating the neutrality laws, and acquitted. Again arrested and put in jail, he managed to escape, when a reward of \$200 was offered for him. He gave himself up at Albany, was tried, convicted, and sentenced to one year's imprisonment in the jail there, and to pay a fine of \$250. His faithful daughter, who had acquired the title of "The Heroine of the Thousand Islands," hastened to Albany and shared the prison with her father. He procured a key that would unlock his prison-door. His daughter departed and waited for him at Rome. He left the jail, walked forty miles the first night, and soon joined her. They went home, and Johnston was not molested afterwards. The "patriots" urged him to engage in the struggle again. He had had enough of it. They sent him the commission of commodore, dated at "Windsor, U. C., Sept. 5, 1839," and signed "H. S. Hand, Commander-in-chief of the Northwestern Army, on Patriot Service in Upper



JOHNSTON'S COMMISSION.

dore, dated at "Windsor, U. C., Sept. 5, 1839," and signed "H. S. Hand, Commander-in-chief of the Northwestern Army, on Patriot Service in Upper

LIBERTY OR DEATH!

Canada." On that commission was the device seen in the engraving—the American eagle carrying off the British lion. The maple-leaf is an emblem of Canada. But he refused to serve, and remained quietly at home. President Pierce appointed him light-house keeper on Rock Island, in the St. Lawrence, in sight of the place where the *Peel* was burned. There the writer saw him in 1858. He was a man of medium height, a native of Canada, and was then seventy-eight years of age.

Pirates in Chesapeake Bay. On June 28, 1861, the steamer *St. Nicholas*, Captain Kirwan, that plied between Baltimore and Point Lookout, at the mouth of the Potomac River, left the former place with forty or fifty passengers, including about twenty who passed for mechanics. There were a few women among them—one who professed to be a young Frenchwoman. When, on the following morning, the steamer was near Point Lookout, the Frenchwoman was suddenly transformed into a stout young man, and the twenty mechanics into well-armed Marylanders, who demanded the surrender of the *St. Nicholas*. Kirwan had no means for resistance, and yielded. The other passengers were landed on the Virginia shore, and the captain and crew kept as prisoners. Then one hundred and fifty armed accomplices of the pirates went on board the steamer, which was destined for the Confederate navy. She cruised down the Chesapeake, captured three brigs, and, with her prizes, went up the Rappahannock River to Fredericksburg, where the pirates sold their plunder, divided the prize-money, and were entertained at a public dinner by the citizens. There the young Marylander produced much merriment by appearing in the costume of a Frenchwoman. His name was Thomas—a son of a citizen of St. Mary's County, Md. A few days afterwards some of Kenly's Baltimore police were on the steamer *Mary Washington*, going home from a post on the Chesapeake. On board were Captain Kirwan and his crew; also Thomas and his associates, evidently intending to repeat their operation on the *Mary Washington*. The captain was directed to land at Fort McHenry. When the pirates perceived the destination of the vessel young Thomas remonstrated. Finally he drew his revolver, and, calling his fellow-pirates around him, he threatened to throw the officers overboard and seize the vessel. The pirates were overcome by numbers. General Banks sent a squad of men on board to seize Thomas and his confederates. The former was found concealed in a drawer in the ladies' cabin of the boat. He was drawn out, and, with his accomplices, lodged in Fort McHenry.

Pirates Suppressed. For a long time merchants and ship-masters suffered from the depredations of pirates on the southern coasts of what are now the United States and in the West Indies. (See *Buccaneers*.) In 1718 King George I. ordered a naval force to suppress them. At the same time he issued a proclamation promising pardon to all pirates who should surren-

der themselves in the space of twelve months. Captain Woods Rogers, with a few vessels, took the Island of New Providence, the chief rendezvous of the pirates, in the name of the crown of England. All the pirates, excepting about ninety who escaped in a sloop, took advantage of the king's proclamation. Rogers was made governor of the island. He built forts, and had a military establishment. From that time the West Indies were fairly protected from the pirates. They yet infested the coast of the Carolinas. About thirty of them took possession of the mouth of the Cape Fear River. Governor Johnson determined to extirpate them. He sent out an armed vessel under the command of William Rhett, who captured a piratical sloop with its commander and about thirty men, and took them to Charleston. Johnson soon afterwards embarked in person, and sailed after and captured another armed sloop. * All the pirates excepting two were killed during the desperate fight that occurred, and those two were hanged. Those first taken into Charleston were also hanged, excepting one man. Altogether, forty-two pirates were executed at Charleston; and so the waters of the coast were relieved of these desperate men.

Pitcairn, JOHN, a British officer, was killed at the battle of Bunker's Hill, June 17, 1775. He was a native of Scotland, and was made major in the British army in 1771. Leading troops to seize stores at Concord, he engaged in the opening skirmish of the war for independence at Lexington (which see). He was shot dead on entering the redoubt on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill.

Pitt and the American Colonies. William Pitt, the ablest statesman in England at the middle of the last century, when he became the first minister of the realm, saw, with enlightened vision, the justice and the policy of treating the American colonies with generosity and confidence. This treatment gained their affections, and, under the guidance of Pitt, they gave such generous support to the government in the war with the French and Indians that the conquest of Canada was achieved, and the French dominion in America was destroyed. At the same time Halifax, with the sanction of the spiritless and undiscerning George II., was urging schemes of taxation which irritated the colonists and alienated their regard. The project of an American Stamp Act was pressed (1757), which Pitt disdained to favor in the day of the distress of the colonists. He was thwarted in his efforts to be just to all, and, through the efforts of the Duke of Cumberland, Pitt and Temple were both driven from office in April, 1757, leaving the government in a state of anarchy in the hands of incompetent and very unscrupulous men. The immense energies of the British government were paralyzed by a haughty aristocracy. Affairs in America were in a wretched condition. The laziness and stupidity of Lord Loudoun was leading to ruin by his inefficiency and his zeal in overawing colonial assemblies. In this strait the confused aristocracy turned to Pitt, the great commoner of England (then

suffering from gout, out of office, and physically feeble but morally strong), as the only man who could save the nation from ruin. Like a giant, he directed the affairs of the nation—in England, on the Continent, and in America—with so much wisdom that in two short years that country was placed at the head of nationalities in power and glory. So to the people the aristocracy were compelled to look for salvation.

Pitt as Earl of Chatham. When Pitt accepted a peerage as Earl of Chatham, and abandoned the House of Commons, the theatre of his great exploits in statesmanship, he lost caste in the estimation of the people, and the terror of his name in continental Europe vanished. When Frederick the Great heard of it, he said, "My friend has harmed himself by accepting a peerage." The King of Poland remarked, "It argues a senselessness to glory to forfeit the name of Pitt to any title." He was everywhere known as "The Great Commoner of England." His health was too much shattered to lead the Commons any longer, and he probably felt willing to secure dignity and a competence in his old age. He descended from the pedestal of a greater dignity to the level of an English earl, a title *per se* that conferred no real special honor. "He no longer represented the enthusiastic nationality of the British people."

Pitt on the Stamp Act. William Pitt, tortured with the gout, had been for some time withdrawn from public affairs. In January, 1766, he appeared in his place in the House of Commons, and declared that "the king had no right to levy a tax on the colonies," and said they had invariably, by their representatives in their several assemblies, exercised the constitutional right of giving and granting their own money. "They would have been slaves," he said, "if they had not. . . . The colonies acknowledge your authority in all things, with the sole exception that you shall not take their money out of their pockets without their consent." This avowal of the great commoner made a profound impression on the House. Grenville arose to vindicate the Stamp Act, and, looking steadily at Pitt, he said, with great emphasis: "The seditious spirit of the colonies owes its birth to factions in this House. Gentlemen are careless of the consequences of what they say, provided it answers the purpose of opposition!" This challenge brought Pitt to his feet, and he declared that he would fight him (Grenville) on every foot of the field of combat. He made a powerful speech against the Stamp Act, to which the new ministry were compelled to give heed. Franklin was summoned to the bar of the House to testify. He gave reasons why the Stamp Act could not be enforced in America, and a bill for its repeal was carried (March 18, 1766) by a large majority; and the non-importation leagues in America were dissolved.

Pitt, WILLIAM, the "Great Commoner" of England, exercised great influence in American affairs for about twenty years. Born at Westminster, Nov. 15, 1708; died May 11, 1778. Educated at Oxford and Eton, he entered Parlia-

ment in 1735, where he was the most formidable opponent of Robert Walpole. In 1744 the famous Duchess of Marlborough bequeathed him \$50,000 "for having defended the laws of his



WILLIAM PITT. (From an English print.)

country and endeavoring to save it from ruin." Afterwards Sir William Pynsent left him the whole of his fortune. He held the office of Vice-treasurer of Ireland (1746), and soon afterwards was made paymaster of the army and one of the Privy Council. In 1755 he was dismissed from office, but in 1757 was made Secretary of State, and soon infused his own energy into every part of the public service, placing England in the front rank of nations. By his energy in pressing the war in America (see *French and Indian War*) he added Canada to the British empire. In 1761 he retired from office and received a pension of \$15,000 a year, and all through the progress of the disputes between Great Britain and its American colonies he advocated a conciliatory and righteous policy towards the Americans. In 1766 he was called to the head of affairs again; was created Earl of Chatham; but quitted office forever in 1768. In the House of Lords he opposed coercive measures towards the Americans, in speeches remarkable for their vigor and eloquence. He was opposed to the political independence of the Americans, for he deprecated a dismemberment of the empire, and, while opposing a motion to that effect, in an earnest speech in the House of Lords (April, 1778), he swooned, and was carried to his home so much exhausted that he never rallied. He had risen from a sick-bed to take his place in Parliament on that occasion, and the excitement overcame him. His funeral was a public one, at the national expense, and he was buried in Westminster Abbey, and a handsome marble monument was erected to his memory.

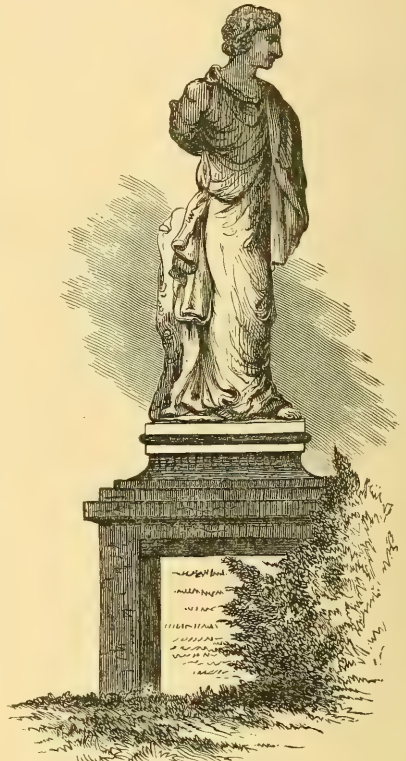
Pitt, WILLIAM (the younger), ON THE WAR. On hearing of the disastrous victory won at Guilford Court-house (March 15, 1781), young

Pitt, then only twenty-one years of age, denounced, in the House of Commons, the war against the Americans as a "most accursed" one, "wicked, barbarous, cruel, and unnatural. Conceived in injustice," he said, "its footsteps are marked with slaughter and devastation, while it meditates destruction to the miserable people who are the devoted objects of the resentments which produced it." His sentiments were shared by other statesmen, and were widely echoed among the people. There was plain talk in Parliament. Charles James Fox said: "America is lost, irretrievably lost, to the country." He had moved (June 12) to recommend ministers to conclude a peace with the Americans. "We can lose nothing," he said, "by a vote declaring them independent."

Pitt's Compliment to Franklin. In January, 1775, the Earl of Chatham (William Pitt) introduced Dr. Franklin on the floor of the House of Lords, when the former made an eloquent plea for justice towards the Americans. This was in support of a measure which he proposed. Lord Sandwich, speaking for the majority in the House of Lords, grew very petulant. He declared that the measure ought to be instantly rejected. "I can never believe it to be the production of a British peer," he said. "It appears to me rather the work of some American;" and, turning his face towards Franklin, who stood leaning on the bar, "I fancy," he continued, "I have in my eye the person who drew it up, one of the bitterest and most mischievous enemies this country ever had." The eyes of the peers were turned on Franklin, when Chatham retorted: "The plan is entirely my own; but if I were the first minister, and had the care of settling this momentous business, I should not be ashamed of publicly calling to my assistance a person so perfectly acquainted with the whole of American affairs, one whom all Europe ranks with our Boyles and Newtons, as an honor, not to the English nation only, but to human nature."

Pitt's Statue at Charleston. In token of their gratitude to the Earl of Chatham for his successful efforts in procuring a repeal of the Stamp Act (which see), in 1766, the Americans ordered two statues of their friend to be erected, one in New York and the other in Charleston. The Legislature of South Carolina (like that of New York) caused a statue of marble to be erected at the intersection of Broad and Meeting streets, Charleston. During the siege of that city in 1780, a cannon-ball from the British besiegers broke off one of the arms. Regarding the mutilated statue as an obstruction in the streets, it was removed many years afterwards. Dragging it from its pedestal with ropes, its head was broken off when it fell. The fragments were stored away until the Orphan-house in Charleston was built, when the commissioners had the statue restored, as far as possible, excepting the dis severed arm, and placed it upon a pedestal in front of their building, where it stood as late as 1876. Judge Grimke, of Charleston, had preserved the origi-

nal marble tablet, bearing the inscription, as follows: "In grateful memory of his services to his country in general and to America in particular, the Commons House of Assembly of South



PITT'S STATUE AT CHARLESTON.

Carolina unanimously voted this statue of the Right Hon. WILLIAM PITT, Esq., who gloriously exerted himself in defending the freedom of Americans, the true sons of England, by promoting a repeal of the Stamp Act, in the year 1776. Time shall sooner destroy this mark of their esteem than erase from their minds the just sense of his patriotic virtue."

Pizarro, FRANCISCO, was a native of Estremadura, Spain; born about the year 1471; died at Lima, Peru, June 26, 1541. Low-born, he received little care from his parents, and was a swineherd in his earlier years. He went with Ojeda (which see) from Santo Domingo to Central America in 1510, and assisted Vasco de Balboa Nuñez (which see) in establishing the settlement at Darien. Trafficking with the natives on the Isthmus of Panama, in 1515, he settled near the city of Panama founded there, and engaged in the cultivation of land by Indian slaves. With a priest and another illiterate adventurer named Almagro, he explored the southern coast, in 1524, with one hundred followers in one vessel and seventy in another, under the last-named person. Their explorations were fruitless, except in information of Peru, the land of gold. He went as far as the borders of that

land, plundered the people, carried some of them away, and took them to Spain in the summer of 1528. His creditors imprisoned him at Seville, but the king ordered his release and received him at court with distinction. From the monarch (Charles V.) he received a commission to conquer Peru, with the title of governor or captain-general of the province when he had subdued it. With four of his brothers he crossed the Atlantic early in 1530. The following year he left Panama with one hundred and eighty men and twenty-seven horses, on an expedition against Peru, leaving Almagro behind to procure provisions and reinforcements. After a voyage of about fourteen days, he landed on the shores of a bay in 1° north latitude, and plundered a town on the borders of the empire of the Incas, which was then distracted by civil war. There he was reinforced by one hundred and thirty men, and marched to meet Atahualpa, who had contended with his brother for the kingdom, and had just made the latter a prisoner. With one hundred and seventy-seven men Pizarro went with pretended friendship to the successful Inca, in September, 1532, and treacherously made him prisoner. The Inca's army fled in dismay. Atahualpa offered for his own ransom to fill the room he was in with gold. The precious metals and golden ornaments of the temples, worth, when melted down, more than \$17,000,000, were laid at Pizarro's feet, when the treacherous Spaniard caused his royal captive to be murdered (Aug. 29, 1533). Marching to Cuzco, in November, Pizarro proclaimed the half-brother of the dead Inca, Manco Capac, his successor, and then founded a new capital nearer the coast, now Lima. The new Inca escaped, rebelled, slaughtered many Spaniards, and laid siege to Lima, which they soon raised. A dispute between Pizarro and Almagro led to open warfare. Almagro was defeated and slain in 1538. The empire of the Incas lay prostrate at the feet of the Spaniards, with Pizarro as ruler. The latter married a daughter of Atahualpa. The son of Almagro, continuing the war begun by his father, led a faction to attack the Spanish ruler in his palace, and the latter was slain. Pizarro never learned to read or write. He was cunning, treacherous, and cruel, his chief merits being courage and fortitude.

Plague in New England. About four years before the landing of "the Pilgrims" a devastating plague had destroyed a greater portion of the barbarians of that region where they founded New Plymouth. Indeed, they were informed by a friendly Indian that, for a long distance along the coast and far back into the forest, not "a man, woman, or child remained." So it was that in taking possession of the land the "Pilgrims" did not displace any people to make room for the English. English navigators had made known in England the effects of this plague before King James gave a charter to the Plymouth Company (Nov. 3, 1620). And he gave, in the charter itself, as a reason for granting it, that the country had been desolated "so that there is not left, for many leagues together on the main,

any that doe claime or challenge any kind of interest therein."

Plan of the Advance against Richmond (1864). Lieutenant-general Grant arrived at the headquarters of the Army of the Potomac, at Culpepper Court-house, March 23, 1864; and before the close of the month he and Meade had formed a plan for the grand advance of the Army of the Potomac and its auxiliaries. The main army was to make an overland march from the Rapid Anna to the James, with auxiliary forces menacing the communications with Richmond. General Butler was to advance from Fortress Monroe with about 30,000 troops, and form an intrenched camp near the mouth of the Appomattox River, to attack Richmond or join the Army of the Potomac, as circumstances might require. General Franz Sigel, then protecting West Virginia, was to form his army into two columns, one of them, 10,000 strong, under General Crook, to operate against the Virginia and East Tennessee Railway; the other, 7000 strong, led by Sigel, to go up the Shenandoah valley and menace Lee's westward lines of supply. Lee's army was then occupying a line nearly twenty miles long on each side of Orange Court-house, its left covered by the Rapid Anna, and its right by strong works on Mine Run (which see). Volunteering was now rapidly increasing, and the governors of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and Wisconsin tendered to the President (April 21, 1864) 100,000 men for one hundred days, without requiring any bounty to be paid or the services charged or credited to any draft. This patriotic offer was accepted. On the evening of the 3d of May the army of the Potomac was ready to advance, and at midnight began its march.

Plantations, CONTEMPT FOR THE. On the accession of James II. that monarch declared, without the formality of law, the charter of Massachusetts to be void, and appointed Joseph Dudley president of the country from Rhode Island to Nova Scotia. The people of England, misinformed by their rulers, approved the measure, and the tone of society there was one of contempt for the plantations. The poet Dryden, who was then a supple servant of the crown, in a dramatic prologue, wrote as follows:

"Since faction ebbs, and rogues go out of fashion,
Their penny scribes take care to inform the nation
How well men thrive in this or that Plantation.

"How Pennsylvania's air agrees with Quakers,
And Carolina's with Associates;
Both e'en too good for madmen and for traitors.

"Truth is, our land with saints is so run o'er,
And every age produces such a store,
That now there's need of two New Englands more."

Planter, THE. Robert Small was an intelligent slave, and pilot of the little steamer *Planter*, in Charleston harbor. Small and eight of his dusky companions, on the evening of May 11, 1863, after the white officers of the vessel had gone ashore to spend the night, went out of the harbor with the *Planter*, bearing the families of Small and the engineer on board. She did not reach Fort Sumter until daylight, when a proper signal was given, and she passed on un-

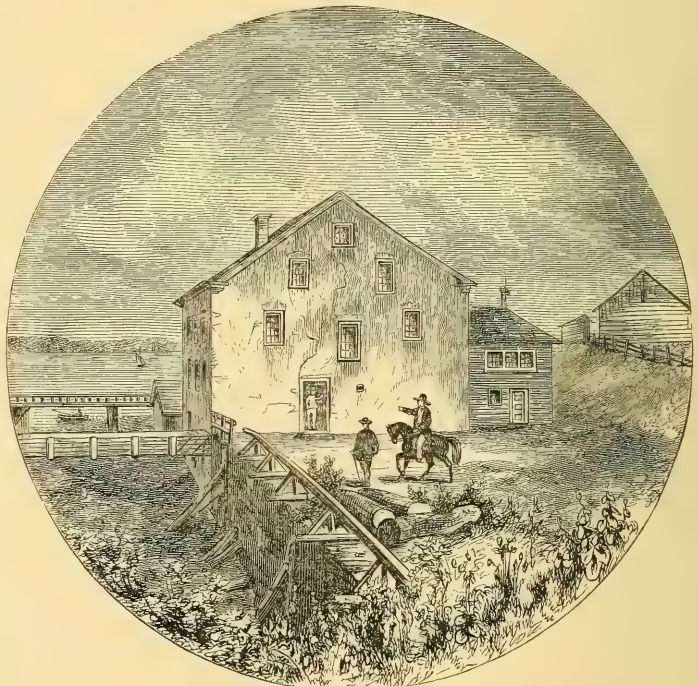
suspected. When out of the range of Confederate batteries, Small raised a white flag and went out to Dupont's blockading squadron, where he gave up the vessel to the captain of the *Augusta*. She was sent to the *Wabash*, the flag-ship, where Small gave Commodore Dupont valuable information, who sent the colored families to Hilton Head and took the pilot and the other colored men into the National service.

Plattsburg, BATTLES AT, ON LAND AND WATER (1814). When General Izard marched from Champlain for Sackett's Harbor, with 4000 men (August, 1814), he left 1500 soldiers there, under the command of General Alexander Macomb. During the spring and summer of that year both parties had been busy in the preparation of war-vessels for Lake Champlain, and the command of the American squadron there was held by Captain Thomas Macdonough. Released from duty in Europe by the downfall of Napoleon, a number of Wellington's troops had arrived in Canada. There were about 15,000 British troops

(chiefly these veterans) at Montreal at the close of August, and Sir George Prevost, Governor of Canada and general-in-chief of the forces there, proceeded to invade New York. Izard had made a requisition for militia and light dragoons, and at the beginning of September Macomb found himself at the head of about 3500 men. These he gathered at Plattsburg, to repel an expected invasion. Prevost advanced from the St. Lawrence with about 14,000 men, assisted by General De Rottenburg as his second, and at the same time the British flotilla, under Captain Pringle, came out of the Sorel River, the outlet of Lake Champlain. Prevost announced his intention to seize and hold northern New York as far down as Ticonderoga, and he called upon the inhabitants to cast off their allegiance and furnish him with supplies. In the meantime Ma-

comb, with untiring energy, prepared for a defence of the threatened region. He had completed redoubts and block-houses at Plattsburg, to prevent the invaders crossing the Saranac River. The militia were under the command of General Benjamin Mooers. He had been very active in gathering them, and when Prevost advanced he was at the head of about 5000 men. Prevost arrived at Champlain on Sept. 3, and two days afterwards pushed to a point within eight miles of Plattsburg. At the same time Macomb divided his troops into detachments, to

complete fortifications already begun. Detachments were sent northward, to watch the movements of the British. On the 6th Prevost moved upon Plattsburg with his whole force, in two columns, the right crossing on to the Beekmantown road. Informed of this, Macomb sent the gallant Major John E. Wool (who volunteered for the purpose), with some regulars, to support the militia under Mooers, who was out in that direction, and to oppose the advance of the foe. His force was 280 strong. At Beekmantown he encountered Prevost's advanced guard. The militia broke, and fled towards Plattsburg, but the regulars stood firm. He fought the invaders, inch by inch, all the way to Plattsburg. His and other detachments were pushed back by the overwhelming force of the British, and retired to the south side of the Saranac, tearing up the bridges behind them, and using the timbers for breastworks. The invaders tried to force a passage across the stream, but were repulsed by a small company of volunteers in a

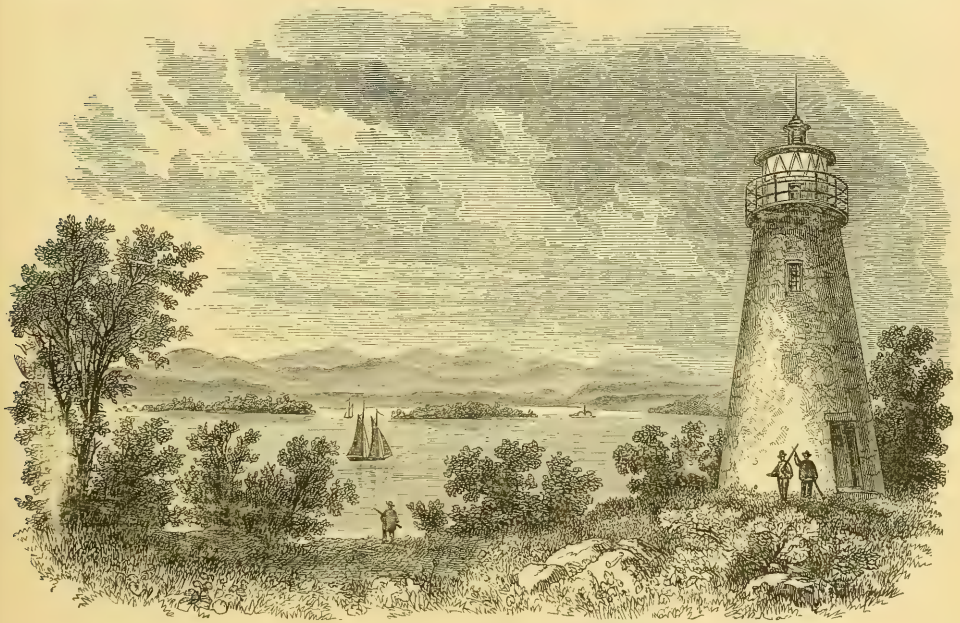


OLD STONE MILL.

stone mill near the site of the lower bridge, who fired sharp volleys of musketry upon them from that strong citadel. Prevost now perceived that he had serious work before him, and employed the time from the 7th to the 11th in bringing up his batteries and supply-trains, and constructing works to command those of the Americans on the south side of the Saranac. Meanwhile the naval force, under the command of Commodore Downie, had approached Cumberland Head. His flag-ship was the *Confiance*, 38 guns, and with it were one brig, two sloops-of-war, and twelve gunboats. Macdonough's squadron lay in Platts-

burg Bay, and consisted of the *Saratoga*, 26 guns (his flag-ship), with one brig, two schooners, and ten gunboats, or galleys. The British came around Cumberland Head, with a fair wind, on the morning of the 11th, and at the same time the British land-forces were moving for a combined attack upon the Americans by land and water. Macdonough had skilfully prepared his vessels for action, and when all was in readiness he knelt on the deck of the *Saratoga*, and offered up a fervent prayer to God, imploring divine aid. His officers were around him, and very soon after he arose the guns of both squadrons opened, and a sharp naval action began. A shot from one of the British vessels demolished a hen-coop on the deck of the *Saratoga*, in which was a young game-cock. The released fowl, startled by the noise of cannons, flew upon a gun-slide, and, flapping his wings, crowed lust-

British commodore (Downie) was killed, and his remains were buried at Plattsburg. The Americans lost 110 men; the British loss was over 200 men. While this naval battle was raging, there was a sharp conflict on the land. The British troops had attempted to force their way across the Saranac at two places, but after a short and desperate struggle they were repulsed by the gallant regulars and militia led by Macomb and Mooers. Some of the British had crossed the stream near the site of the upper bridge, and the Americans were driving them back, when tidings came that the British fleet had just surrendered. The Americans gave three hearty cheers. The British took them as indications of good news for their antagonists, and their line wavered. Soon Prevost was notified of the disaster on the water, and, naturally timid in the presence of danger, saw with alarm



THEATRE OF NAVAL ENGAGEMENT, PLATTSBURG BAY. (Adirondack Mountains in the distance.)

ily and defiantly. The sailors cheered, and the incident was regarded by them as ominous of victory. Their courage was strengthened. The *Confiance* and *Saratoga* fought desperately. A broadside from the former had a terrible effect upon the latter. Forty of the *Saratoga's* people were disabled. This stunning blow was felt only for a moment. The battle became general, and lasted about two hours and twenty minutes. The vessels were all terribly shattered. "There was not a mast in either squadron," wrote Macdonough, "that could stand to make sail on." One of the officers of the *Confiance* wrote: "Our masts, yards, and sails were so shattered that one looked like so many bundles of matches and the other like so many bundles of rags." The contest was witnessed by hundreds of spectators on the headlands of the Vermont shore. It ended with victory for the Americans. The

the rapid gathering of the neighboring militia, who menaced his flanks and rear. At twilight (Sept. 11, 1814) he ceased fighting, and prepared for flight back to Canada. At midnight, something having given him greater alarm, he retreated in such haste that he left his sick and wounded and a vast amount of stores behind. Light troops, militia, and volunteers started in pursuit, but a heavy fall of rain compelled them to give it up. Prevost halted and encamped at Champlain, and on the 24th he left the United States territory, and returned to Montreal with the main army. The loss of Prevost, after he crossed the international boundary, in killed, wounded, missing, and deserters, did not fall much short of 2000. The loss of the Americans on the land was less than 150. The whole country rang with the praises of Macomb and Macdonough, the chief leaders in the battles at Platts-

burg. In almost every village and city in the land there were bonfires and illuminations. Governor Tompkins presented Macomb with a sword in the name of the people of the State of New York, and Dewitt Clinton, Mayor of New York, presented him, in the name of the corporation, with the freedom of the city. (See *Freedom of a City*.) Congress gave him the thanks of the nation, and voted him a gold medal. The

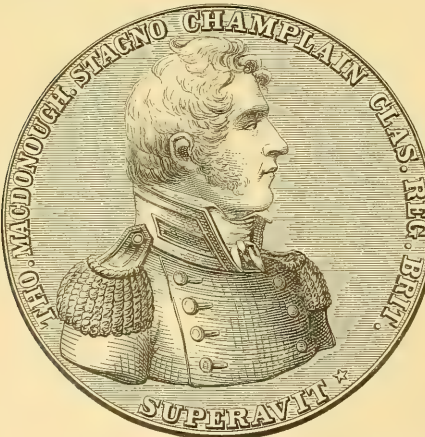
which the fugitives and their pursuers were advancing General Dwight formed his brigade, and on his left was another brigade, commanded by Colonel Lewis Benedict. Another was held in reserve. Their ranks were opened to receive the flying columns, which passed through to the rear, the Confederates close upon their heels. In strong force they assailed Emory's troops. A severe battle ensued, which lasted an hour and



MACOMB'S MEDAL.

State of New York gave Macdonough two thousand acres of land. The State of Vermont purchased two hundred acres on Cumberland Head, and presented them to him, the house upon it overlooking the scene of his gallant exploits. "Thus," said Macdonough to a friend, while tears filled his eyes, "from a poor lieutenant I became a rich man." Congress gave him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal.

a half, the Confederates making the most desperate efforts to turn the National left, firmly held by Benedict. The assailants were repulsed, and very soon the battle ceased on that part of the field. Everywhere else the Confederates were thrown back, with great slaughter. Then the Nationals retired to Pleasant Hill, fifteen miles distant (see *Red River Expedition*), followed by the Confederates.



MACDONOUGH'S MEDAL.

Pleasant Grove, BATTLE AT. At Pleasant Grove, three miles from Sabine Cross-roads, Louisiana, General Emory, advancing with his fine corps, had halted at six o'clock (April 8, 1864), when the Nationals, defeated at the Cross-roads, were retreating. Across the road along

Pleasant Hill, BATTLE AT. When it was discovered that the Confederates were following the Nationals in strong force after the battle at Pleasant Grove (which see), Banks formed a battle-line at Pleasant Hill, fifteen miles east of the latter place, with Emory's division in the

front, the right occupied by Dwight's brigade, another, under General Millan, in the centre, and a third, under Colonel Benedict, on the left. A New York battery was planted on a commanding hill. The army trains, guarded by Lee's cavalry, a brigade of colored troops, and Ransom's shattered columns, were sent some distance on the road towards Grand Ecore. Towards noon (April 9, 1864), the Confederate advance appeared, and between five and six o'clock a furious battle began. The assailants fell heavily on Emory's left, held by Benedict's brigade, with crushing force, and pushed it back. At the first onset, and while trying to rally his men to charge, Benedict was slain by a bullet which passed through his head. While the left was giving way, and the Confederates had captured four guns, Emory's right stood firm until enveloped on three sides by a superior force, when it fell back a little. Then the tide was changed by a heavy countercharge by Smith's veterans, under General Mower. The right of the Confederates was driven more than a mile by this charge. Then the whole of Smith's reserves were ordered up, when the Confederates were routed and pursued until dark. General Banks reported his losses in the battles of the 7th, 8th, and 9th of April at 3969, of whom 289 were killed and 2150 missing, most of the latter taken prisoners. The Nationals had also lost, thus far, 20 pieces of artillery, 160 wagons, and 1200 horses and mules. They had captured 2300 prisoners, 25 cannons (chiefly by the fleet), and 3000 bales of cotton. The Confederate losses were never reported. (See *Red River Expedition*.)

Pleasanton, ALFRED, was born in Washington, D. C., in January 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1844, entering the dragoons. He served in the war against Mexico, and afterwards in California, New Mexico, and Texas. For several years he was assistant adjutant-general and adjutant-general to General Harney, and in the fall of 1861 was acting colonel of the Second Cavalry. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in July, 1862, and took command of Stoneman's cavalry brigade, leading the van when McClellan crossed the Potomac, in October. Pleasanton was in the battles at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg, and was afterwards efficient in driving Price out of Missouri, in 1864. He resigned in 1868. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army for "meritorious services during the rebellion." He was afterwards engaged in mining, and was United States Collector.

Pledge Signed by Patriots. Two days after the affairs at Lexington and Concord, the people of New York city held a convention, under the guidance of the Sons of Liberty, at which they formed a patriotic association, and adopted a pledge, copies of which were sent to every county in the province for signatures. The object was to winnow out the Tories—to ascertain who, in every community, was an adherent to the American cause, and who was not. Committees were appointed in each county, town,

and precinct, to visit the inhabitants, and obtain the signatures of persons willing to sign and the names of persons who should refuse to sign. A thorough canvass of the province was thus made. The following is a copy of the pledge: "Persuaded that the salvation of the rights and liberties of America depend, under God, on the firm union of its inhabitants in a vigorous prosecution of the measures necessary for its safety, and convinced of the necessity of preventing the anarchy and confusion which attend a dissolution of the powers of government, we, the freemen, freeholders, and inhabitants of —, being greatly alarmed at the avowed design of the ministry to raise a revenue in America, and shocked by the bloody scenes now acting in Massachusetts Bay, do, in the most solemn manner, resolve never to become slaves, and do associate, under all the ties of religion, honor, and love to our country, to adopt, and endeavor to carry into execution, whatsoever measures may be recommended by the Continental Congress or resolved upon by our Provincial Convention for the purpose of preserving our Constitution and of opposing the several arbitrary acts of the British Parliament, until a reconciliation between Great Britain and America, on constitutional principles (which we most solemnly desire), can be obtained; and that we will in all things follow the advice of our General Committee respecting the purposes aforesaid, the preservation of peace and good order, and the safety of individuals and property."

Plot against Washington. Toryism was more rampant in the city of New York in the summer of 1776 than anywhere else on the continent. The Provincial Congress was timid, and Tryon, the royal governor, was active in fomenting disaffection from his marine retreat. Washington made his summer headquarters in New York at Richmond Hill, at the intersection of Charlton and Varick streets, and Tryon, on board the *Duchess of Gordon*, formed a plot for the uprising of the Tories in the city and in the lower valley of the Hudson to cut off all communication with the mainland, to fire the magazines, to murder Washington, his staff-officers, and other leaders of the American army, or to seize them and send them to England for trial on a charge of treason, and to make prisoners of the great body of the troops. The ramifications of the plot were extensive, and a large number of persons were employed. The mayor of New York (Mathews) was implicated in it, and even the Life-guard of Washington was tampered with. An Irishman named Hickey, of that guard, was employed to poison Washington. He tried to make the housekeeper at headquarters—the faithful daughter of France, the famous innkeeper—his accomplice. She feigned compliance. Hickey knew that Washington was fond of green pease, and he made an arrangement for her to have poison in a mess of which she served at the table of the commander-in-chief. The maiden gave warning to Washington. Hickey put arsenic in the pease. She conveyed them to Washington, who declined to

take any, but caused the immediate arrest of the faithless Life-guardsmen, and he was hanged. The horrible plot was revealed, and traced to Tryon as its author.

Plough Patent, or LIGONIA. In 1630 a patent was granted by the Plymouth Company of rights and soil to a region in (present) Maine, forty miles square, between Cape Porpoise and Casco, called Ligonía. Several husbandmen agreed to emigrate to it, and formed an agricultural colony. They came over in a vessel of sixty tons, called the *Plough*, in compliment to them. The idea of agriculture there was treated with so much contempt by other adventurers, who engaged in fishing and trade, that the patent itself was called, in ridicule, the "Plough Patent." After a brief experiment the settlement was abandoned. (See *Ligonía, Province of*.)

Ploughs. Thomas Jefferson appears to have been the first American who made experiments to solve the problem of the true form of the mould-board of the plough, then the great want. He communicated his theory to the French Institute, and in 1793 he put it into practice on his own farm in Virginia. His mould-board was about the same in form as the most approved of our day. In 1797 Charles Newbold, of Burlington, N. J., obtained a patent for a cast-iron plough. Others made improvements, the best of which was by Jethro Wood, of Scipio, N. Y., patented in 1810 and 1819. One of the most useful is the "sub-soil plough," of comparatively recent introduction. Ploughs moved by steam have been used on the Western prairies. E. C. Bellinger, of South Carolina, obtained a patent for one in 1833. Improvements in this have been made. The great want, yet unsatisfied, is a traction engine or locomotive. The business of manufacturing ploughs in the United States has greatly increased within twenty-five years. The number of ploughs made in this country in 1880 was about 1,326,000.

Plymouth (N. C.), CAPTURE OF. About 7000 Confederates, under General R. F. Hoke, attacked Plymouth, at the mouth of the Roanoke River, April 17, 1864. The post was fortified, and garrisoned by 2400 men, under General H. W. Wessells. Hoke was assisted by the powerful "ram" *Albemarle*. The town was closely besieged. A gunboat that went to the assistance of the garrison was soon disabled and captured. On April 20 the Confederates made a general assault, and the town and Fort Williams were compelled to surrender. There were 1600 men surrendered, with 25 cannons, 2000 small-arms, and valuable stores.

Plymouth Company. The domain in America assigned to this company extended from lat. 41° to 45° north. (See *London Company*.) Members of this company were in the field of adventure before it was organized. Adventurers from England had been on the coast of New England, but had failed to plant a permanent settlement. (See *New England*.) The principal members of the company were Sir John Popham (then Chief-justice of England, who had, with scandalous

injustice, condemned Raleigh to die on the scaffold), his brother George Popham, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, Sir John and Raleigh Gilbert (sons of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who perished in the *Squirrel*) (see *Gilbert, Sir Humphrey*), William Parker, and Thomas Hanham. In 1606 Justice Popham sent a vessel at his own cost, commanded by Henry Challons, to make further discoveries of the North Virginia region. Challons and his crew of about thirty persons were captured by the Spaniards, and the vessel was confiscated. Soon after the departure of Challons, Thomas Hanham, afterwards one of the company, sailed in a small vessel for America, accompanied by Martin Pring (see *New England*), to discover a good place for a settlement; and his report was so favorable, so confirmatory of Gosnold's statements (see *Gosnold, Bartholomew*), that the above-named gentlemen and others formed an association called the Plymouth Company, and received a charter from King James late in that year. (See *London Company*.) In the spring of 1607 they sent three small vessels to the domain with one hundred emigrants, and George Popham as governor of the colony. They landed, late in August, at a rather sterile place near the mouth of the Kennebec, Me., now known as Parker's Island, where, after a sermon had been delivered, and the patent and other laws read, they dug a well, built a stone house, a few log-huts, and a stockade, which they called Fort St. George. They experienced the bitter fruit of Weymouth's kidnapping in the hostility of the natives, who refused to furnish them with maize or other food. The season was too far advanced to raise food for the colony, so, on the 5th of December (1607), two of the ships returned to England, leaving forty-five persons, with sufficient stores, Popham being president of the colony, and Raleigh Gilbert admiral. During the severe winter their storehouse was burned by accident. The next spring a vessel arrived at Fort St. George with supplies, and with the sad intelligence of the death of Chief-justice Popham and Sir John Gilbert, two of the most influential members of the Plymouth Company. Discouraged and disheartened by the severity of the winter, during which their houses were almost covered with snow, their losses by disease, and the death of their governor, Henry Popham, the colonists forsook their new abode and returned to England. For a few years the operations of the company were confined to fishing voyages and a little traffic with the natives. Their prospects brightened by the first successful voyage of Captain Smith, but were again darkened by subsequent misfortunes. (See *New England*.) The company had indignantly dismissed Hunt from their service on hearing of his conduct, and when they found Squanto had escaped from Spain and made his way to England, they sought him out, loaded him with presents, and sent him to New England with Captain Dermer (see *Dermer, Thomas*) to pacify the natives. But they were still too indignant to listen, and they attacked and dangerously wounded Dermer and several of his party. The company now abandoned all thoughts of

establishing colonies in New England at that time, and looked forward to receiving large profits by the fisheries and by traffic. The London Company had by its second charter obtained new territory. The Plymouth Company desired to secure greater privileges by a distinct and separate grant, by which they might have the monopoly of the fisheries on the New England coast. The London Company and private traders warmly opposed them, for they wished to keep these fisheries free; but they obtained a charter from the king, Nov. 3, 1620, known as the "Great Patent," and the popular name of the association was changed to "The Council of Plymouth." By the new charter all North America, from lat. 40° to 48° north, excepting places possessed by "any Christian prince or people," was granted in full property, with exclusive rights of jurisdiction, settlement, and traffic, to forty wealthy and influential persons, incorporated as "The Council established at Plymouth, in the County of Devon, for the Planting, Ruling, Ordering, and Governing of New England, in America." The line between the London and Plymouth colonies was nearly coincident with that between the late slave-labor and free-labor states. But that powerful organization was not permitted to make the first permanent English settlement within its domain; it was done by a handful of feeble liberty-loving people fleeing from persecution in England. (See *Plymouth, Nev.*) The pretences of the council to an exclusive right of fishing on the New England coast was denounced in the House of Commons (1621) soon after the granting of the charter as a "grievance," and a committee reported that the charter was vitiated by the clause in it which forfeited the ships of intruders without the sanction of Parliament. That body had not met for seven years, and were strongly tainted with the idea that the people had "divine rights" as well as the king, and acted accordingly. Sir Ferdinand Gorges appeared before it in defence of the charter. So also was the king there to defend his prerogative if it should be assailed. Sir Edwin Sandys, the wise statesman and friend of Virginia (see *Sandys, Sir Edwin*), opposed Gorges. Sir Edward Coke, a member of Parliament and of the Privy Council (who had been Lord Chief-justice of England), also opposed the monopolists; and then began his famous contest with King James which resulted in a notable exhibition of wrath and despotism on the part of the sovereign. Sandys pleaded for freedom in fishing and in general commerce, which was then the staple source of wealth for England. "America is not annexed to the realm, nor within the jurisdiction of Parliament," said George Calvert, a supporter of the monopoly. "You therefore have no right to interfere." (See *Calvert, George*.) "We make laws for Virginia," retorted another member; "a bill passed by the Commons and the Lords, if it receive the king's assent, will control the patent." Coke argued (referring to many statutes of the realm) that, as the charter was granted without regard to pre-existing rights, it was necessarily void. This attack upon his prerogative stirred the anger of

the monarch, who was sitting near the Speaker's chair, and he blurted out some silly words about the "divine right of kings," when the Commons, in defiance of his wrath, passed a bill giving freedom to commerce in spite of the charter. Before the bill had passed through the form of legislation the king dissolved the Parliament, and forbade by proclamation any vessel to approach the shores of New England without the special consent of the Council of Plymouth. He also caused the imprisonment of Coke, Pym, and other leaders of the Commons, after adjournment, for their alleged factions behavior. The next Parliament proceeded to perfect what the former one had begun. Under the king's proclamation, the Council sent out Francis West as admiral of New England, to impose a tribute upon fishing-vessels on the northeast coast; but the final decision of Parliament took away his occupation, and virtually destroyed the power of the Council. Many of the parties withdrew their interests in the company, and those who remained, like Gorges, did little more than issue grants of domain in the northeastern parts of America. (See *Gorges, Sir Ferdinando*.) After the accession of Charles I. (1625) there was much restiveness concerning the monopoly, even in its weakened state, and the merchants prayed for a revocation of the charter. The Commons, growing more and more democratic, regarded it as a royal instrument; churchmen looked upon it as a foe to prelacy, because Puritans were sheltered on its domain; and Charles, as bigoted a believer in the doctrine of the "divine right of kings" as his father, suspected the New England colonists were enjoying liberties inconsistent with the royal prerogative. The company prepared for its dissolution by dividing North Virginia into twelve royal provinces, assigning each to persons named, and at their last meeting (April, 1635) they caused to be entered upon their minutes the following record: "We have been bereaved of friends; oppressed by losses, expenses, and troubles; assailed before the Privy Council again and again with groundless charges; weakened by the French and other foes without and within the realm; and what remains is only a breathless carcass. We therefore now resign the patent to the king, first reserving all grants by us made and all vested rights—a patent we have holden about fifteen years."

Plymouth Declaration of Rights. In 1636 the Plymouth Colony adopted a body of laws called "The General Fundamentals." The first article declared "That no act, imposition, law, or ordinance be made or imposed upon us at present or to come but such as shall be enacted by the consent of the body of freemen or associates, or their representatives legally assembled; which is according to the free liberties of the freeborn people of England." The second article read: "And for the well governing of this colony, it is also ordered that there be free elections annually of governor, deputy-governor, and assistants by the vote of the freemen of this corporation." These and other fundamentals are dated 1636, and were revised in 1671. The

style of enactment is: "We, the associates of the colony of New Plimouth, coming hither as freeborn subjects of the kingdom of England, endowed with all and singular the privileges belonging to each, being assembled, do enact," etc. The seal adopted by the Plymouth Colony is represented on p. 990, and is called the "Old Colony" seal, because Plymouth Colony was established before Massachusetts Bay Colony.

Plymouth, NEW, was founded by "pilgrims" from Holland in 1620. (See *Pilgrims*.) Their first care on landing from the *Mayflower* was to build a rude fort and plant five cannons upon it which they had brought with them. Then they "fell to building houses." Distributed into nineteen families, they all worked diligently until nearly all were prostrated by sickness. There were no delicacies for the sick and very little wholesome food. The sailors of the *Mayflower* had unkindly refused to let the passengers have a variety by sharing their own coarse food with them. At times that winter the huts at New Plymouth were half buried in snow-drifts. The pilgrims trembled in fear of the surrounding savages, but felt comforted by the voice of one of them as he went through the new village, crying "Welcome, Englishmen! Welcome, Englishmen!" It was Samoset, who had learned a few English words from English sailors at Mohegan. He afterwards brought to New Plymouth Squanto, whom Hunt kidnapped. Squanto had returned, and through him an acquaintance and friendship were formed with Massasoit. The town lay on a slope; and when, six years after the arrival of the *Mayflower*, it was visited by Dutch commissioners (see *Dutch, The, at New Plymouth*), the houses were built of hewn timber, and the whole village was surrounded by a palisade of timbers driven into the ground and pointed at the top, a mile in circuit, and at the end of the streets were three gates made of strong beams. In the centre of the village was the governor's house, before which was a square enclosure bearing four mounted swivels. Upon an eminence was a square house, with a flat roof, made of thick sawed planks, stayed with oak beams, upon which were mounted six 5-pounder cannons. The lower part of this building was used for a church, where worshippers were seen with loaded muskets.

Plymouth Rock. The passengers on the *Mayflower*, on account of great privations and exposure in their winter-houses at New Plymouth, sickened, and a large number of them died before the warm spring weather of 1621 arrived. They were buried near the rock on which the great body of the "Pilgrims" landed. Lest the Indians who might come there should see their weakness by the great mortality, the graves were seeded over, and the rock remained the enduring monument and guide. Thomas Faunce, who died in 1746, aged ninety-nine years, was a ruling elder in the first church at New Plymouth, and knew some of the *Mayflower's* passengers, who showed him the rock on which they landed. On hearing that it was about to be covered by the erection of a wharf, the veu-

erable man was so affected that he wept. His tears probably saved that rock from oblivion, a fragment of which is carefully preserved at New Plymouth. Before the Revolution the sea had washed up sand and buried the rock. This sand was removed, and in attempting to move the rock it split asunder. The upper half, or shell, was taken to the middle of the village. In 1834 it was removed from the town square to a position in front of Pilgrim Hall, where it was enclosed in an iron railing, lost all its historical interest, and was reduced to a vulgar stone. In Sept., 1880, the citizens wisely took the fragment back and reunited it to the other portion, when it resumed its original dignity and significance.

Pocahontas. When Captain John Smith was on trial before Powhatan, two of the emperor's daughters occupied seats near him, one on each side of the "throne." One of these was Matoa, or Pocahontas, who subsequently made a conspicuous figure in Virginia history. When Smith was brought before Powhatan, the scene that ensued was impressive. There were at least two hundred warriors present. The emperor wore a mantle of raccoon skins and a head-dress of eagle's feathers. The room was a long house, or arbor, made of boughs. The warriors stood in rows on each side in their gayest attire, and back of them as many women, with their necks painted red, their heads covered with the white down of birds, and strings of white beads falling over their bosoms. The captive was received with a shout, when the "Queen of Appomattox" brought water for him to wash his hands, and another woman a bunch of feathers to dry them with. Then he was feasted, and afterwards a solemn council was held, by which he was doomed to die. Two large stones were brought before the emperor, when Smith was dragged to them, his arms were pinioned, and his head placed upon them. Pocahontas petitioned her father to spare the captive's life, but in vain. Huge clubs were raised by strong men to beat out his brains, when Pocahontas, the "king's dearest daughter," who, Smith says in his narrative, was "sixteen or eighteen years" old, sprang from her father's side, clasped the prisoner's head with her arms, and laid her own head upon his. Powhatan yielded to his daughter, and consented to spare Smith, who was released and sent with an Indian escort to Jamestown. The emperor and his people promised to be friends of the English. Two years after this event the Indians conspired to exterminate the white people. Again Pocahontas was an angel of deliverance to them. She heard of the plan, and on a dark and stormy night left her father's cabin, sped to Jamestown, informed Smith of the danger, and was back to her couch before the dawn. The English regarded the gentle Indian princess with great affection; and yet, when Smith had left the colony, and the Indians, offended, would help them to food no longer, that kind girl was ruthlessly torn from her kindred by a rude sea captain and kept a prisoner several months. (See *Argall, Samuel*.) That wicked act proved a blessing to the colony. While she was a captive mutual

love was engendered between Pocahontas and John Rolfe, a young Englishman of good family and education. He was a Christian, she was a pagan. "Is it not my duty," he said, "to lead the blind into light?" He labored for her enlightenment and conversion, and succeeded. The young princess was baptized at a font "hollowed out like a canoe" in the little chapel at Jamestown, whose columns were rough pine-trees; its rude pews were of "sweet-smelling cedar," and the rough communion-table and pulpit of black walnut. She received the Christian name of Rebecca—the first Christian convert in Virginia. Not long afterwards—on a charming day in April, 1613—Pocahontas, with her father's



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consent, stood before the chancel of the chapel with Rolfe, a young widower, her affianced, and was married to him by the Rev. Mr. Whittaker, the rector. All the people of Jamestown were pleased spectators. The chapel was trimmed with evergreens, wild flowers, and scarlet-berried holly. Pocahontas was dressed in a simple tunic of white muslin from the looms of Dacca. Her arms were bare even to her shoulders, and hanging loosely to her feet was a robe of rich stuff presented by the governor, Sir Thomas Dale, fancifully embroidered by herself and her maidens. A gaudy fillet encircled her head, and held the plumage of birds and a veil of gauze, while her wrists and ankles were adorned with the simple jewelry of the native workshops. When the ceremony was ended, the encharist was administered, with bread from the wheat-fields around Jamestown and wine from the grapes of the adjacent forest. Her brothers and sisters and forest maidens were present; also the governor and council, and five Englishwomen—all that were in the colony—who afterwards returned to England. Rolfe and his spouse "lived civilly and lovingly together" until Governor Dale returned to England (1616), when they and the Englishwomen in Virginia accompanied him. The "Lady Rebecca" received great attentions at court and from all below it. She was entertained by the Lord Bishop of London,

and at court she was treated with the respect due to the daughter of a monarch. The silly King James was angry because one of his subjects dared marry a *lady of royal blood!* And Captain Smith, for fear of displeasing the royal bigot, would not allow her to call him "father," as she desired to do, and her loving heart was grieved. The king, in his absurd dreams of the divinity of the royal prerogative, imagined Rolfe or his descendants might claim the crown of Virginia on behalf of his royal wife; and he asked the Privy Council if the husband had not committed treason! Pocahontas remained in England about a year; and when, with her husband and son, she was about to return to Virginia, with her father's chief councillor, she was seized with small-pox at Gravesend, and died in June, 1617. Her remains lie within the parish church-yard at Gravesend. Her son, Thomas Rolfe, afterwards became a distinguished man in Virginia, and his descendants are found among the most honorable citizens of that commonwealth.

Point Pleasant, BATTLE AT. Colonel Andrew Lewis led the left wing of the Virginia forces in Dunmore's War (which see) in the summer and autumn of 1774. He had about 1200 men, and, crossing the mountain-ranges, struck the Great Kanawha and followed it to the Ohio, and there encamped, Oct. 6. Expecting Dunmore with the right wing, he did not cast up intrenchments, and in this exposed situation was attacked (Oct. 10) by 1000 chosen warriors of the Western Confederacy, led by the giant chief Cornstalk, who came from Pickaway Plains, and Logan, the Mingo chief. So stealthily did the Indians approach that within an hour after they were discovered a bloody battle was raging. It continued several hours, the Indians slowly retreating from tree to tree, while Cornstalk encouraged them with the words "Be strong!" A desultory fire was kept up until sunset; and during the night the Indians retreated, having lost, in killed and wounded, about 150 men. The Virginians lost about one half their commissioned officers. Their entire loss was about 70 killed and a large number wounded.

Policy of France Avowed (1797). The consul-general of the United States in France complained of the condemnation of American vessels unjustly. Merlin, the French Minister of Justice, made a reply (1797), in which he openly avowed the intention to humble the Americans and compel Congress to conform to the wishes of France by depredations upon American commerce. "Let your government," wrote this minister of justice (who was also a speculator in privateers), "return to a sense of what is due to itself and its true friends, become just and grateful, and let it break the incomprehensible treaty which it has concluded with our most implacable enemies, and then the French Republic will cease to take advantage of this treaty, which favors England at its expense, and no appeals will then, I can assure you, be made to any tribunal against injustice." This insolent reply made sensible men of the opposition pause.

Policy of William III. towards the Colonies. Though the Revolution in England (1688) found its warmest friends among the Low Churchmen and Non-conformists there, who composed the English Whig party, the high ideas which William entertained of royal authority made him naturally coalesce with the Tories and the High-Church party. As to the government of the colonies, he seems not to have abated any of the pretensions set up by his predecessors. The colonial assemblies had hastened to enact in behalf of the people the Bill of Rights of the Convention Parliament. To these William gave frequent and decided negatives. The provincial acts for establishing the writ of *habeas corpus* were also vetoed by the king. He also continued the order of James II. prohibiting printing in the colonies. Even men of liberal tendencies, like Locke, Somers, and Chief-justice Holt, conceded prerogatives to the king in the colonies which they denied him at home. The most renowned jurists of the kingdom had not yet comprehended the true nature of the connective principle between the parent country and her colonies.

Political Aspect in 1813. The events of the war on land during 1812 had been discouraging, but these discouragements were lessened by the victories achieved on the ocean. There was much opposition to the war among the Federalists, especially in New England; but, on the whole, the administration was well sustained, especially in Congress. Madison had been re-elected in the autumn of 1812. According to a law passed in February (1813) before Madison's second inauguration, the new Congress (Thirtieth) assembled on May 24, when Henry Clay was chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives. In that body ardent young men like Cheves, Calhoun, Lowndes, Grundy, and Troup had become leaders. Quincy had declined a re-election, and was active in the Massachusetts Legislature; but the extreme Federalists were well represented by the venerable revolutionary patriots Timothy Pickering and Egbert Benson. In both Houses there was a strong administration working party, notwithstanding there had been decided gains for the Peace party in New England at the spring elections. In New York, where the Federalists were expecting a triumph, they had been defeated; and in New Jersey and Pennsylvania and all the Southern States, and their children in the valley of the Mississippi, were decided friends of the administration.

Political Organization in Massachusetts (1774). At the close of 1774, political power in Massachusetts was widely distributed, so that it was felt in every nerve of the body politic. There was a Provincial Congress having the general and supreme direction of public affairs. The efforts of this body were zealously seconded in every town by a Committee of Safety, vested with general executive powers, a Committee of Correspondence, and a Committee of Inspection. The duty of the latter was to look after and enforce the observance of the re-

quirements of the American Association (which see).

Political Parties in England (1765). In July a change of ministry occurred in England which gave hopes of justice to the American colonies. The old Whig aristocracy which had governed the kingdom since Queen Anne's reign had been split into factions, bitter and hostile, chiefly on account of personal considerations. The accession of George III. had given rise to a new party, headed by the Earl of Bute, who called themselves "The King's Friends," and which had driven Pitt from the office of premier. It was largely composed of political adventurers from among the Whigs, and also of representatives of the old Tory party. Their distinguishing doctrine was that the authority of the monarch had been usurped and encroached upon by the House of Commons, and they were regarded as hostile to popular rights. The new minister, the Marquis of Rockingham, who was a leader of the old Whig party, was liberally disposed; but, as yet, there hardly existed a popular party in England, in our American sense. The House of Commons represented a narrow aristocracy, a majority of the members being substantially nominated by the great landholders. They debated with closed doors, and to publish an account of their proceedings was a breach of privilege; therefore only brief sketches of the debates found their way to the public in print. There were then only faint signs of that great and beneficent social revolution which has since given complete publicity to the proceedings of all legislative bodies in America and Europe.

Political Proscription (1801). When Mr. Jefferson became President of the United States, he found that he was not his own master. He had been elected by a party whose leaders, like those of all parties, were lustful for office, and he was compelled to listen to their clamorous assertion that "to the victors belong the spoils" — an assertion of a doctrine first formulated in these words by Governor Marey, of New York. He proceeded accordingly to fill the most important offices with his political friends, dismissing faithful men who had been appointed by Washington and Adams. Then was commenced that system of political proscription in appointments to office which has grown to alarming proportions, and has worked much mischief in the administration of our state and national governments. Jackson made 2000 removals.

Polk, JAMES KNOX, eleventh President of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg County, N. C., Nov. 2, 1795; died at Nashville, Tenn., June 15, 1849. His ancestral name was Pollock, and he was of Scotch-Irish descent. He was graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1818, and admitted to the bar in 1820. Three years afterwards he was a member of the State Legislature of Tennessee, and was sent a delegate to Congress in 1825, where he was a conspicuous opponent of the administration of John Quincy Adams. He was Speaker of the House of Representatives from 1835 to 1837, and in 1839, having served fourteen years in Congress, he

declined a re-election. He was a candidate for the vice-presidency in 1840, but was defeated. In 1844 the Democratic National Convention at Baltimore nominated him for the presidency,



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chiefly because he was strongly in favor of the annexation of Texas (which see), a favorite measure of the Southern politicians. During his administration, the most important event was a war with Mexico (which see) from 1846 to 1848. The other chief events of his administration were the establishment of an independent treasury system, the enactment of a low tariff system, and the creation of the Department of the Interior. Three months after he retired from office, Mr. Polk was seized with illness and died in a few days.

Polk, JAMES K., NOMINATION OF, FOR PRESIDENT. In the spring of 1844 preparations were made for the presidential campaign of that year. Henry Clay was the favorite candidate for nomination by the Whigs, and a larger portion of the Democratic party seemed to prefer Martin Van Buren. Letters of inquiry concerning the annexation of Texas were addressed to both. Their replies showed that both were unfavorable to the immediate annexation of Texas. That was in April, 1844. The Democrats of the South determined to oppose Mr. Van Buren's nomination, and in the Democratic National Convention held at Baltimore May 27, 1844, in which all the states excepting South Carolina were represented, that opposition to Mr. Van Buren appeared formidable. On the first ballot, however, Van Buren received a majority of the votes, but the convention had adopted a rule requiring a vote of two thirds of the members present to nominate. Several ballotings ensued, and, finally, a bargain was made by which the delegates concentrated their votes on James K. Polk, of Tennessee, and he was nominated. The Whig Nominating Convention put forward the names of Henry Clay for President, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, for Vice-President. George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, had been nominated for Vice-President with Mr. Polk, and both were elected in the fall of 1844.

Polk, LEONIDAS, was born at Raleigh, N. C.,

in 1806. He was graduated at the West Point Military Academy in 1827; ordained a clergyman in the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, and was chosen bishop of the diocese of Louisiana in 1841. In 1861 he joined the enemies of the Union, and became a major-general in the Confederate army, in which capacity he was distinguished for his zeal and activity. He first appeared conspicuous as a soldier in the occupation of Columbus, Ky., late in 1861. He commanded a division at the battle of Shiloh (April, 1862), and was in the great battle at Stone's River at the close of that year, when he was lieutenant-general. He led a corps at the battle of Chickamauga (September, 1863). For disobedience of orders in this battle he was relieved of command and placed under arrest. In the winter and spring of 1864 he was in temporary charge of the Department of the Mississippi. With Johnston when opposing Sherman's march on Atlanta, he was killed by a cannon-shot, in June, 1864, on Pine Knob, not many miles from Marietta, Ga. Lieutenant-colonel Fremantle, of the British army, who became acquainted with Polk while in the military service, says he



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expressed the intention of resuming the prelatey at the close of the war. "He (Polk) is very rich," said Fremantle, "and, I am told, owns seven hundred negroes."

Polk's Cabinet Ministers. The Senate being in session at the time of his inauguration, President Polk sent in his nominations for cabinet-officers as follows: James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of State; Robert J. Walker, of Mississippi, Secretary of the Treasury; William L. Marcy, of New York, Secretary of War; George Bancroft, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy; Cave Johnson, of Tennessee, Postmaster-general; and John Y. Mason, of Virginia, Attorney-general. With these constitutional advisers President Polk entered upon his important duties at a critical period in the foreign relations of the United States.

Pomeroy, SETH, was a captain in the provincial army of Massachusetts in 1744, and was at the capture of Louisburg in 1745. In 1775 he took command of Colonel Williams's regiment, after his death, in the battle of Lake George.

(See *Crown Point Ex.*) In 1774-75 he was a delegate to the Provincial Congress, and was chosen a brigadier-general of militia in February, 1775, but fought as a private soldier at the battle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill. On his appointment as senior brigadier of the Continental army, some difficulty arose about rank, when he resigned and retired to his farm; but when, late in 1776, New Jersey was invaded by the British, he again took the field, and at the head of militia marched to the Hudson River, at Peekskill, where he died in February, 1777.

Ponce de Leon, JUAN, was the discoverer of Florida. He was a distinguished Spanish cavalier in the wars with the Moors in Granada. Accompanying Columbus on his second voyage, Ponce was made commander of a portion of Santo Domingo, and in 1509 he conquered and was made governor of Porto Rico, where he amassed a large fortune. There he was told of a Fountain of Youth—a fountain whose waters would restore youth to the aged. It was situated in one of the Bahama Islands, surrounded by magnificent trees, and the air was laden with the delicious perfumes of flowers; the trees bearing golden fruit that was plucked by beautiful maidens, who presented it to strangers. It was the old story of the Garden of the Hesperides, and inclination, prompted by his credulity, made Ponce go in search of the miraculous fountain, for his hair was white and his face was wrinkled with age. Ponce de Leon sailed north from Porto Rico in March, 1513, and searched for the wonderful spring among the Bahama Islands, drinking and bathing in the waters of every fountain that fell in his way. But he experienced no change, saw no magnificent trees with golden fruit plucked by beautiful maidens, and, disappointed but not disheartened, he sailed towards the northwest until westerly winds came laden with the perfumes of sweet flowers. Then he landed, and in the imperial magnolia-trees, laden with fragrant blossoms, he thought he beheld the introduction to the paradise he was seeking. It was on the morning of Easter Sunday when Ponce de Leon landed on the site of the present St. Augustine, in Florida, and he took possession of the country in the name of the Spanish monarch. Because of its wealth of flowers, or because of the holy day when he first saw the land (Pascua de Flores), he gave the name of Florida to the great island (as he supposed) he had discovered. There he sought the Fountain of Youth in vain. Sailing along the coast southward, he discovered and named the Tortugas (Turtle) islands. At another group he found a single inhabitant—a wrinkled old Indian woman—not one of the beautiful maidens he expected to find. Abandoning the search himself, but leaving one of his vessels to continue it, he returned to Porto Rico a wiser and an older man, but bearing the honor of discovering an important portion of the continent of America. In 1514 Ponce returned to Spain and received permission from Ferdinand to colonize the "Island of Florida," and was appointed its governor; but he did not proceed to take possession until 1521, having in the meantime con-

ducted an unsuccessful expedition against the Caribs. On going to Florida with two ships and many followers, he met the determined hostilities of the natives, and after a sharp conflict he was driven back to his ships mortally wounded, and died soon afterwards in Cuba. Upon his tomb was placed this inscription: "IN THIS SEPULCHRE REST THE BONES OF A MAN WHO WAS LEON BY NAME AND STILL MORE BY NATURE."

Pontiac, an Ottawa chief, was born on the Ottawa River in 1720; died in Illinois in 1769. He became an early ally of the French. With a body of Ottawas he defended the French trading-post of Detroit against more northerly tribes, and it is supposed he led the Ottawas who assisted the French in defeating Braddock on the Monongahela. (See *Braddock's Defeat*.) In 1760, after the conquest of Canada, Major Rogers was sent to take possession of the Western posts. Pontiac feigned friendship for the English for a while, but in 1763 he was the leader in a conspiracy of many tribes to drive the English from the Ohio country back beyond the Alleghany Mountains. (See *Pontiac's War*.) The tribes made peace, but Pontiac remained hostile and endeavored to stir up the Indians on the Miami and other portions of Ohio and Michigan, and, in vain, asked the co-operation of the French at New Orleans. His followers deserted him, and in 1766 he submitted to the English and made his abode with the Illinois. Near Cahokia, on the Mississippi, a Peoria Indian, bribed by an English trader with a barrel of rum, killed Pontiac. He was an able sachem and warrior, and, like King Philip, was doubtless moved by patriotic impulses; for the mighty flow of emigration over the mountains threatened his race with displacement if not with destruction.

Pontiac's War. After the capture of Fort Duquesne, settlers from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia went over the mountains into the Ohio region in large numbers. They were not kindly disposed towards the Indians, and French traders fanned the embers of hostility between the races. The Delawares and Shawnoese, who had lately emigrated from Pennsylvania, and were on the banks of the Muskingum, Scioto, and Miami, nursed hatred of the English and stirred up the Western tribes against the white people. Pontiac, a sagacious chief of the Ottawas, took the lead in a wide-spread conspiracy, and organized a confederacy for the purpose of driving the English back beyond the Alleghanies. The confederacy was composed of the Ottawas, Miamis, Wyandots, Delawares, Shawnoese, Ontagamies, Chippewas, Potawatomes, Mississagas, Foxes, and Winnebagoes. These had been allies of the French. The Senecas, the most westerly of the Six Nations, joined the confederacy, but the other tribes of the Iroquois confederacy were kept quiet by Sir William Johnson. It was arranged for a simultaneous attack to be made along the whole frontier of Pennsylvania and Virginia. The conspiracy was unsuspected until it was ripe and the first blow had been struck, in June, 1763. English traders scattered through the frontier regions were plundered

and slain. At almost the same instant they attacked all of the English outposts taken from the French, and made themselves masters of nine of them, massacring or dispersing the garrisons. Forts Pitt, Niagara, and Detroit were saved. Colonel Bouquet saved Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh); Niagara was not attacked, and Detroit, after a long siege by Pontiac in person, was relieved by Colonel Bradstreet in 1764. The Indians were speedily subdued, but Pontiac remained hostile until his death in 1769.

Pontiac's War, ORIGIN OF. The French had won the affection and respect of the Indian tribes with whom they came in contact, by their kindness, sociability, and religious influence; and when the English, formidable enemies of the red men, supplanted the French in the alleged possession of the vast domain acquired by the treaty of Paris (which see), expelled the Roman Catholic priests, and haughtily assumed to be absolute lords of the Indians' country, the latter were exasperated, and resolved to stand firmly in the way of English pretensions. "Since the French must go, no other nation should take their place." The conspiracy known as Pontiac's began with the lower nations. The Senecas, of the Six Nations, the Delawares and Shawnoese, had for some time urged the Northwestern Indians to take up arms against the English. They said: "The English mean to make slaves of us, by occupying so many posts in our country." The British had erected log forts here and there in the western wilderness. "We had better attempt something now to recover our liberty, than to wait till they are better established," said the nations, and their persuasions had begun to stir up the patriotism of the Northwestern barbarians, when an Abenake prophet from eastern New Jersey appeared among them. He was a chief, and had first satisfied his own people that the Great Spirit had given him wisdom to proclaim war against the new invaders. He said the great Manitou had appeared to him in a vision, saying, "I am the Lord of life; it is I who made all men; I wake for their safety. Therefore I give you warning, that if you suffer the Englishmen to dwell in your midst, their diseases and their poisons shall destroy you utterly, and you shall die." This chief preached a crusade against the English among the Western tribes, and so prepared the way for Pontiac to easily form his conspiracy. (See *Pontiac's War*.)

Poor, ENOCH, was born at Andover, Mass., in 1736; killed in a duel with a French officer near Hackensack, N. J., Sept. 8, 1780. He became a merchant in Exeter, N. H. After the affair at Lexington (April 19, 1775) he was appointed colonel by the Provincial Congress, and after the evacuation of Boston (which see) his regiment was ordered to join the troops in New York that invaded Canada. In February, 1777, he was appointed brigadier-general, and as such commanded troops in the campaign against Burgoyne, after whose surrender he joined the army under Washington in Pennsylvania. He was in the movements near Philadelphia late in the

year; spent the winter amid the snows of Valley Forge (1777-78), and in June, 1778, was engaged in the battle of Monmouth. He accompanied Sullivan on his expedition against the Indians in 1779 (which see). When the corps of light infantry was formed (August, 1780), Poor was placed in command of one of the two brigades. In announcing his death, Washington said he "was an officer of distinguished merit, who, as a citizen and a soldier, had every claim to the esteem of his country."

Poor Richard. A fictitious name assumed by Benjamin Franklin. In 1732 he began the publication in Philadelphia of an almanac, with the name of Richard Saunders as author. It continued twenty-five years. Sometimes the author called himself "Poor Richard," and the publication was generally known as *Poor Richard's Almanac*. It was distinguished for its numerous maxims on temperance, frugality, order, justice, cleanliness, chastity, and the like. It has been said that its precepts are "as valuable as any that have descended from Pythagoras."

Pope, JOHN, was born in Kentucky, March 16, 1823, and graduated at West Point in 1842, entering the corps of topographical engineers. He served under General Taylor in the war against Mexico. In 1849-50 he conducted explorations in Minnesota, and from 1854 to 1859 he was exploring the Rocky Mountains. In 1856 he was made captain, and in 1860, in an address at Cincinnati on "Fortifications," he boldly denounced the policy of President Buchanan, for which offence he was court-martialled, but the matter was dropped. Captain Pope was one of the officers who escorted Mr. Lincoln to Washington (February, 1861), and in May was made brigadier-general of volunteers and appointed to a command in Missouri, where he operated successfully until the capture of Island No. Ten (which see) in 1862. In March, 1862, he became major-general of volunteers, and, in April, he took command of a grand division of Halleck's army. Late in June he was summoned to Washington to take command of the Army of Virginia, where, for fifteen days from Aug. 18, he fought the Confederate army under Lee continuously; but finally, for want of adequate support, was compelled to take refuge behind the defences of Washington. At his own request, he was relieved of the command of the Army of Virginia and assigned to that of the Northwest. In March, 1865, he was brev. maj.-general. He became major-general in 1882, retired from the army in 1886, and died in 1892.

Pope's Gift, THE. On the return of Columbus from his first voyage of discovery (see *Columbus, Christopher*), the Portuguese, who had previously explored the Azores and other Atlantic islands, instantly claimed a title to the newly discovered lands, to the exclusion of the Spaniards. Simultaneous with the order given to Columbus at Barcelona to return to Hispaniola (see *Santo Domingo*) an ambassador was sent to Rome to obtain the pope's sanction of their claims to the region discovered, and to make a conquest of the West Indies. The reigning pope

(see *Alexander VI., Pope*), who was a native of Spain, readily assented to the proposal, and, on the 3d of May, 1493, he issued a bull, in which the lofty pretensions of the Bishop of Rome to be the sole arbiter of the world were fully set forth, and a grant given to Ferdinand and Isabella of all the countries inhabited by "infidels" which they had discovered or should discover, extending the assignment to their heirs and successors, the kings and queens of Castile and Leon. (See *Ojeda, Alonzo de.*) To prevent the interference of this grant with one previously given to the Portuguese, he directed that a line, supposed to be drawn from pole to pole, at the distance of one hundred leagues westward of the Azores, should serve as a boundary. All the countries to the east of this imaginary line, not in possession of a Christian prince, he gave to the Portuguese, and all westward of it to the Spaniards. On account of the dissatisfaction with the pope's partition, the line was fixed two hundred and seventy leagues farther west. Other nations of Europe subsequently paid no attention to the pope's gifts to Spain and Portugal, but planted colonies on the Western Continent without the leave of the sovereigns of Spain or the pope. A little more than a century afterwards the English Parliament insisted that occupancy confers a good title, by the law of nations and nature. This remains a law of nations. Portugal soon disregarded the pope's donation to Spain, and sent an expedition to North America in 1500. (See *Cortereal, Gaspar.*)

Popham Colony. Sir John Popham, chief justice, and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, inspired by information given of New England by Indians carried to Old England by Weymouth (which see), sent out a colony of one hundred and twenty persons, in May, 1607, of whom Richard Seymour was chaplain. Among the colonists were mechanics and farmers and a good ship-builder. One of the Indians kidnapped by Weymouth came with the colonists as guide and interpreter. They landed on the shores of the Sagadahock River, in the middle of August, and there they built a fort and a vessel of thirty tons called the *Virginia*. The rigors of the winter discouraged the colonists, and before it was over about two thirds of them returned to England in the *Virginia*. The neighboring Indians became hostile. Popham (the commander), made governor of the colony, died. Then came news of the death of Chief-justice Popham. These various misfortunes caused the remainder of the colonists (forty-five in number) to abandon New England and return home in the spring.

Popham, GEORGE, president of the first company of settlers in New England, sailed from Plymouth, Eng., May 31, 1607, with two ships and one hundred men. Popham commanded one of the vessels and Raleigh Gilbert the other. The expedition was a failure. Popham died Feb. 5, 1608. (See *New England.*)—His brother, **SIR JOHN**, who was Lord Chief-justice of the King's Bench, and an earnest promoter of settlements in America, was born in Somersetshire, Eng., in 1531, and

died in June, 1607. He became chief-justice in 1592.

Population of the Colonies at the Beginning of the French and Indian War (which see). There was no exact enumeration of the inhabitants at that time (1754), the period when the American people "set up for themselves" in political and social life; but from a careful examination of official records, Mr. Bancroft estimates the number as follows:

COLONIES.	White.	Colored.
Massachusetts.....	207,000	3,000
New Hampshire.....	50,000	
Connecticut.....	133,000	3,500
Rhode Island.....	35,000	4,500
New York.....	85,000	11,000
New Jersey.....	73,000	5,000
Pennsylvania and Delaware.....	195,000	11,000
Maryland.....	104,000	44,000
Virginia.....	168,000	116,000
North Carolina.....	70,000	20,000
South Carolina.....	40,000	40,000
Georgia.....	5,000	2,000
Total.....	1,165,000	260,000

The population of the English-American colonies in the year 1700 was estimated at 262,000.

Porcupine's Gazette. William Cobbett, a British soldier, emigrated to America in 1792. He was a vigorous but often coarse writer, independent and fearless in spirit, familiar with the French language, a complete master of the English tongue, and possessed of very ardent feelings. Then only thirty years of age, he began the publication of political pamphlets in 1794. His hatred of the French and loyalty to England caused him to write a bitter satirical one on Dr. Joseph Priestley's emigration to and reception in New York and Philadelphia. The pamphlet was so favorably received by the Federalists that it was followed up by several others, principally relating to Jay's treaty, and published over the name of "Peter Porcupine." He was so successful that he set up a shop in Philadelphia for the publication and sale of his own writings, and, simultaneous with the beginning of Adams's administration (1797), he began the publication of a small daily paper called *Porcupine's Gazette*. It was a formidable and dreaded adversary of the "French" (or Republican) party; and the *Gazette* fought the *Aurora* with the keen and effective weapons of scathing satire. But he did not spare the other side, and often came into sharp collision with the *Minerva*, the leading Federalist paper of New York, edited by Noah Webster, afterwards the lexicographer. Cobbett assailed leading citizens in his *Gazette*, and was prosecuted for libels. He was fined \$5000 for a libel on Dr. Rush, and this caused the death of the *Gazette*.

Porey, JOHN, was an English traveller and author, and a protégé of Hakluyt, but his reputation was clouded by intemperate habits. Educated at Cambridge, he travelled much, and made intelligent observations. While in Italy, in 1613, he was imprisoned for debt, from which he was released by Sir Dudley Carleton, who wrote to a friend: "I fear he has fallen too much in love with the pot to be much esteemed." At about the same time another wrote of

Porey: "He must have both meat and money; for drink he will find out himself, if it be above ground, or no deeper than the cellar." Porey was made Secretary of the Virginia Colony in 1619, but, on account of his exactions, was recalled in 1622. Early in that year he, with some friends, penetrated the country southward beyond the Roanoke River, with a view to making a settlement. (See *North Carolina, Colony of*.) On his arrival in London, Porey joined the disaffected members of the London Company, which so excited the mind of the king against the corporation that, in 1624, he deprived them of their charter. He had been sent early in that year as one of the commissioners to inquire into the state of the Virginia colony, and while there he bribed the Clerk of the Council to give him a copy of their proceedings, for which offence the poor scribe was made to stand in the pillory and lose one of his ears.

Port Gibson, BATTLE AT (1863). Grant crossed the Mississippi at Bruinsburg on the gunboats and transports which had run by Grand Gulf (which see). His troops consisted chiefly of General McClelland's Thirteenth Army Corps. These troops pushed forward and were met (May 1, 1863), eight miles from Bruinsburg, by a Confederate force, which was pushed back to a point four miles from Port Gibson. There McClelland was confronted by a strong force from Vicksburg, under General Bowen, advantageously posted. The Nationals were divided for the occasion. On McClelland's right were the divisions of Generals Hovey, Carr, and Smith, and on his left that of Osterhaus. The former pressed the Confederates steadily back to Port Gibson. The troops of Osterhaus were reinforced by a brigade of General Logan's division of the advance of McPherson's corps, and others were sent to help McClelland. Late in the afternoon the Confederates were repulsed and pursued to Port Gibson. Night ended the conflict, and under its cover the Confederates fled across a bayou, burning the bridges behind them, and retreated towards Vicksburg. The Nationals lost in this battle 840 men, of whom 130 were killed. They captured guns and flags and 580 prisoners.

Port Hudson, SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF. Port Hudson, or Hickey's Landing, was on a high bluff on the left bank of the Mississippi, in Louisiana, at a very sharp bend in the stream. At the foot of the bluff was Hickey's Landing. The Confederates had erected a series of batteries, extending along the river from Port Hudson to Thompson's Creek above, a distance of about three miles. They were armed with very heavy guns. There were field batteries that might be moved to any part of the line. Immediately after Banks took command of the Department of the Gulf (Dec. 18, 1862), he determined to attempt to remove this serious obstruction to the navigation of the Mississippi at Port Hudson. He sent General Grover with 10,000 men to occupy Baton Rouge, but the advance on Port Hudson was delayed, because it would require a larger force than Banks could then spare. So

he operated for a while among the rich sugar and cotton regions of Louisiana, west of the river. In March, 1863, he concentrated his forces—nearly 25,000 strong—at Baton Rouge. At the same time Commodore Farragut had gathered a small fleet at a point below Port Hudson, with a determination to run by the batteries there and recover the control of the river between that place and Vicksburg. To make this movement, Banks sent towards Port Hudson (March 13) 12,000 men, who drove in the pickets, while two gunboats and some mortar-boats bombarded the works. That night Farragut attempted to pass, but failed, and Banks returned to Baton Rouge. After more operations in Louisiana, Banks returned to the Mississippi and began the investment of Port Hudson, May 24, 1863. His troops were commanded by Generals Weitzel, Auger, Grover, Dwight, and T. W. Sherman, and the beleaguered garrison was under the command of General Frank K. Gardner. On his march from Baton Rouge to Port Hudson, Auger had encountered and repulsed a Confederate force, which lost 150 of its men. Farragut, with his flag-ship (*Hartford*) and one or two other vessels, was now above Port Hudson, holding the river, while four other gunboats and some mortar-boats, under Commander C. H. B. Caldwell, held it below. On the morning of May 27 Banks opened his cannons on the works in connection with those on the water, preparatory to a general assault. The attack was made at ten o'clock by a portion of the troops, but others did not come up in time to make the assault general. A very severe battle was fought, the Nationals making desperate charges, from time to time, and gaining ground continually. In this contest was the first fair trial of the mettle of negro troops. The Confederates had been driven to their fortifications, and, at sunset, they were all behind their works. Close up to them the Nationals pressed, and they and their antagonists held opposite sides of the parapet. This position the Nationals on the right continued to hold, but those on the left, exposed to a flank fire, withdrew to a belt of woods not far off. So ended the first general assault on Port Hudson, in which the Nationals lost 1842 men, of whom 293 were killed. The Confederate loss did not exceed 300 in killed and wounded. Banks, undismayed by this disastrous failure, continued the siege. His great guns and those of Farragut hurled destructive missiles upon the works daily, wearing out the garrison by excessive watching and fatigue. Their provisions and medical stores were failing, and famine threatened the brave defenders of the post. It was closely hemmed in, and so, also, was the besieging force of about 12,000 men by a hostile population and concentrating Confederate cavalry in its rear, while General Richard Taylor was gathering a new army in Louisiana, west of the river. A speedy reduction of the fort had become a necessity for Banks, and on June 11 another attempt was made, and failed. This was followed by an attempt to take the fort by storm on the 14th. At that time the Nationals lay mostly in two lines, forming a right an-

gle, with a right and left but no centre. When a final disposition for assault was made, General Gardner was entreated to surrender and stop the effusion of blood, but he refused, hoping, as did Pemberton, at Vicksburg, that Johnston would come to his relief. The grand assault began at dawn (June 14) by Generals Grover, Weitzel, Anger, and Dwight. A desperate battle ensued, and the Nationals were repulsed at all points, losing about 700 men. Again the siege went on as usual. The fortitude of the half-starved garrison, daily enduring the affliction of missiles from the land and water, was wonderful. Gun after gun on the Confederate works was disabled, until only fifteen remained on the land side; and only twenty rounds of ammunition for small-arms were left. Famine was about to do what the National arms could not effect—compel a surrender—when the garrison was startled (July 7) by the thunder of cannons along the whole line of their assailants, and shouts from the pickets, "Vicksburg is taken!" That night Gardner sent a note to Banks, asking if the report were true, and if so, requesting a cessation of hostilities. The surrender of the post and all its men and property was completed on July 9, when 6408 men, including 455 officers, were made prisoners of war. The little hamlet of Port Hudson was in ruins. The loss of Banks during the siege of forty-five days was about 3000 men, and that of Gardner, exclusive of prisoners, about 800. The spoils of victory were the important post, 2 steamers, 51 pieces of artillery, 5000 small-arms, and a large amount of fixed ammunition. Banks reported that his winnings in Louisiana up to that time were the partial repossession of large areas of territory, 10,584 prisoners, 73 great guns, 6000 small-arms, 3 gunboats, 8 transports, and a large amount of cotton and cattle. This conquest gave the final blow to the obstruction of the navigation of the Mississippi River. On July 16, 1863, the steamer *Imperial*, from St. Louis, arrived at New Orleans, the first communication of the kind between the two cities in two years. Then the waters of the Mississippi, as President Lincoln said, "went unvexed to the sea." Powerful portions of the Confederacy were thus severed.

Port of Boston, CLOSING OF THE. The Boston Port Bill (which see) went into operation on June 1, 1774. General Gage, who had succeeded Hutchinson as Governor of Massachusetts, went to Boston (May 13) to execute the measure, and was received with much respect by an immense crowd that met him at the wharf. The same evening Hutchinson was burned in effigy on the Common. The people met in Faneuil Hall. Samuel Adams presided. They voted that it was their opinion that "if the other colonies come into a joint resolution to stop all importation from, and exportation to, Great Britain and every part of the West Indies till the act be repealed, the same will prove the salvation of North America and her liberties; and that the impolicy, injustice, inhumanity, and cruelty of the act exceed all our powers of expression. We, therefore, leave it to the just

censure of others, and appeal to God and the world." Paul Revere, an active patriot of Boston, was sent to New York and Philadelphia to invoke sympathy and co-operation. Gage proceeded, under instructions, to transfer the government to Salem. The last session of the Assembly held in Boston was on May 31, 1774. It was adjourned to the 7th of June, at Salem, and the port of Boston was closed, by proclamation, at noon on June 1. No vessels were allowed to enter, and none to depart, after the 14th. Two regiments of soldiers arrived at the same time, and soon afterwards several others came from Halifax, making Boston an immense garrison. All business was utterly prostrated. The rich, deprived of their rents, became poor; and the poor, deprived of the privilege of labor, were reduced to beggary. But the fortitude of all classes was remarkable. In every part of the colonies the warmest sympathies for them were excited, and from various points, even so far south as Georgia, substantial aid was sent to the sufferers. The city of London, in its corporate capacity, subscribed \$150,000 for the relief of the poor of Boston. The people of Marblehead and Salem offered the Boston merchants the free use of their wharves and stores, for they scorned to enrich themselves at the expense of their oppressed neighbors. This cruel act hastened the impending war for independence. It was denounced from the pulpit and forum, and newspapers placed at their heads a device employed during the Stamp Act excitement—a serpent cut into ten pieces, with the inscription "JOIN OR DIE!"

Port Republic, BATTLE AT (1862). Before the battle at Cross Keys (which see), "Stonewall" Jackson had crossed the Shenandoah River, and was encamped at Port Republic. The vanguard of Shields's force, under General Carroll—less than 1000 infantry, 150 cavalry, and a battery of six guns—had arrived there almost simultaneously with Jackson. With his cavalry and five pieces of artillery, Carroll dashed into the village, drove Jackson's cavalry out of it, and took possession of the bridge that spanned the river. Had he burned that structure, he might have ruined Jackson, for he would have cut him off from Ewell at Cross Keys. But he waited for his infantry to come up, and was attacked by a superior force and driven to a point two miles from the town, where he was afterwards joined by General E. B. Tyler and his brigade, 2000 strong, Tyler taking command. Meanwhile, Ewell had escaped from Frémont, crossed the bridge, and reinforced Jackson. A flanking movement was now begun by the Confederates, which Tyler resisted with his whole force, about 3000 in number. With these he drove 8000 Confederates into the woods. At the same time an augmented force attacked Tyler's right, and a severe battle ensued. General Dick Taylor's Louisiana brigade made a sudden dash through the woods and captured a National battery, when Colonel Candy, with Ohio troops, made a countercharge and recaptured it, with one of the guns of the Confederates. The artillery—horses having been killed, he could not

carry off the battery; but he took back with him sixty-seven Confederates. So overwhelming was Jackson's force that Tyler was compelled to retreat, and was pursued about five miles, covered by Carroll's cavalry. The battle was disastrous to the Nationals, but it was recognized by both sides as one of the most brilliant of the war. In the engagement and retreat the Confederates captured 450 prisoners and 800 muskets. The National army now fell back to Harrisonburg (June 9), when Frémont went on to Mount Jackson, and Shields to Newmarket.

Port Royal Ferry, BATTLE AT (1862). After an expedition from Hampton Roads, under Admiral Dupont and General T. W. Sherman, had taken possession of Port Royal Sound (which see) and the neighboring islands (Nov. 7, 1861), the only stand made by the Confederates in defence of the South Carolina coast islands was at Port Royal Ferry, on the Coosa, at the close of the year. General R. S. Ripley, of the United States Army, who had joined the Confederates, was in command of that sea-coast district, and had established a fortified post at the ferry. When the Nationals landed at Beaufort it had a garrison estimated to be eight thousand strong, under Generals Gregg and Pope. The Nationals proceeded to expel them. For this purpose a joint land and naval force, the former commanded by Brigadier-general Stevens, and the latter by Commodore C. R. P. Rogers, proceeded to attack them. Stevens had about four thousand troops—of New York, Pennsylvania, and Michigan; and the naval force consisted of four gunboats, an armed ferry-boat, and four large row-boats, each carrying a 12-pounder howitzer. The expedition moved on the evening of Dec. 31. The land and naval forces were joined three miles below the ferry on the morning of June 1, 1862, and pressed forward to the attack. The first onset was sharp and quick. A concealed battery near the ferry that was opened upon the Nationals was soon silenced by a close encounter, in which the Eighth Michigan bore the brunt. But very little fighting occurred afterwards. The Confederates, seeing the gunboats coming forward, abandoned their works and fled, and the Pennsylvania "Round-heads" passed over the ferry and occupied them. The works were demolished, and the houses in the vicinity were burned. Stevens had nine men wounded, one mortally.

Port Royal Island, BRITISH ATTEMPT TO TAKE (1779). When Prevost joined Campbell at Savannah (see *Sunbury*) the British commanders determined to extend a part of their forces into South Carolina. Major Gardiner was detached, with two hundred men, to take possession of Port Royal Island; but soon after he landed, General Moultrie, with the same number of men (only nine of whom were regulars), attacked and drove him off the island. Two field-pieces, well served by some militia under Captains Heyward and Rutledge, were principally gainers of this advantage. A small body of horsemen, under Captain John Barn-

well, who gained the rear of the British, were also efficient in contributing to the result.

Port Royal Island, SETTLEMENT UPON. In 1682 Lord Cardross (afterwards Earl of Buchan), a Scotch nobleman, led a colony from his native land, where the Presbyterians were persecuted. Some of their agents went to England to treat with the proprietaries of Carolina for a lodgment there. It is believed that one of these agents was Lord Cardross, and that his colony were Presbyterians, who preferred exile in peace to their native land, where they were continually harassed. When Cardross arrived there were instant premonitions of trouble. In pursuance of some agreement or understanding with the proprietaries, Lord Cardross claimed for himself and associates co-ordinate authority with the governor and grand council at Charleston. This claim the provincial government disallowed, and the colony at Port Royal was compelled to acknowledge submission. Soon afterwards Lord Cardross returned home. Some time afterwards his colonists were dislodged by the Spaniards at St. Augustine (1686), who accused them of inciting the Indians to invade their territory.

Port Royal Sound, EXPEDITION TO. On the morning of Oct. 29, 1861, a land and naval armament left Hampton Roads for a destination known only to the officers. It was composed of fifty ships of war and transports, commanded by Admiral S. F. Dupont, and fifteen thousand troops under General T. W. Sherman. Dupont's flag-ship *Wabash* led the way out to sea, and each ship sailed under sealed orders, to be opened in case of the dispersion of the fleet. Off Cape Hatteras the fleet was so terribly smitten by a tempest that very soon only one vessel could be seen from the deck of the flag-ship. The sealed orders were opened, and each commander was ordered to rendezvous at Port Royal Sound, on the coast of South Carolina. There all but four transports that were lost were gathered on the evening of Nov. 4. No human life on the perished transports had been lost. The entrance to the sound is between Hilton Head and Phillip's Island, and was guarded by the Confederates with a strong battery on each side—Forts Walker and Beauregard. Within the sound was a small Confederate flotilla, commanded by the veteran Commodore Tatnall, of the United States Navy, who had joined the enemies of his government. It was called the "Mosquito Fleet." The guns of the guarding forts were silenced, and on the morning of Nov. 7 Dupont's fleet passed into the sound and drove Tatnall's fleet into shallow water. The National forces took possession of Port Royal Island and the neighboring ones, and found them deserted by the planters and their families. Most of the slaves remained. They refused to follow their masters, for they had a mysterious faith and belief that the people of the North in the ships were their friends. Groups of them actually stood upon the shore, with little bundles containing all their worldly possessions, ready to go on board the ships of the invaders, who, they had been told, were coming to steal or sell

the negroes in Cuba, or to kill and bury them in the sound. In the conflict with the forts at the entrance of the sound Dupont had lost eight killed and twenty-three wounded. The Confederate officers reported their loss in both forts (Walker and Beauregard) at ten killed and forty wounded. Troops having taken possession of Hilton Head also, General Sherman went vigorously to work to strengthen the position. The Nationals held the islands and controlled Port Royal Sound until the end of the war.

Port Royal (N. S.) Taken (1690). The Indians having taken the fort at Pemaquid (which see), and French privateers from Acadia infesting the coasts of New England, the General Court of Massachusetts determined to seize Port Royal. A fleet of eight small vessels, bearing about eight hundred men, under the command of Sir William Phipps, sailed for that purpose on April 28, 1690. The weak fort at Port Royal was surrendered without resistance, and the whole sea-coast from that town to the north-east settlements was taken possession of by Sir William.

Porter and Smyth, GENERALS. (See *Smyth and Porter*.)

Porter, ANDREW, was born in Montgomery County, Penn., Sept. 24, 1743, died at Harrisburg, Pa., Nov. 16, 1813. In 1776 he was made captain of marines and ordered on board the frigate *Effingham*, but was soon transferred to the artillery service. He served with great distinction, and at the end of the war was colonel of the Pennsylvania artillery. In the battle of Germantown nearly all his company were killed or made prisoners. He was with Sullivan in his expedition in 1779, when he rendered important service by the exercise of his scientific knowledge. In 1784 he was a commissioner to run the state boundary-lines, and in 1800 was made major-general of the state militia. He was appointed Surveyor-general of Pennsylvania in 1809, and on account of his age and infirmities he declined a seat in Madison's cabinet as Secretary of War.

Porter, COMMODORE, IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN. The cruise of Commodore Porter, in the *Essex*, on the broad Pacific Ocean was one of the most remarkable recorded in history. He had swept around the southern cape of South America, and up its western coast, and on March 14, 1813, after being enveloped in thick fogs several days, he saw the city and harbor of Valparaiso, the chief seaport town of Chili. There he learned, for the first time, that Chili had become an independent state, and that the Spanish Viceroy of Peru had sent out cruisers against the American vessels in that region. Porter's appearance with a strong frigate was very opportune, for American commerce then lay at the mercy of English whale-ships armed as privateers and of Peruvian corsairs. The *Essex* was cordially welcomed by the Chilian authorities. She put to sea on the 25th. She pressed up the coast, and soon overhauled a Peruvian corsair which had captured two American vessels. He took from her all the captured Americans, cast her

armament overboard, and sent her into Callao, with a letter to the viceroy, in which he denounced the piratical conduct of her commander. Recapturing one of the American vessels, Porter sailed for the Galapagos Islands, the resort of English whalers. There were over twenty of them in that region, most of them armed, and bearing letters-of-marque. Porter cruised eagerly among the Galapagos Islands for nearly a fortnight without meeting a vessel. On the 29th of April he discovered two or three English whale-ships. He first captured the *Montezuma*. He had made a flotilla of small boats, which he placed under the command of Lieutenant Downes. These pushed forward and captured the *Georgiana* and *Policy*. From these Porter procured ample supplies of provisions and naval stores. With the guns of the *Policy* added to those of the *Georgiana*, the latter, fitted up as a cruiser, became a worthy consort of the *Essex*. Her armament now consisted of sixteen guns, and she was placed under the command of Lieutenant Downes. Other English vessels were soon captured and fitted up as cruisers; and at the end of eight months after he sailed from the Delaware in the solitary *Essex*, Porter found himself in command of a squadron of nine armed vessels, prepared for formidable naval warfare. In July he captured the *Seringapatam*, an English vessel built for a cruiser for Sultan Tippoo Sahib. She was the most formidable enemy of American ships on the Pacific. He now admitted a large number of his crowd of prisoners to their parole, and sent them to Rio Janeiro. With his squadron, Porter sailed for the Marquesas Islands, capturing other English vessels on the way, and late in October he anchored in the bay of Nooaheevah with his prizes. The *Essex* was the first vessel that carried the American pennant to these far-distant seas. She was more than ten thousand miles from home, with no friendly port to steer to. She had swept the Pacific of her enemies, and now lay, surrounded by her trophies, in the quiet waters of an almost unfrequented island on the mighty ocean. The *Essex* had just cast anchor, when a canoe shot out from the shore containing three white men—one an Englishman who had been there twenty years. The other two were Americans—one of them Midshipman John Maury, of the United States Navy. They informed Porter that a war was raging on the island between native tribes, and that, in order to obtain supplies, he would have to take part with the Taaehs, who dwelt in the valley that opened out upon the bay. Porter sent a message to the enemies of the Taaehs that he had a force sufficient to subdue the whole island, and that if they ventured into the valley of the Taaehs while he remained he would punish them severely. He gave them permission to bring hogs and fruit to the ship to sell, and promised them protection while trafficking. In an interview with the King of the Taaehs, Porter agreed to assist him in his wars. With muskets and a cannon, Porter's men drove the enemies of the king from hill to hill, until they made a stand, four thousand strong, and sent stones and jave-

lins against their assailants. The hostile tribes soon sued for peace, and on the 19th of November, 1813, Porter took possession of the island in the name of the United States. One tribe had remained hostile. These Porter subdued. On Dec. 12 he started for home in the *Essex*, taking with him the three white men. They reached Valparaiso Feb. 3, 1814. In that harbor the *Essex* was captured by the British ship *Phæbe*, and the great conqueror on the Pacific Ocean became a prisoner. (See *Essex*, *Cruise of the*.)

Porter, DAVID, commodore, was born in Boston, Feb. 1, 1780; died at Pera, near Constantinople, March 3, 1843. He was appointed a midshipman April 16, 1798, and, passing through the next grades, was commissioned a captain July 2, 1812. Porter, as lieutenant on board the frigate *Constellation*, fought *L'Insurgente* in February, 1799, and was promoted soon afterwards. He was wounded in an engagement with a pirate (January, 1800) off Santo Domingo, and was first-lieutenant of the *Enterprise*, which captured a Tripolitan corsair. He afterwards commanded an expedition that destroyed some feluccas, laden with wheat, under the batteries at Tripoli, where he was wounded. In October, 1803, he was captured in the *Philadelphia* when she grounded in the harbor of Tripoli, and was a prisoner and slave for eighteen months. In 1806, in command of the *Enterprise*, he fought and severely handled twelve Spanish gunboats near Gibraltar. In 1812 he was commissioned captain and placed in command of the *Essex*, in which he made a long and successful cruise in the Pacific Ocean,



DAVID PORTER.

but finally lost his vessel in an engagement near Valparaiso, S. A. He was one of the Naval Commissioners from 1815 to 1823, and in the latter year he made a successful cruise against pirates

in the Gulf of Mexico. In consequence of some irregularity, he was suspended from command for six months; and in 1826 he resigned, and entered the Mexican navy as its commander-in-chief. He was appointed United States Consul at Algiers in 1829; and when that country fell into the hands of the French he was made *charge d'affaires* at Constantinople, where he afterwards, as American minister, negotiated several important treaties. He was minister there at the time of his death.

Porter, DAVID D., admiral, was born in Philadelphia in June, 1813, and entered the United States Navy as midshipman Feb. 2, 1829. He was attached to the Coast Survey (which see) from 1836 to 1840. Then he cruised in Brazilian



DAVID D. PORTER.

waters, and served in the Naval Observatory at Washington for a while. He engaged in the war against Mexico on land and on water, and in 1861 joined the Gulf squadron, in command of the *Powhatan*. He was in the expedition up the Mississippi against New Orleans in 1862, in command of twenty-one mortar-boats and several steamers. Porter did important service on the Mississippi and Red rivers in 1863-64, and was conspicuous in the siege of Vicksburg (which see). For the latter service he was made rear-admiral July 4, 1863. In 1864 he was in command of the North Atlantic blockading squadron, and rendered efficient service in the capture of Fort Fisher in January, 1865. He was made vice-admiral in July, 1866, and admiral Oct. 17, 1870. He was Superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis from 1866 to 1870. Died Feb. 13, 1891.

Porter, FITZ-JOHN, was born at Portsmouth, N. H., in 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1845, entering the artillery corps. He was adjutant of that post in 1853-54, and assistant instructor of cavalry and artillery in 1854-55. In 1856 he was made assistant adjutant-general. In May, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers and chief-of-staff to Generals Patterson and Banks until August, when he was assigned to the Army of the Potomac, in command of a division. In May, 1862, he took command

of the Fifth Army Corps; directed the siege of Yorktown, Va., and was one of McClellan's most efficient commanders during the Peninsular campaign ending with the battle of Malvern Hills (which see). For services in that campaign he was promoted to major-general of volunteers. Temporarily attached to the Army of Virginia (Pope's), and formal charges having been made against him, he was deprived of his command. At the request of General McClellan, he was restored, and accompanied that general in the campaign in Maryland. In November he was ordered to Washington for trial by court-martial, on charges preferred by General Pope, and on Jan. 21, 1863, he was cashiered for violation of the ninth and fifty-second Articles of War. In 1870 he appealed to the President for a reversal of this sentence, and in 1878 a commission of inquiry was instituted to determine whether there was new evidence in his favor sufficient to war-

ry, and received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. President Madison offered him the position of commander-in-chief of the army in



FITZ JOHN PORTER



PETER BUEL PORTER

1815, which he declined. He was Secretary of State of New York (1815-16), and was Secretary of War, under President J. Q. Adams, in 1828. General Porter was one of the early projectors of the Erie Canal, and one of the first Board of Commissioners.

Porter, WILLIAM DAVID, was born in New Orleans, in 1810; died in New York city, May 1, 1864. He was a brother of Admiral Porter. He entered the navy in 1823. In the sloop-of-war *St. Mary*, on the Pacific station, when the Civil War broke out, he was wrongly suspected of disloyalty. He was ordered to duty on the Mississippi River, in fitting out a gunboat fleet, and was put in command of the *Essex*, which took part in the attacks on Forts Henry and Donelson, when Porter was severely scalded. He fought his way past all the batteries between Cairo and New Orleans, taking part in the attack on Vicksburg. He caused the destruction of the Confederate "ram" *Arkansas*, near Baton Rouge, and assisted in the attack on Port Hudson. For these services he was made commodore in July, 1862. His feeble health prevented his doing much afterwards.

Portrait-painter, FIRST, IN AMERICA. Among the persons who accompanied Dean Berkeley to Rhode Island was John Smybert, born at Edinburgh, about 1684. He served his time with a common house-painter. Aspiring to something higher in art, he went to London, where he subsisted by coach-painting while studying the best works he could find. He obtained admittance into an academy of fine arts there. He finally went to Italy, where he spent three years, copying from the best pictures of the masters. He returned, prosecuted portrait-painting, and, by invitation of Dean Berkeley, embarked in

rant ordering a new trial. He was finally in 1886 restored to his rank of colonel and retired.

Porter, MOSES, was born at Danvers, Mass., in 1755; died at Cambridge, April 14, 1822. He was in the battle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, and many of the prominent battles of the Revolution, and was one of the few old officers selected for the first Peace Establishment (which see). In 1791 he was promoted to captain, and served under Wayne in 1794. In March, 1812, he was colonel of light artillery, and was distinguished at the capture of Fort George (which see), in May, 1813. He accompanied Wilkinson's army on the St. Lawrence, and in the autumn of 1814 he was breveted brigadier-general, and ordered to the defence of Norfolk, Va.

Porter, PETER BUEL, was born at Salisbury, Conn., Aug. 14, 1773; died at Niagara Falls, March 20, 1844. He studied law, and began its practice at Canandaigua, N. Y., in 1795. Porter was a member of Congress from 1809 to 1813, and again in 1815-16. He settled at Black Rock, near Buffalo, where he and his brothers made large purchases of land along the Niagara River. A leader of volunteers on the Niagara frontier, he became distinguished for his skill and brave-

his scheme for establishing a college in the Bermudas, which was to be one of universal science and art. He accompanied Berkeley to Newport, and remained there during the two years and a half that the dean lived there, and on the departure of the latter for England, Smybert went to Boston, where he married a New England woman with a considerable fortune, and succeeded in his art. He died in 1751, leaving a widow and two children. Smybert introduced portrait-painting into America. He was not an artist of the first rank, for the arts were then at a low ebb in England; but the best portraits that we have of the eminent magistrates and divines in New England and New York, who lived between 1725 and 1751, are from his pencil. While with Berkeley at Newport he painted a group of portraits, including the dean and a part of his family, in which the figure of the artist appears. The picture belongs to Yale College.

Portsmouth, N. H., was founded at Strawberry Bank, at the mouth of the Piscataqua River, by Mason, who tried to be "lord of the manor;" but his people were too independent to allow special privileges to any one. An Episcopalian named Gibson was the first minister at Portsmouth, for whom a chapel was built in 1638. He was dismissed by the General Court of Massachusetts, which claimed jurisdiction over that region, and a Puritan minister—James Parker—was put in his place.

Posey, THOMAS, was born in Virginia, July 9, 1750; died at Shawneetown, Ill., March 19, 1818. At the age of nineteen he removed to western Virginia, and was quartermaster to Lewis's division in Dunmore's army in 1774. He raised a company in Virginia, and assisted in the defeat of Dunmore at Gwyn's Island. He joined Washington, in New Jersey, early in 1777; was transferred to Morgan's rifle regiment, and with them did valuable service on Bemis's Heights and at Saratoga. He commanded the regiment in the spring of 1778, and was finally placed in command of a battalion of Febiger's regiment, under Wayne, participating in the capture of Stony Point in July, 1779, where he was one of the first to enter the works. Colonel Posey was at the surrender of Yorktown, and was afterwards with Wayne until the evacuation of Savannah, in 1782. In February, 1793, he was made brigadier-general; settled in Kentucky; became State Senator; was lieutenant-governor four years; in 1809 was major-general of Kentucky levies, and in 1812-13 was United States Senator. He succeeded Harrison as Governor of Indiana Territory in March, 1813, and in 1816 was made Agent for Indian Affairs, which post he held at the time of his death.

Position of Virginia (1861). The politicians who controlled Virginia early in 1861 assumed an arrogant tone towards all sections of the Union, especially towards the North. An epigrammatist of the day (in the *New York Commercial Advertiser*, March 1, 1861) defined Virginia's position by making her say to the North:

"First.—Move not a finger; 'tis coercion—
The signal for our prompt dispersion.

"Second.—Wait till I speak my full decision,
Be it for union or division.

"Third.—If I declare my ultimatum,
Accept my terms as I shall state 'em.

"Fourth.—Then I'll remain while I'm inclined to,
Seceding when I have a mind to."

Postal Service in the Colonies. The first Parliamentary act for the establishment of a post-office in the English-American colonies was passed in April, 1692, and a royal patent was granted to Thomas Neale for the purpose. He was to transport letters and packets "at such rates as the planters should agree to give." Rates of postage were accordingly fixed and authorized, and measures were taken to establish a post-office in each town in Virginia, when Neale began his operations. Massachusetts and other colonies soon passed postal-laws, and a very imperfect post-office system was established. Neale's patent expired in 1710, when Parliament extended the English postal system to the colonies. The chief office was established in New York, to which letters were conveyed by regular packets across the Atlantic. A line of post-offices was soon after established on Neale's old routes, north of the present city of Portsmouth, N. H., and south to Philadelphia, and irregularly extended, a few years later, to Williamsburg, Va. The post left for the South as often as letters enough were deposited to pay the expense. The rates were fixed, and the post-riders had certain privileges of travel. Finally an irregular postal communication was established with Charleston. In 1753 Dr. Franklin was appointed deputy postmaster-general for the colonies. It was a lucrative office, and he held it until 1774, when he was dismissed because of his active sympathy with the colonists in their quarrel with the ministry. For a while the colonial postal system was in confusion. William Goddard, a printer, went from colony to colony, making efforts to establish a "constitutional post-office," in opposition to the "royal mail." When, in 1775, almost every vestige of royal power was swept from the colonies, the Continental Congress appointed (July 26) Dr. Franklin Postmaster-general. In the autumn of 1776, when independence had been declared, and Franklin sailed for France, the whole number of post-offices in the United States was seventy-five; length of post-routes, eighteen hundred and seventy-five miles; revenue for about fifteen months, \$27,985; annual expenditures, \$32,142.

Postal Service of the Army. This admirably arranged service was begun at Forts Henry and Donelson, under the auspices of General Grant, to whom it was suggested by Colonel A. H. Markland, special agent of the national post-office. When General Grant began his movement on Fort Henry, he made arrangements for the mails to be promptly sent to the army. "Within an hour," wrote General Grant, in a letter to the author, "after the troops began to march into Fort Donelson" (which see), "the mail was being distributed to them from the mail-wagons. The same promptness was always observed in the armies under my command, up to

the period of final disbandment. It is a source of congratulation that the postal service was so conducted that officers and men were in constant communication with kindred and friends at home, and with as much regularity as the most favored in the large cities of the Union." This was not attended with any additional expense to the service. The chaplain of each regiment was recognized at first as "Regimental Postmaster." Afterwards the mails were "brigaded." They were placed in canvas bags at the general Post-office in Washington, and sent to each brigade, under charge of military authority. The Post-office Department had no further control over the army mails after they left the office at Washington. In this service Colonel Markland (who had the management of it) and his assistants were often exposed to the appalling dangers that awaited the soldiers, yet they never lost a mail over which they had personal control. The number of letters carried in this service was enormous. "For months," wrote the postmaster at Washington to the author, "we received and sent an average of two hundred and fifty thousand military letters per day." The only loss which the service entailed upon the department was in mail-bags. At least thirty thousand were sent out that never found their way back to the department.

Postal System, FIRST, IN AMERICA. In 1693 an act was passed by the Virginia Assembly, setting forth a royal patent granted to Thomas Neale to establish a post in the American colonies for the transportation of letters and packets at such rates as the planters should agree to give. The act authorized rates of postage, and the establishment of a post-office in every town in the colony. Other colonies passed similar acts, and a colonial post-office system, very limited and imperfect, was established under the patent.

Post-office Service. Very soon after the commencement of the first session of the first national Congress, Ebenezer Hazard, Postmaster-general, suggested (July 17, 1789) the importance of a reorganization of the Post-office Department. A bill for the temporary establishment of the General Post-office was passed soon afterwards. The subject was brought up in Congress from time to time, until the present system in its general features was adopted in 1792. When Franklin resigned the position of Postmaster-general in the fall of 1776, the whole number of post-offices in the United States was 75; the whole number in 1875 was about 35,000. The entire length of post-routes in 1776 was 1875 miles; in 1875 it was 277,873 miles. Of the latter, 70,000 miles of travel was by railroad, and 16,000 by steamboat. The entire receipts of the Post-office Department during the administration of Dr. Franklin—about fifteen months—were \$27,985, and the expenditures \$32,142; in 1875 the receipts of the Post-office Department for the fiscal year were \$26,671,218, and the expenditures \$33,611,309. Included in the receipts were about \$6,000,000 of grants from the national treasury for special purposes. The rates of postage from the organization of the

department until 1816 were: For a letter composed of a single piece of paper, under 40 miles, 8 cents; under 90 miles, 10 cents; under 150 miles, 12½ cents; under 300 miles, 17 cents; under 500 miles, 20 cents; and over 500 miles, 25 cents. The rates were made by law in 1816 for a single letter, not over 30 miles, 6½ cents; over 30 and under 80 miles, 10 cents; over 80 and under 150 miles, 18½ cents; over 400 miles, 25 cents, and an additional rate for every additional piece of paper. If a letter weighed an ounce, four times these rates were charged. After railroad facilities were established, these high rates caused many letters to be carried by express between the several cities, at rates much below those of the post-office. So early as 1836, Edward Everett, in Congress, proposed measures for reducing the postage. The matter was agitated in public discussions until 1843, when the general discontent was manifested by resolutions passed by various legislatures instructing their senators and requesting their representatives in Congress to adopt measures for reduction. The Postmaster-general (Wickliffe), in an elaborate report, recommended a moderate reduction, and in 1845 the following rates were established: For a letter not exceeding half an ounce in weight, under 300 miles, 5 cents; over 300 miles, 10 cents, and an additional rate for every additional half-ounce or fraction thereof. In the next Congress unsuccessful efforts were made to increase the rates on letters, but on newspapers and magazines they were raised, and prepayment was required. Postage on circulars was raised to 3 cents, and newspaper postage to Oregon and California, at the close of the war with Mexico, was fixed at 4½ cents each. The letter charge to California *via* Chagres and Panama was 40 cents. In 1851 a law was passed establishing the following rates of letter postage: For a letter of half an ounce in weight, under 3000 miles, if prepaid, 3 cents; or if not prepaid, 5 cents; over 3000 miles, 6 or 12 cents; to foreign countries not over 2500 miles, except where postal arrangements had been made, 10 cents; over 2500 miles, 20 cents. Transient newspapers, circulars, and other printed matter, 1 cent an ounce under 500 miles, and greater distances in proportion. Books, under 32 ounces, 1 cent an ounce, if prepaid; 2 cents an ounce if not. The next year the law was modified. Letters sent over 3000 miles and not prepaid were charged 10 cents; newspapers, etc., under 3 ounces, 1 cent. Books weighing less than 4 pounds, under 3000 miles, 1 cent an ounce; over 3000 miles, 2 cents. By an act of the same year (1852), stamps and stamped envelopes were ordered. By a law of March 3, 1855, the rates on single inland letters were reduced to 3 cents for all distances under 3000 miles, and 10 cents for all over that; and all inland letter-postage was to be prepaid. In 1863 the rate of postage was made uniform at 3 cents on all domestic letters not exceeding half an ounce in weight, and 3 cents additional for every half-ounce or fraction thereof. The rates on printed matter were also modified. In 1868 the law was so amended as to allow weekly newspapers to be sent free to regular subscribers re-

siding in the county. By the act of 1855, provision was made for the present system for the registration of valuable letters on the payment of a specific fee; but the government is not liable for the loss of any registered mail-matter; the system simply provides for greater certainty in transmission. In 1874 the cost of registration was reduced from 15 cents to 8 cents, in addition to the regular postage. In June, 1875, it was raised to 10 cents. The money-order system was established in the United States Nov. 1, 1864, in order to promote public convenience and insure safety in the transfer by mail of small sums of money. That security is obtained by omitting from the order the name of the payee, which is added on the receipt of the order. Orders are issued for sums not exceeding \$50; larger sums by increasing the number of orders accordingly. The charge for issuing a money-order for a sum not exceeding \$10 is 10 cents, and increases according to the amount; the charge for an order of over \$40 is 20 cents. Certain post-offices are designated as "money-order offices." At the close of the fiscal year 1882, there were 5491 of these. By act of June 8, 1872, the Postmaster-general was authorized to issue postal-cards to the public at a cost of one cent each. The first cards were issued in May, 1873. The object was to facilitate letter correspondence. In 1882 about 351,500,000 of these cards were issued. The rates of postage established by acts prior to 1876 were as follows: Single letters (domestic), uniform for any distance, 3 cents for every half-ounce, and for each additional half-ounce, 3 cents. This applies to all sealed matter, whether in manuscript or printed. There are two other classes of mail-matter; one embraces all regularly supplied newspapers, magazines, and periodicals, exclusively in print, and the other embraces pamphlets, transient newspapers, magazines, and articles of merchandise, seeds, roots, scions, engravings, etc., for all of which there are graded prices. Letters not taken from a post-office, or the directions of which are not clear, are sent to the Dead-letter Office in Washington, where they are examined, and, as far as possible, they and their contents are returned to the sender. The quantity of these letters is very large. In 1882 the number of dead letters and parcels received was 4,285,285. These contained current funds, bills of exchange, commercial paper, jewelry, samples of merchandise, photographs, and souvenirs of every variety. In 44,564 letters was found in the aggregate, in cash, drafts, etc., \$1,962,413. Postal arrangements have been made with foreign governments by which great facility and security is obtained in the transmission of letters. In February, 1883, Congress, by act, fixed the postage on single letters at two cents after Oct. 1, 1883. The total number of post-offices in the United States in 1890 was 62,401. Extent of post routes, 427,991 miles.

Potawatomies. This Algonquin family occupied the lower peninsula of Michigan, and spoke one of the rudest dialects of that nation. At the beginning of the seventeenth century they were in scattered and apparently indepen-

dent bands, without the faintest sign of any civil government. Hunters and fishers, and cultivators of a little maize, they were wanderers, and were frequently engaged in wars with neighboring tribes. The Iroquois finally drove them to the shores of Green Bay, where the French Jesuits established a mission among them. They became allies of the French in the wars with the Iroquois and the English, and they gradually spread over southern Michigan and northern Illinois and Indiana. The Potawatomies joined Pontiac (see *Pontiac*), and were the friends of the English in the war of the Revolution and subsequently, but joined in the treaty at Greenville in 1795. (See *Greenville, Treaty at.*) In the War of 1812 they again joined the English, under the influence of Tecumtha. Afterwards they made treaties with the United States for the cession of their lands, when a large tract was assigned them in Missouri, and the whole tribe, numbering about 4000, settled there in 1838. A portion of them are Roman Catholics, and the remainder are pagans. They are divided into the St. Joseph, Wabash, and Huron bands, who are Roman Catholics, and the Prairie band, who are pagans. Missions among the latter have failed, and they have scattered, some of them having gone to Mexico. The experiment of giving a certain amount of land to each individual was undertaken with 1400 of them in 1867, and was partially successful. In 1890 there were 500 of the Prairie band on a reservation of 77,000 acres northwest of Topeka, Kansas. They have several schools, and obtain subsistence by farming.

Potter, ROBERT B., son of Bishop Alonzo Potter, is a native of New York, where he was a successful lawyer when the Civil War broke out. He entered the military service as major of the Shepard Rifles, and led the attack on Roanoke Island (which see) early in 1862. He was wounded at Newbern; behaved gallantly at the head of his regiment in battles in Virginia, and at Antietam carried the stone bridge on the National left, when he was again wounded. He was in the battle at Fredericksburg, and was made brigadier-general in March, 1863. He commanded a division in the siege of Vicksburg, was active in the defence of Knoxville, and commanded a corps against Longstreet in Tennessee. In command of a division in the Army of the Potomac, he was distinguished throughout the Richmond campaign in 1864-65, and was shot through the body at Petersburg (April 2, 1865), but recovered.

Poverty of the Government of the United States (1789). So low were the funds in the public treasury of the United States at the close of 1789, that the Attorney-general and several members of Congress were indebted to the private credit of the Secretary of the Treasury (Hamilton) to discharge their personal expenses. Even the President of the United States (Washington) was obliged to pass his note to Tobias Lear, his private secretary, to meet his household expenses; and that note was discounted at the rate of two per cent. a month. Members of Congress were paid in due-bills, which the col-

lectors were ordered to receive in payment for duties.

Powers, HIRAM, sculptor, was born at Woodstock, Vt., July 29, 1805; died in Florence, Italy, June 27, 1873. He went to Ohio in early life, and on the death of his father made his residence in Cincinnati, where he was employed in a reading-room, a produce-store, and with a clock-maker. He learned the art of modelling in plaster from a German, and soon made several busts of considerable merit, and was manager of the wax-work department of the museum at Cincinnati. In 1835 he went to Washington, where he successfully modelled busts of distinguished men, and with the assistance of Nicholas Longworth, of Cincinnati, he was enabled to establish himself at Florence, Italy, in 1837, where he resided until his death. There he soon rose to eminence in his profession, making an ideal statue of Eve which Thorwaldsen pronounced a masterpiece. The next year he produced the exquisite figure of the Greek Slave, the most widely-known of his works, and of which six duplicates in marble have been made, besides casts and reduced copies. He was accurate in his portraits, and the greater portion of his works consists of busts of distinguished men. He made portrait statues of Washington for the State of Louisiana, of Calhoun for South Carolina (which has been called his best work of the kind), and of Webster for Massachusetts.

Powhatan was a powerful Indian sagamore, or emperor, on the Virginia Peninsula between the York and James rivers, and farther to the Patuxent, when the English first settled there in 1607. His name was Wah-un-so-na-cook. He lived about a mile below the foot of the falls of the James River, Richmond, and there Captain Smith and his companions, exploring the stream, found him. By his wisdom and prowess he had raised himself to the rank of sagamore, or civil ruler, over thirty Indian tribes, and was entitled Powhatan, having a significance like that of Pharaoh, the official title of a line of kings of Egypt. His subjects numbered about 8000, and he is known in history simply as Powhatan. His domains included the region just mentioned, and back to the falls of the great rivers of the territory. When he became emperor he resided chiefly at Werowocomoco (now Shelly), on the York River, in Gloucester County, Va. He treated the English people hospitably, but his younger brother, Opechancanough, King of Pamunkey, was always hostile to them. When Captain Smith was taken prisoner by him, he conducted the captain first to his own village, and then to the palace of Powhatan on the York. At the former place the Indians held incantations for three days to discover Smith's character, for they were in doubt whether he was the incarnation of the good or the evil spirit. Then they took him to Powhatan and asked him to decide the prisoner's fate. The emperor, seated upon a raised platform in a stately arbor covered with branches, and with a favorite daughter on each side of him, with solemn words adjudged Smith to death. (See *Smith, John*.) The

sympathy of one of Powhatan's daughters saved him, and through her influence friendship was maintained, with some interruptions, between the emperor and the English until Powhatan died. (See *Pocahontas*.) Afterwards, Newport brought a crown for Powhatan from England, and he was crowned with much ceremony, in return for which honor the monarch gave Newport his mantle and shoes. Powhatan's friendship was almost destroyed when Captain Argall, a rough, half-piratical mariner, kidnapped Pocahontas to extort favors from her father. Powhatan was grieved, but remained firm. Meanwhile Pocahontas became betrothed to an Englishman, and with the consent of her father was married to him. After that Powhatan was the fast friend of the settlers. He died in 1619, and was succeeded by Opechancanough, an enemy of the English.

Powhatans. This branch of the Algonquin family composed a confederacy of about thirty bands, including the Accohannocks and Accomacs, on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay. Their sagamore, or emperor, was called Powhatan, a title having a significance like that of Pharaoh, of a line of Egyptian kings. His name was Wah-un-so-na-cook, and he raised himself by his ability from the rank of a chief to that of sagamore. He was in the height of his power when in 1607 the English appeared on the James River, and ruled despotically. Fear and policy made him and his people nominal friends of the English, which was sincere on his part after the marriage of his daughter to an Englishman. After Powhatan's death his people made two attempts (1622, 1644) to exterminate the English, but they themselves were so weakened by the contest that the confederacy fell in pieces at the death of Opechancanough, Powhatan's brother and successor. Of all that once great confederacy in lower Virginia, not one representative, it is believed, exists on the earth, nor one tongue speaks the dialect.

Pownall, THOMAS, LL.D., was born at Lincoln, England, in 1722; died at Bath, Feb. 25, 1805. He graduated at Cambridge in 1743, and in 1745 was made secretary to the Commissioners of Trade and Plantations (which see). He came to America in 1753 as secretary to Governor Osborn, of New York, whom he succeeded as lieutenant-governor. He was a member of the Colonial Congress at Albany (which see) in 1754, and was governor of Massachusetts from 1757 to 1760. In 1760-61 he was governor of South Carolina, and returning to England was made director-general of the office of control with the rank of colonel. Entering Parliament in 1768, he was one of the most powerful friends of the Americans in that body. Pownall retired from Parliament in 1780. (See *Prophecy of Pownall*.)

Prairie Grove, BATTLE AT. General T. C. Hindman had gathered about 40,000 men, largely made up of guerilla bands, in the vicinity of the Ozark Mountains. Schofield, leaving Curtis in command of his district, marched against them late in September, 1862, with 8000 men

ander General J. G. Blunt. This officer attacked a portion of them at Fort Wayne, near Maysville (Oct. 22), and drove them into the Indian country. A week later a cavalry force under General F. J. Herron struck another portion on the White River and drove them into the mountains. Ill-health compelled Schofield to relinquish command, which was assumed by Blunt. Hindman now determined to strike a decisive blow for the recovery of Arkansas from National control. Late in November he had in one body about 20,000 men on the western borders of Arkansas, and on the 28th moved against Blunt. His advance, composed of Marmaduke's cavalry, was attacked and defeated by Blunt on Boston Mountains. The latter now took position at Cane Hill, where Hindman tried to crush him. Hindman crossed the Arkansas River at Van Buren (Dec. 1, 1862) with about 11,000 men, including 2000 cavalry, and joined Marmaduke. Informed of this, Blunt sent to Herron, then just over the Missouri border, for assistance. He immediately marched into Arkansas at the rate of twenty miles a day, with guns and trains. He had sent forward cavalry, but on the morning of Dec. 7 he met a part of them who had been driven back by Marmaduke's horsemen. Meanwhile, Blunt had been skirmishing with the Confederates, who had turned his left flank and were making for his trains. Both he and Herron were now in a perilous condition. Herron had arrived with his main army on Dec. 7, and marching on met the mounted guard of the Confederates at a little settlement called Prairie Grove. Divested of his cavalry, he had only about 4000 effective men. Ignorant of the near presence of a heavy force under Hindman, he left a strong position, drove the Confederate cavalry across the river, and was there confronted by about 20,000 men, well posted on a wooded ridge. Herron did not suspect their number, and, pushing on, was instantly driven back. He pushed a battery forward which did such execution that the Confederates supposed his force was much larger than it was. He now threw three full batteries across a creek, supported by three full regiments, opened on the flank of the Confederates with a terrible storm of grape and canister, silenced their guns, and pressed up to the ridge and captured a battery there. The Nationals, unable to hold it, fell back; and for a while the result was doubtful. While Herron was thus struggling, Blunt came up and fell upon the Confederate left where troops had been massed to turn Herron's right. A severe battle ensued which continued for nearly four hours. Night ended the conflict. The Nationals slept on their arms on the battle-field. The Confederates retreated under cover of the night, marched rapidly, and escaped. The National loss at the battle of Prairie Grove was 1148, of which 167 were killed. Blunt estimated the Confederate loss at 3000, as his command buried about 1000 killed on the battle-field. Hindman reported his loss at 1317.

Preble, EDWARD, was born at Portland, Me., Aug. 15, 1761; died there, Aug. 25, 1807. At the age of sixteen years he made a voyage to Eu-

rope in an American privateer, and in 1779, when eighteen years of age, he served as midshipman in the *Protector*. He was made prisoner, and was in the *Jersey* prison-ship (which see) for a



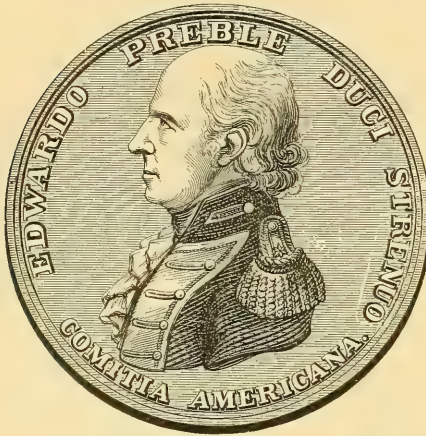
EDWARD PREBLE.

while. After the war he occupied himself as ship-master until 1798, when he was named one of the five lieutenants appointed by the government. In 1799 he was commissioned captain, and made a voyage to the East Indies in the *Essex* for the protection of American commerce. Ill-health kept him ashore until 1803, when he took command of the frigate *Constitution*, and in June took charge of the squad on sent against Tripoli. By a series of skilful bombardments of Tripoli (which see) he brought its ruler to terms. He was superseded by Barron, in September, 1804, and returned home, when Congress voted him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal.

Preble, GEORGE HENRY, U. S. N., was born at Portland, Me., Feb. 25, 1816; entered the navy as midshipman, Oct. 10, 1835; served in the Mediterranean and the West Indies; became passed-midshipman in 1841; served in the Florida War, and in the *St. Louis* went round the world as acting-master and acting-lieutenant. He also served in the war with Mexico as executive officer of the *Petrel*. He became lieutenant early in 1848, while yet in service against Mexico; and from 1849 to 1851 he was attached to the Coast Survey, also in 1852-53. He was in the expedition to Japan and China (1852-56) and destroyed Chinese pirates in 1854. Afterwards he was with the South Pacific squadron; and during the Civil War (1861-65) he was an active commander in the Gulf region. He was with Farragut at New Orleans in May, 1862, and in July was commissioned commander. He commanded the naval brigade at the battle of Honey Hill, South Carolina. In 1867, he was commissioned captain and became chief-of-staff of the Pacific squadron. After some important duties

at Washington, he was appointed commandant of the Naval Rendezvous at Boston in 1871-72. On Nov. 12, 1871, he was made commodore, and from 1873 to 1876 was commandant of the navy-yard at Philadelphia. On Sept. 30, 1876, he was made rear-admiral; commanded the South Pacific

superior was carried on at a very remote period is attested by pits in which the earlier operations were carried on and in one of which a mass of ore was found, prepared for hoisting out, which weighed about eight tons. (See *Copper-mines*.) It had been hammered and chopped off until



MEDAL GIVEN TO COMMODORE PREBLE. (See p. 1129.)

squadron, 1877-78; was retired as rear-admiral, 1878. He died March 5, 1885.

Preble, JEDEDIAH, was born at Wells, Me., in 1707; died at Portland about 1784. He was a sailor in early life, and in 1746 was a captain in a provincial regiment. He was a lieutenant-colonel under General Winslow at the dispersion of the Acadians in 1755. He rose to the rank of brigadier-general in 1759, and was twelve years a representative. In 1774, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts made him a brigadier-general. He was a State Senator in 1780, and judge of the Supreme Court.

Precious Metals. Very little of the precious metals had been found within the domain of the United States before the discovery of gold in California in 1848. The chief product was in the Southern States. The total amount of gold mined in these states from the discovery of the metal until 1873 was \$20,000,000. From 1848 till 1889, the total value of the gold product of the United States was \$1,804,316,532. Until 1859-60, very little silver had been found in our country. Miners then "prospecting" for gold discovered in Nevada and elsewhere immense deposits of silver. The yield for the year 1890 was \$70,464,645, which far exceeded that of any preceding year. The United States is now the richest gold and silver producing country on the globe.

Pre-emption Rights. In 1816 the first pre-emption bill for settlers on public lands was passed by Congress, not, however, without much opposition. This act allowed settlers on the public domain the right to purchase three hundred and twenty acres. This was the initial of a long series of similar enactments.

Prehistoric Mining near Lake Superior. That copper-mining in the region of Lake Su-

perior had been made smooth. It lay upon sticks of oak wood, not now known to grow in that region, and over it had accumulated a layer of gravel fifteen or twenty feet in depth, upon which were growing large forest trees. The present race of Indians have no knowledge of the ancient miners. They were of a prehistoric race who evidently possessed much cultivation.

Preliminary Treaty of Peace. (See *Treaty of Peace*, 1782.)

Prentiss, BENJAMIN MAYBERRY, was born at Belleville, Va., Nov. 23, 1819. He served as captain in the war against Mexico, and in April, 1861, he became colonel of a regiment of volunteers of Illinois, in which state he had resided since 1841. He was made brigadier-general of three-months troops, and was in command at Cairo (which see), then a position of great importance. He was made brigadier-general of United States volunteers in May, 1861, and served in Missouri until April, 1862, when he joined General Grant, and fought in the battle of Shiloh (which see), where he was taken prisoner. In November he was made major-general, and early in July, 1863, he defeated a Confederate force under Generals Holmes and Price, at Helena, Ark.

Preparations for War (1774). To wise and thoughtful men, war between Great Britain and her American colonies seemed inevitable. All through the summer of 1774 Samuel Adams proclaimed it as his belief. Joseph Hawley, of Massachusetts, submitted to the delegation from his colony, in the First Continental Congress, a series of wise "hints," beginning with these remarkable words: "We must *fight*, if we cannot otherwise rid ourselves of British taxation. There is not heart enough yet for battle," he contin-

ned. "Constant and a sort of negative resistance to government will increase the heat and blow the fire. There is not military skill enough. That is improving, and must be encouraged and improved, but will daily increase. *Fight we must, finally, unless Britain retreats.*" When John Adams read these words to Patrick Henry, the latter exclaimed, with emphasis, "I am of that man's mind." (See *Hawley, Joseph.*) All the summer and autumn of 1774 the people, impressed with this idea, had practised daily in military exercises, especially in Massachusetts. There provision was made for arming the people of the province and for the collection of munitions of war. The Provincial Convention of Massachusetts appropriated \$60,000 for that purpose, and leading soldiers in the French and Indian War were commissioned general officers of the militia. Mills were erected for the manufacture of gunpowder, and establishments were set up for making arms. Encouragement was given to the production of saltpetre, and late in December, 1774, the Massachusetts Provincial Congress authorized the enrolment of twelve thousand minute-men. Very soon there was an invisible army of determined patriots, ready to resist every act of military coercion on the part of Great Britain. (See *Minute-men.*)

Preparations for War (1812). When it was determined, early in 1812, to declare war against Great Britain, preparations were at once made for the crisis. In February the Committee of Ways and Means reported a financial scheme, which was adopted. It was a system adapted to a state of war for three years. It contemplated the support of war expenses wholly by loans, and the ordinary expenses of the government, including interest on the national debt, by revenues. The estimated expense of the war the first year was \$11,000,000. Duties on imports were doubled, a direct tax of \$3,000,000 was levied, and an extensive system of internal duties and excise was devised. In March Congress authorized a loan of \$11,000,000, at an annual interest not to exceed six per cent., reimbursable in twelve years. When war was declared, only little more than half the loan was taken, and the President was authorized to issue treasury notes, payable in one year, bearing an annual interest of five and two-fifths per cent. Measures were also devised for strengthening the military force. It was weak when war was declared. Congress passed an act (June 26, 1812) for the consolidation of the old army with new levies, the regular force to consist of twenty regiments of foot, four of artillery, two of dragoons, and one of riflemen, which, with engineers and artificers, would make a force of 36,700 men. Little reliance could be placed on the militia, who would not be compelled, by law, to go beyond the bounds of their respective states. The navy was very weak, in comparison with that of the haughty enemy, the acknowledged "Mistress of the Seas." It consisted of only twenty vessels, exclusive of one hundred and seventy gunboats, and actually carrying an aggregate of little more than five hundred guns. (See *United States Navy, 1812.*)

Preparations for War with France (1798). President Adams, in a special message in March, 1798, asked Congress to make provision for war that seemed impending. It was promptly complied with. A provisional army of twenty thousand regular soldiers was voted, and provision was made for the employment of volunteers as well as militia. Provision was also made for a national navy, and the office of Secretary of the Navy was created (see *Navy of the United States*), and the incumbent was made a member of the cabinet. Party spirit disappeared in the national Legislature in a degree, and a war spirit everywhere prevailed. There were a few members of Congress who made the honor of the nation subservient to their partisanship. They opposed a war with France on any account; and so unpopular did they become, that some of the most obnoxious, particularly from Virginia, sought personal safety in flight, under the pretext of needed attention to private affairs.

Preparations for War with Mexico (1846). The Congress of the United States having declared (May 13, 1846) that a state of war existed between Mexico and their government, and authorized the President to accept fifty thousand volunteers, and appropriated ten million dollars for carrying on the contest, the Secretary of War and General Winfield Scott (chief of the armies of the United States) formed a plan of magnificent proportions for prosecuting the contest. A fleet was to sweep around Cape Horn and attack the Pacific coast of Mexico; a force called the "Army of the West" was to gather at Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri River, to invade New Mexico and co-operate with the Pacific fleet; and an "Army of the Centre" was to rendezvous at San Antonio de Bexar, in the heart of Texas, to invade old Mexico from the north. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Preparations to meet Rebellion (1774). Governor Hutchinson having reported that the military power was insufficient in Massachusetts, because no civil officer would sanction its employment, the crown lawyers decided that such power belonged to the governor; and Lord Dartmouth, Secretary of State for the colonies, ordered General Gage, in case the inhabitants should not obey his commands, to bid the troops to fire upon them at his discretion. He was assured that all trials of officers or troops in America for murder would, by a recent act, be removed to England.

Presbyterians and Independents in Parliament. In the Long Parliament (which see), which was the result of a contest between an arbitrary king and the establishment of a permanent legislature, was lodged a power that made strong impressions on the destinies of the English-American colonies. Soon after the beginning of the civil war the Parliament became a body whose duration legally depended on its own will. The majority of that Parliament soon became the despots of England, especially after one hundred and eighteen royalist members, obeying the call of their sovereign to Oxford, had left it. Royalty had no longer any

power in that legislature; and with the departure of the royalist members departed also the power of the Established Church in that body. It was at once divided into Presbyterians and Independents. The former were a sort of compromise, politically, between churchmen and conservative Puritans. They were favorable to monarchy, with Presbyterianism as a state form of religion, and had hopes of making peace with the king if he would consent to such a revolution in the Church as would secure to them the ascendancy. They had a majority in the Commons, and while the House of Lords existed they had exclusive possession of it. They also held control of the army, and were favored by the people of England and Scotland. The Independents were republicans, and wished to effect a complete revolution in society on the principle of equality. They had the commons, the peers, the commanders of the army, all Scotland, and the mass of the English people against them. They became the bold champions of religious liberty and the power of the people. Their tendencies were all towards democracy, and they dreamed of emancipating England from the thrall not only of feudal institutions, but of feudal ideas. This tendency the Presbyterian nobility opposed as heartily as any royalist. Henry Vane, who had been Governor of Massachusetts, was a good representative of the better principles of the Independents, but Oliver Cromwell became the acknowledged leader of the party. With Cromwell's sword and the fanaticism of unreasoning men subjected to excitement, the Independents finally prevailed, the king lost his head, and the House of Lords was abolished.

Presbyterians at Boston. Several persons arriving at Boston from England attempted, in 1643, to establish Presbyterian government there under the authority of the Assembly of Divines at Westminster. They failed, meeting with strenuous opposition from ministers and magistrates.

Presbyterians in the United States. The Presbyterians soon followed the Episcopalians in arranging their Church on a national basis. The Synod of New York and Pennsylvania was divided into four synods, delegates from which annually met in a general assembly. A sort of alliance had been formed between the Presbyterian and Congregational churches of New England. The consociation of Connecticut sent delegates to the general assembly, not as members, but as friendly ambassadors. This practice was afterwards imitated by other Congregational associations. In New England, Latitudinarianism (which see) yet prevailed among the learned, and the new doctrine of Universalism began to spread.

Prescott, ROBERT, a British general, came to Canada in 1773 as brevet-colonel of Foot. On the capture of Montreal, late in 1775, Prescott, who had the local rank of brigadier, attempted to escape to Quebec with the British troops, but was compelled to surrender. He was exchanged the following September for General Sullivan, and was soon afterwards made colonel

of his regiment. On the capture of Rhode Island, late in 1776, he was placed in command there, and was made a prisoner in July, 1777, by Colonel Barton. (See *Prescott, Robert, Capture of.*) He was finally exchanged for General Lee; went back to Rhode Island, and remained in command there until it was evacuated, Oct. 25, 1779. He was made major-general in 1777, and lieutenant-general in 1782. He died in October, 1788.

Prescott, ROBERT, CAPTURE OF. General Prescott, the captor of Ethan Allen at Montreal, was in command of the British occupying a portion of Rhode Island in 1777, and had his quarters at a farm-house a short distance from Newport (see illustration on opposite page). His conduct had become very offensive to the Whigs, and to the inhabitants generally, who wished to get rid of him. Lieutenant-colonel Barton, with thirty-eight picked men, in four whale-boats, accompanied by a negro named Prince, crossed Narraganset Bay from Warwick Point at nine o'clock on a warm evening (July 10, 1777) to accomplish the task. Barton divided his men into small parties, and to each assigned a special duty. Misleading the sentinel at the gate of the house, belonging to a Quaker (Samuel Overton), Barton entered. Prescott was sleeping in an upper room. Ascending to it, the negro burst in a panel of the door, through which Barton entered, seized the general, bade him be perfectly silent, and, hurrying him to one of the boats, thrust him in, and there allowed him to dress. He was taken to Warwick Point, and from thence he was sent to Washington's headquarters in New Jersey.

Prescott, WILLIAM, a distinguished officer of the Revolution, was born at Groton, Mass., Feb. 20, 1726; died at Pepperell, Oct. 13, 1795. He was a provincial colonel at the capture of Cape Breton in 1754, and was one of General Winslow's captains in Nova Scotia in 1756, when the dispersion of the Acadians took place. (See *Acadians, Expulsion of the.*) Prescott inherited a large estate at Pepperell, and held several offices of trust there. When the news of the affair at Lexington reached him he assembled a regiment of minute-men, of which he became colonel, and marched to Cambridge. When it was decided to fortify Bunker's Hill, Prescott was chosen to conduct the enterprise. He cast up a redoubt and breastworks on Breed's Hill, and defended it bravely the next day (June 17, 1775) until his ammunition was exhausted, when he was compelled to retreat, after a severe battle with three thousand troops under Generals Howe and Clinton. He was among the last to quit the field. Prescott resigned his commission early in 1777, and returned home; but in the autumn of the same year he entered the Northern army under Gates as a volunteer, and was present at the capture of Burgoyne. After the war he was in the Massachusetts Legislature several years.

Prescott, WILLIAM HICKLING, LL.D., historian, was born at Salem, Mass., May 4, 1796; died in Boston, Jan. 26, 1859. He graduated at

Harvard University in 1814. He was a grandson of Colonel Prescott of Bunker Hill fame. He adopted a literary rather than a professional career, in consequence of an injury to his eye while in college. From 1815 to 1817 he travelled extensively in Europe, consulted eminent oculists, and found no relief. The injury to his eye being permanent, it impaired his whole sight to such a degree that all through life he was compelled to use the eyes of others in his literary pursuits. In 1824 he began contributions to the *North American Review*, and in June, 1826, he began his *History of Ferdinand and Isabella*, pub-

as Pinckney, who had represented the United States at the Spanish and English courts. Presents, according to old diplomatic usage, had been tendered to him by both these courts at the termination of his mission to each, which, on account of the last clause, section 10, article II. of the Constitution, respecting presents from foreign powers and provinces, he had declined to receive till leave should be given by Congress. A resolution authorizing him to accept was passed by the Senate, but was lost in the House; but by unanimous vote it was declared that motives of general policy, and nothing personal to Mr. Pinckney,

caused its rejection. The usage since has been for ministers to receive the presents tendered, but to deposit them, on their return, with the Department of State.

Presidency, VACANCY IN THE—HOW FILLED. The method of temporarily filling the office of President of the United States, in case of a vacancy caused by inability, resignation, removal, or death of both President and Vice-President, was left to the judgment of Congress. The question had been much discussed in that body, and an act was finally passed (1792) for selecting the President *pro tempore* of the Senate; or, in case there were none, the Speaker of the House of Representatives to act till the removal of the disability or a new

election, to be held, in such cases, on the first Wednesday in December, after two months' notice of the vacancy being given by the Secretary of State. This law was repealed by the Forty-ninth Congress by the passage of an act providing for the Presidential succession as explained in the *Supplement* to this volume (which see).

President and Belvidera. Commodore Rodgers was in the port of New York when war was declared, in command of a small squadron—the *President* (his flag-ship), 44 guns; the *Essex*, 32, Captain Porter; and the *Hornet*, 18, Captain Lawrence. He received orders (June 21, 1812) to sail immediately on a cruise. He had received information that a fleet of West India merchantmen had sailed for England under a convoy, and he steered for the Gulf Stream to intercept them. He had been joined by a small squadron under Commodore Decatur—the *United States* (flag-ship), 44 guns; *Congress*, 38, Cap-



PRESCOTT'S HEADQUARTERS.

lished, in three volumes, in 1838. This work placed him in the front rank of historians. His *Conquest*

of *Mexico* appeared in three volumes in 1843; his *Conquest of Peru*, two volumes, in 1847; and the three volumes of his *History of Philip II. of Spain* appeared in 1855-58. He intended to add three volumes more, but he did not live to complete them. In 1856 he published Robertson's *Charles V.*, with notes and a supplement. Mr. Prescott's works have been translated into several European languages, and he was an honored member of many literary societies in Europe and the United States.

Presents to United States Ministers. In 1798 the subject of receiving presents from foreign governments by American ministers was brought before Congress in the case of Thom-

tain Smith; and *Argus*, 16, Lieutenant-commander St. Clair. Meeting a vessel which had been boarded by the British ship *Belvidera*, 36, Captain R. Byron, Rodgers pressed sail, and in the course of thirty-six hours he discovered the *Belvidera*, gave chase, and overtook her off Nantucket Shoals. Rodgers pointed and discharged one of the fore-castle chase-guns of the *President*, and his shot went crashing through the stern-frame into the gun-room of his antagonist, driving her people from it. That was the "first hostile shot of the war fired afloat." A few moments afterwards one of the *President's* guns burst, killed and wounded sixteen men, blew up the fore-castle, and threw Rodgers several feet in the air. As he fell his leg was broken. Then a shot from a stern-chaser came from the *Belvidera*, killing a midshipman and one or two men. The *Belvidera* now lightened her burden by cutting away anchors and casting heavy things overboard. She gained on the *President*, and at twilight (June 23) the chase was abandoned. The *President* lost twenty-two men (sixteen by accident) killed and wounded. The *Belvidera* lost about twelve men killed and wounded.

President and Endymion. In the summer of 1814 Commodore Decatur, who had long been blockaded in the Thames, above New London, was transferred to the *President*, 44 guns, which Commodore Rodgers had left for the new ship *Guerrière*. In November he had under his command at New York a squadron composed of his flag-ship; the *Hornet*, 18 guns, Captain Biddle; the *Peacock*, 18, Captain Warrington; and *Tom Bowline*, store-ship. He had been watching the British who had ravaged the coasts in the vicinity of Chesapeake Bay. Finally he received orders to prepare for a cruise in the East Indies to spread havoc among the British shipping there. On the night of June 14, 1815, the *President* dropped down to Sandy Hook, leaving the other vessels of his squadron at anchor near Staten Island, and before morning she evaded the British blockaders and cleared the coast. He kept the *President* close along the Long Island shore for a while, believing that a gale that blew on the 14th had driven the blockaders to the leeward. Then he sailed boldly out to sea, and by starlight that evening he saw a strange sail ahead, within gunshot distance. Two others soon made their appearance, and at dawn the *President* was chased by four British ships of war, two on her quarter and two astern. These were the *Endymion*, 40 guns; *Pomone*, 38; *Tenedos*, 38; and *Majestic*, razee, which had been blown off the coast by the gale. The *President*, deeply laden with stores for a long cruise, soon found the *Endymion*, Captain Hope, rapidly overtaking her. Decatur lightened his ship to increase her speed, but to little purpose. At three o'clock in the afternoon (Sept. 16) the *Endymion* came down with a fresh breeze, which the *President* did not feel, and opened her bow guns upon the latter, which she quickly returned. At five o'clock the *Endymion* gained an advantageous position and terribly bruised the *President*, while the latter could not bring a gun to bear on her antagonist. It was evident that the *Endymion*

was endeavoring to gradually bring the *President* to an unmanageable wreck, and so secure a victory. Perceiving this, Decatur resolved to run down upon the *Endymion* and seize her as a prize by a hand-to-hand fight. But the commander of the British vessel, wary and skilful, was not to be caught so, and managed his vessel so that they were brought abeam of each other, when both delivered tremendous broadsides. Every attempt of Decatur to lay the *President* alongside the *Endymion* was foiled by Captain Hope, who adroitly kept his ship a quarter of a mile from his antagonist. Decatur now determined to dismantle his antagonist. The two frigates ran side by side for two hours and a half, discharging broadsides at each other, until the *Endymion*, having had most of her sails cut from the yards, fell astern, and would have struck her colors in a few minutes. At that moment the other vessels in chase were seen by the dim starlight approaching, when the *President* kept on her course and vainly tried to escape. The pursuers closed upon her, and at eleven o'clock made a simultaneous attack. Further resistance would have been useless, and the colors of the *President* were hauled down. Decatur delivered his sword to Captain Hayes, of the *Majestic*, which was the first vessel that came alongside the *President*. Decatur lost twenty-four men killed and fifty-six wounded. The *Endymion* had eleven killed and fourteen wounded. The *Endymion*, with her prize, sailed for Bermuda, and both vessels were dismasted by a gale before reaching port. When the details of the whole battle became known, the praise of Decatur and his men was upon every lip.

President and Little Belt. Minister Pinkney, at the British court, had arranged the difficulties concerning the affair of the *Chesapeake* and *Leopard* (which see), by which full atonement by the British government was secured, and the formal completion of the business had been reserved for the new British minister (Mr. Foster), when another collision between war-vessels of the two nations, more sanguinary than the former, occurred. A favorable arrangement with the French by the United States had caused British cruisers on the American coast to become more and more annoying to American commerce. A richly-laden vessel bound to France was captured within thirty miles of New York, and early in May, 1811, a British frigate, supposed to be the *Guerrière*, stopped an American brig only eighteen miles from New York. The government resolved to send out one or two of the new frigates to protect American commerce from British cruisers. The *President*, lying at Annapolis, was ordered (May 6) to put to sea at once, under the command of Commodore Rodgers, and on the 10th he weighed anchor and proceeded down Chesapeake Bay, and on the 14th passed the Capes of Virginia out into the Atlantic. Rodgers saw a vessel on the eastern horizon. They approached each other. Having exchanged signals, the stranger bore off southward. Thinking she might be the *Guerrière*, Rodgers gave chase. Early in the evening of May 16 Rodgers

was so near that he inquired, "What ship is that?" The question, repeated, came from the stranger. Rodgers immediately reiterated his question, which, before he could take his trumpet from his mouth, was answered by a shot that lodged in the main-mast of the *President*. Rodgers was about to respond in kind when a single gun from his ship was accidentally discharged. It was followed by three shots from his antagonist, and then by a broadside, with musketry. Then Rodgers, "equally determined," he said, "not to be the aggressor, or suffer the flag of my country to be insulted with impunity," gave orders for a general fire. His antagonist was silenced within six minutes, and the guns of the *President* ceased firing, when suddenly her antagonist opened fire anew. Again she was silenced, and at dawn the *President* saw her several miles to the leeward. He ascertained that she was his majesty's ship *Little Belt*, Captain A. B. Bingham, which was searching for the *Guerrière* on the American coast. This event greatly increased the number and zeal of a rapidly growing war-party in the United States. While the two governments were willing to bury the affair in oblivion, the people of each were filled with more bitter mutual animosity.

President Johnson, Secretary Stanton, and General Grant. When the cabinet of President Johnson resigned, the friends of Mr. Stanton, Secretary of War, urged him to retain the office, for it was believed the chief magistrate was contemplating some revolutionary movement. The Tenure of Office Act seemed to guarantee Mr. Stanton against removal. The Fortieth Congress met immediately after the adjournment of the Thirty-ninth, and adjourned (March 31, 1867) to meet on the first Wednesday in July following for the express purpose of preventing President Johnson from doing serious mischief. After removing obstructions cast in the way of reorganization by the President, Congress adjourned (July 20) to meet Nov. 21, hoping the President would no longer disturb the public peace by his conduct. They were mistaken. As soon as Congress adjourned, in violation of the Tenure of Office Act (which see), he proceeded to remove Mr. Stanton from office. He first asked him (Aug. 5) to resign. "Grave public considerations," he said, "constrain me to request your resignation as Secretary of War." Stanton replied, "Grave public considerations constrain me to continue in the office of Secretary of War until the next meeting of Congress." He shared in the general suspicion that Johnson was contemplating a revolutionary movement in favor of the Confederates. A week later the President directed General Grant to assume the position and duties of Secretary of War. As a dutiful soldier, he obeyed his commander-in-chief. Stanton, knowing the firmness and incorruptible patriotism of Grant, withdrew under protest. This change was followed by such arbitrary acts on the part of the President that the country was thoroughly alarmed. Even the President's private friends were amazed and mortified by his conduct. He gave unsatisfactory reasons for

dismissing Stanton. On Jan. 13, 1868, the Senate reinstated Stanton, when Grant quietly withdrew. The enraged President reproached the latter for yielding to the Senate, charged him with having broken his promises, and tried to injure his reputation as a citizen and a soldier. A question of veracity between them arose, when the general-in-chief felt compelled to say, in a letter to the President: "When my honor as a soldier and my integrity as a man have been so violently assailed, pardon me for saying that I can but regard this whole matter, from beginning to end, as an attempt to involve me in the resistance of law for which you hesitated to assume the responsibility in orders, and thus to destroy my character before the country." The President did not deny the truth of this damaging charge. His conduct concerning Stanton led immediately to his impeachment.

President Johnson's Tour. On Aug. 14, 1866, a convention was held in Philadelphia, composed largely of Confederate leaders and their sympathizers in the North, for the purpose of organizing a new political party, with President Johnson as its standard-bearer. Whereupon Johnson and a part of his cabinet made a circuitous journey to Chicago, ostensibly for the purpose of being present at the dedication of a monument to Senator Douglas. He harangued the people on the way in language so unbecoming the dignity of a chief magistrate of the Republic that the nation felt a relief from mortification after his return in September. He had denounced Congress as an illegal body, deserving of no respect. The tour, made wholly for political effect, extended to St. Louis. His conduct at Cleveland and St. Louis was so offensive that the Common Councils of Cincinnati and Pittsburgh refused to accord him a public reception. The attempt to establish a new party with President Johnson as a leader was a failure.

President Lincoln and Virginia Commissioners. On April 13, 1861, commissioners from the Virginia convention had a formal audience with President Lincoln to ascertain his intentions towards the Secessionists. He told them frankly that it was his determination to pursue the policy marked out in his inaugural address. He informed them that if an attack had been made upon Fort Sumter, as it was at that moment rumored, he should feel at liberty to take means to repossess it. "In any event," he said, "I shall, to the best of my ability, repel force by force." He also told them that he might feel it his duty to withdraw the United States mail service from all the states which claimed to have seceded, as the commencement of war by the insurgents would justify such a course. It was this explicit declaration of the President, that he should defend the life of the Republic, that made the Secessionists in Virginia desperate and resort to desperate measures. (See *Virginia Ordinance of Secession*.)

President Lincoln's First Call for Troops. Mr. Lincoln had said, in a little speech at Trenton (Feb. 1, 1861), while on his journey to Washington, "It may be necessary to put the foot

down firmly." The attack on Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, and its enforced evacuation (April 14, 1861) created that necessity; and on April 15 he issued a proclamation declaring that the laws of the Republic had been for some time, and were then, opposed in the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas "by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, or by the powers vested in the marshals by law;" and he therefore, by virtue of the power in him vested by the Constitution and laws, called forth the militia of the several states of the Union, to the aggregate number of seventy-five thousand, in order to suppress those combinations and to cause the laws to be duly executed. The President appealed to all loyal citizens to "favor, facilitate, and aid in this effort to maintain the honor, the integrity, and existence of our national Union and the perpetuity of popular government, and to redress wrongs already long enough endured." He said the first service assigned the forces thereby called forth would probably be "to repossess the forts, places, and property which had been seized from the Union." He assured the people that in every event the utmost care would be observed, consistently with the objects stated, to "avoid any devastation, any destruction of, or any interference with, property, or any disturbance of peaceful citizens of any part of the country." He commanded the persons composing the combinations mentioned to disperse and retire peacefully to their respective abodes within twenty days from the date of the proclamation. In the same proclamation he summoned a meeting of Congress at Washington at noon on Wednesday, July 4, next ensuing.

President of New England. In 1686 James II. commissioned Joseph Dudley President of New England. The royal commission was received May 15, and published on the 25th, at which time Dudley's administration was begun. It was short and unsatisfactory. The House of Delegates was laid aside, but the ancient ordinances of the General Court were declared to be in force. Dudley was superseded by Edmund Andros.

President of the Peace Convention. Ex-President John Tyler, of Virginia, was chosen President of the Peace Convention (which see) in February, 1861. At the close of the convention he was thanked by that body, and in his closing speech he said: "I cannot but hope and believe that the blessing of God will follow and rest upon the result of your labors, and that such result will bring to our country that quiet and peace which every patriotic heart so earnestly desires. . . . It is probable that the result to which you have arrived is the best that, under the circumstances, could be expected. So far as in me lies, therefore, I shall recommend its adoption." Mr. Tyler hastened to Richmond, where his views of the Peace Convention seem to have been modified, for thirty-six hours after the adjournment of that body he, in

a speech, denounced the convention as a worthless affair; declared that the South had nothing to hope from the Republican party; and entered warmly into the plans for severing Virginia from the Union.

Presidential Election (1796). The people voted for presidential electors to fill the place of the retiring President (Washington) in the autumn of 1796. The vote in the electoral college (which see) stood for John Adams, 71; Thomas Jefferson, 68; C. C. Pinckney, 59; Aaron Burr, 30; Oliver Ellsworth, 11; George Clinton, 7; John Jay, 5, and ten votes were scattered between five other candidates. Mr. Adams was chosen to the Presidency and Mr. Jefferson to the Vice-Presidency. The latter lost the office by three scattering votes. These votes for Mr. Adams were accidental tributes of personal esteem. "He felt the insecurity of his position," says his family biographer, "as a President of three votes."

Presidential Election (1808). Mr. Jefferson had been re-elected President in 1804, with George Clinton, of New York, as Vice-President. As the time for the election of President in 1808 approached there was much excitement in the political field. Early in the year a caucus of Democrats in Congress nominated James Madison for President and George Clinton for Vice-President. The ambition of leaders had thus caused a schism in the Democratic party. Madison, Monroe, and Clinton were each candidates for the Presidency. The Federalists, perceiving, as they thought, some chance for success in consequence of this schism, nominated Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, for President, and Rufus King, of New York, for Vice-President. Madison was elected President, and Clinton Vice-President.

Presidential Election (1828). This took place in the midst of a highly excited state of public feeling, brought on by the long discussion of the characters of the prominent candidates, John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson. Immediately after the election of Adams to the Presidency (1824) there was a combination against him of a majority of the friends of Crawford with those of Jackson, and every effort of the new President to conciliate his political enemies was in vain. So early as November, 1815, Aaron Burr, in a letter to his son-in-law, ex-Governor Allston, of South Carolina, asked that gentleman to advocate the nomination of Andrew Jackson for the Presidency. The latter had constantly grown in popularity, and the result of the election in 1828 was that the electoral college gave him 178 votes to 83 for Adams. Mr. Calhoun was re-elected Vice-President by 171 votes. The number of electoral votes received by Mr. Adams was one less than he received in 1824, while those given for Jackson exceeded by one the united votes for Jackson, Crawford, and Clay in 1824.

Presidential Election (1836). The candidates for President and Vice-President in 1836 were Martin Van Buren, as the party successor of Jackson, with Richard M. Johnson as Vice-

President; and William Henry Harrison was nominated by the opposition, with Francis Granger for Vice-President. The opposition was divided in regard to nominees, the great body of them supporting Harrison, but a considerable faction in the South and Southwest supported Hugh L. White, of Tennessee, with John Tyler, of Virginia, for Vice-President. The opposition in Massachusetts voted for Daniel Webster for President, and the South Carolinians gave their votes to Willie P. Mangum, of North Carolina. The election was warmly contested. The different sections of the opposition, unable to concentrate their forces upon a single candidate, had hopes that the election of President would devolve upon the House of Representatives. The result, determined by the electoral college, was as follows: For President, Martin Van Buren, 170; William H. Harrison, 73; Hugh L. White, 26; Daniel Webster, 14; Willie P. Mangum, 11. Majority for Van Buren, over all, 46. For Vice-President, Richard M. Johnson, 147; Francis Granger, 77; John Tyler, 47; William Smith, of Alabama (vote cast by the Virginia electors), 23. Van Buren was elected President, but there was no choice for Vice-President. Then the Senate, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, proceeded to elect that officer, and chose Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky.

Presidential Election (1840). Preparations for the presidential election began to be made early. The two grand political parties in the country were then known as Whigs (as the opposition was first called in 1834) and Democrats. The former met in national convention at Harrisburg, Penn., Dec. 4, 1839, and nominated General William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, for President, and John Tyler, of Virginia, for Vice-President. The Democrats held a convention at Baltimore, Md., May 5, 1840, and unanimously renominated Martin Van Buren for President. No nomination for Vice-President was then made, but afterwards Richard M. Johnson and James K. Polk were nominated in different states for that office. Never before was the country so excited and so widely demoralized by any election as it was during the "Hard-cider Campaign" (which see) in 1840. Harrison and Tyler were elected by overwhelming majorities.

Presidential Election (1852). When the administration of Mr. Fillmore drew to a close, nominations for his successor were made. The Democratic national convention assembled at Baltimore (June 1, 1852) and nominated General Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, for President, and William R. King, of Alabama, for Vice-President. A Whig national convention assembled at the same place in the same month (June 16) and nominated General Winfield Scott for President, and William A. Graham, of North Carolina, for Vice-President. There were several other candidates for nomination in the Democratic convention—namely, Lewis Cass, of Michigan; James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania; William L. Marcy, of New York; Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois; Samuel Houston, of Texas; Joseph Lane, of Indiana, and others. On the

thirty-third ballot General Pierce was voted for for the first time, and the votes for him rapidly increased as the balloting went on. It required 192 votes to nominate; on the forty-ninth ballot he received 282 votes against six candidates. In the Whig convention there were three prominent candidates: Millard Fillmore, Winfield Scott, and Daniel Webster. On the first ballot Fillmore received 133, Scott 131, and Webster 29; and this relative proportion was kept up through fifty ballotings, 149 votes being necessary to a choice. On the fifty-third ballot Scott received 159 votes, and was declared nominated. A national convention of the Free-soil party (which see), held at Pittsburgh on Aug. 11, nominated John P. Hale, of New Hampshire, for President, and G. W. Julian, of Indiana, for Vice-President. A national convention of the Liberty party (not acquiescing in the fusion with the Free-soil party) met at Syracuse, N. Y., on Sept. 30, and nominated William Goodell for President, and S. M. Piper for Vice-President. A Southern Rights convention in Georgia nominated George M. Troup, of that state, for President, and General Quitman, of Mississippi, for Vice-President, but they did not accept the nomination. In November, Pierce and King were elected, each receiving the electoral votes of twenty seven states, 254 in number.

Presidential Election (1876). A Republican national convention assembled at Cincinnati, June 16, 1876, and nominated Rutherford Birchard Hayes, of Ohio, for President, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, for Vice-President. On the 27th of June a Democratic national convention assembled at St. Louis and nominated Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, for President, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, for Vice-President. A very excited canvass succeeded, and so vehement became the lawlessness in some of the Southern States that at times local civil war seemed inevitable. The result of the election was in doubt for some time, each party claiming for its candidate a majority. In the electoral college 185 votes were necessary to the success of a candidate. It was decided after the election that Mr. Tilden had 184. Then ensued a long and bitter contest in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana over the official returns, each party charging the other with fraud. There was intense excitement in the Gulf region. In order to secure fair play, President Grant issued an order (Nov. 10, 1876) to General Sherman to instruct military officers in the South to be vigilant, to preserve peace and good order, and see that legal boards of canvassers of the votes cast at the elections were unmolested. He also appointed distinguished gentlemen of both political parties to go to Louisiana and Florida to be present at the reception of the returns and the counting of the votes. The result was that it was decided, on the count by returning boards, that Hayes had a majority of the electoral votes. The friends of Mr. Tilden were not satisfied. They had a majority in the House of Representatives in the Forty-fourth Congress, and they proposed, instead of submitting to the usual course in counting the votes of the several elec-

toral colleges, to appoint a commission (see *Electoral Commission*) to decide, after careful inquiry, at the final counting of the votes, what returns were legal. This electoral commission, composed of members of both houses and of the Supreme Court, decided that Hayes and Wheeler were lawfully elected. They were inaugurated on March 5 (the 4th falling on Sunday), 1877.

Presidential Etiquette. Washington was anxious so to regulate his intercourse with the public at large that the dignity of his office should be maintained consistently with a proper degree of republican simplicity. He resolved at the outset, in order to give his time to the public business, not to return any visits. To prevent being overrun with mere callers, he appointed the hour between three and four o'clock each Tuesday afternoon for the reception of gentlemen. He met ladies at the receptions given by Mrs. Washington, who also had stated times for the ceremony. These receptions by Mrs. Washington were confined to persons connected with the government and their families, foreign ministers and their families, and persons moving in the best circles of refined society, who were expected to appear in full dress. On these occasions Washington generally stood by the side of his wife, dressed in a plain suit of brown cloth, with bright buttons, without hat or dress-sword. At his own levees he wore a suit of black velvet, black-silk stockings, silver knee and shoe buckles, and yellow gloves. He held in his hand a cocked hat with a black cockade. His hat was trimmed with an ostrich feather around the edge, about an inch deep. An elegant dress-sword hung upon his hip in such a manner that only the point of the scabbard might be seen below the skirt of his coat. His friend Colonel Humphreys was master of ceremonies. As visitors came in they were introduced to the President by Humphreys, when they were arranged in a circle around the room. The door was closed at a quarter past three o'clock, when the company for the day was completed. The President then began on the right, and spoke to each visitor, calling him by name and addressing a few words to him. When he had completed the circuit, he returned to his first position, when the visitors approached him, bowed, and retired; and by four o'clock the ceremony was over. It was almost as free to the promiscuous public as are the President's levees now. Colonel Humphreys, who had lived in Paris, arranged the etiquette of the "republican court." The "court life" was not pleasing to Washington, and was positively distasteful to his wife. "I think I am more like a state prisoner," she wrote to a friend. "There are certain bounds which I may not depart from; and, as I cannot do as I like, I am obstinate, and stay at home a great deal."

Presidential Nominations and Election (1856). The American, or Know-nothing, party held a national convention at Philadelphia, commencing Feb. 18, 1856. It was called a special session of the "Council of the American Order." It had assumed the attitude of a strong political

power, its chief bond of union being opposition to foreigners, and especially to Roman Catholics. At the February gathering a national platform was considered. In June, 1855, the same council had, in a section of its platform, deprecated all further action on the subject of slavery. A motion to strike that out was warmly debated, when they decided to make an entirely new platform, which virtually recognized the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, and the duty of all to comply with the Fugitive Slave Law (which see). On Feb. 22, 1856, a national nominating convention of the American, or Know-nothing, party was held in Philadelphia and nominated Millard Fillmore, of New York, for President, and Andrew Jackson Donelson, of Tennessee, for Vice-President. Forty members seceded from the convention, and this was the beginning of the dissolution of the party. (See *American, or Know-nothing, Party, The*.) The Republican party, just forming, held a national nominating convention at Pittsburgh, Penn., on Feb. 22, 1856, over which Francis P. Blair, of Maryland, presided. It put forth an elaborate statement of the principles and purposes of the Republican party. They declared that for many years the powers of the national government had been "systematically wielded for the promotion and extension of the interests of slavery, in direct hostility to the letter and spirit of the Constitution, in flagrant disregard of other great interests of the country, and in open contempt of the public sentiment of the American people and of the Christian world." Opposition to the spread of slavery in the Republic was the strong feature of this party now organized, and a convention to nominate candidates for the Presidency of the United States was called to meet at Philadelphia in June following. It convened, and Henry S. Lane, of Indiana, was chosen chairman of the convention. A platform was adopted, the substance of which was as follows: 1. The Constitution must be preserved. 2. The existence of any constitutional power to give legal continuance to slavery was denied. 3. The sovereignty of Congress over all territories was affirmed, and the exercise of its power to prohibit slavery and polygamy was demanded. 4. It declared that the rights of the people had been violated under the sanction and procurement of the administration. 5. It urged the admission of Kansas into the Union under its free constitution. 6. The principles in respect to foreign policy contained in the Ostend Manifesto (which see) were denounced. 7. The construction of a railway to the Pacific through the aid of the national government was advocated. 8. Government appropriations for internal improvements were favored. 9. Men of all parties were asked to co-operate with the Republicans, and it repudiated legislation which interfered with the liberty of conscience and the equal rights of citizens. The convention nominated for President of the United States John C. Frémont, of California, and William L. Dayton, of New Jersey, for Vice-President. On the 12th of June (1856) the seceders from the nominating convention of the American, or Know-nothing,

party, calling themselves "North Americans," met in convention in New York and presented to the Republican convention the name of N. P. Banks, of Massachusetts, for President, and W. F. Johnson, for Vice-President. After the Republican convention the North Americans formally nominated John C. Frémont and W. F. Johnson for President and Vice-President. The national nominating convention of the Democratic party—a party formed in 1829— assembled at Cincinnati (June 2, 1856), with J. E. Ward, of Georgia, as chairman. Their platform condemned all political organizations based upon religious principles or accidental birth-place (aimed at the American, or Know-nothing, party [which see]); recognized the principles of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, as the only safe solution of the slavery question; affirmed the duty of firmly upholding "state rights" (state supremacy) and the Union; deprecated monopolies and partial legislation; recommended a firm adherence to the compromises of the Constitution; affirmed the Monroe doctrine, and assented generally to that of the Ostend Manifesto. On the 5th the convention nominated James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, for President, and John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. Three candidates for President were now in the field—Buchanan, Frémont, and Fillmore. The Democratic and Republican candidates adopted their respective platforms; Mr. Fillmore referred his countrymen to his past acts as the exponents of his principles. Buchanan and Breckinridge were elected, receiving the electoral votes of nineteen states. Frémont and Dayton received the votes of eleven states; and Fillmore and Johnson the votes of one state—Maryland.

Presidential Nominations and Election (1860). The Democratic national convention assembled at Charleston April 23, 1860, and, after a stormy session and the secession of Southern delegates, it reassembled at Baltimore, June 18, and nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, for President, and Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, for Vice-President. The Southern seceders also assembled at Baltimore, June 23, 1860, and nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for President, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon, for Vice-President. A recent political organization, calling themselves the "National Constitutional party," had already met in delegate convention in Baltimore (May 9, 1860), over which ex-Governor Washington Hunt presided. They adopted as their platform the national Constitution, with the legend—"The Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement of the laws." They nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, for President, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. On May 16 a vast concourse of Republicans assembled in a building erected in Chicago for the purpose, called "The Wigwag," to nominate a Republican candidate for the Presidency. George Ashmun, of Massachusetts, presided over the convention. They adopted a platform of principles in the form of seventeen resolutions, in which it was declared that each state has the absolute right of control in the manage-

ment of its own domestic concerns; that the new dogma, that the national Constitution, of its own force, carries slavery into any or all of the territories of the United States, was a dangerous political heresy, revolutionary in its tendency, and subversive of the peace and harmony of the country; that the normal condition of all the territories of the United States is that of freedom, and that neither Congress nor a territorial legislature nor any individuals have authority to give legal existence to slavery in any territory in the United States; and that the reopening of the African slave-trade (then recently commenced in the Southern States under the cover of our national flag, aided by a perversion of judicial power) was a crime against humanity and a burning shame to our country and age. On the 19th the convention proceeded to ballot for a candidate for the Presidency of the United States. Henry S. Lane, of Indiana, nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for that high office; and on the third ballot he was chosen as the standard-bearer of the Republican party. Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, was nominated for Vice-President. There were now four candidates for President in the field. The candidate of the Republicans, who declared freedom to be the normal condition of all territory, and that slavery could exist only by authority of municipal law, was Abraham Lincoln. The candidate of the radical pro-slavery wing of the Democratic party, who declared that no power existed that might lawfully control slavery in the territories, and that it was the duty of the national government to protect the institution, was John C. Breckinridge. The candidate of the wing of the divided Democratic party whose platform assumed not to know positively whether slavery might or might not have lawful existence in the territories, but expressed a willingness to abide by the decision of the Supreme Court in all cases, was Stephen A. Douglas. The candidate of the National Constitutional Union party, which declined to express any opinion upon any subject, was John Bell. The conflict was desperate from July until November, when Abraham Lincoln and Hannibal Hamlin were elected. Of three hundred and three presidential electors chosen, one hundred and eighty voted for Mr. Lincoln. An analysis of the popular vote showed that three fourths of the whole number were given by men opposed to the extension of the slave-labor system. This significant fact notified the supporters of the slave system that the days of their long political domination in the councils of the nation had ended, perhaps forever, and they acted accordingly.

Presidential Nominations (1872). Early in the year several political national conventions were held for the purpose of nominating candidates for the Presidency. The first was that of the "Labor Reform party," held at Columbus, O., in February, and nominated David Davis, of Illinois, one of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, for President. He declined, and Charles O'Connor of New York, was nominated. In April a national convention of

colored men was held in New Orleans, but refrained from nominating a candidate. A movement, begun in Missouri in 1870, for a union of Democrats and so-called "Liberal Republicans," culminated in the spring and summer of 1872 in the fusion of these two political elements. On the 1st of May a national convention of Liberal Republicans assembled at Cincinnati and nominated the late Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune*, for President, and B. Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for Vice-President. The regular Republican Convention assembled at Philadelphia June 5, and nominated President Grant for re-election, and Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. On July 9 a Democratic national convention assembled at Baltimore and adopted the nominees of the Liberal Republicans (Greeley and Brown) by an almost unanimous vote. The opposition party expected much strength from the coalition, but failed. Grant and Wilson were elected, the former by a larger majority than he received at his first election. They were inaugurated on March 4, 1873.

Presidential Titles. On the day when Washington arrived in New York as President-elect (April 23, 1789) the Senate appointed a committee to confer with such committee as the House might appoint as to what titles, if any, it would be proper to annex to the office of President and Vice-President. The joint-committee reported that it would not be proper to use any other than that "expressed in the Constitution"—"plain" President and Vice-President. The Senate was not satisfied, and referred the subject to a new committee, who reported in favor of adopting the style of "His Highness the President of the United States, and Protector of their Liberties." A long and animated debate ensued in the House, when a proposition was made to appoint a new committee to confer with that of the Senate. The House finally appointed a committee. To this the Senate responded, but no report was ever made. The House had already carried their views into practice by addressing Washington, in reply to his first message, as "President of the United States." The Senate saw fit to follow the example. Before long it became common to prefix the title "His Excellency."

President's March, THE. President Washington and his family attended the little theatre in John Street, New York, occasionally by particular desire of the manager. On these occasions the play-bills would be headed "BY PARTICULAR DESIRE," and the house would be crowded with as many to see Washington as the play. On one of these occasions, on the entering of the President, he was greeted with a new air by the orchestra, composed by a German musician named Fayles (1789), which was called *The President's March*, in contradistinction to *The March of the Revolution*, then very popular. Ever afterwards this air was played by the orchestra when the President entered the theatre. But the public would call for *The March of the Revolution* as soon as *The President's March* was end-

ed. The latter air is now known as *Hail Columbia* (which see).

Presidents' Messages. Washington and Adams, like the monarchs of England, read their speeches at the opening of the national Legislature in person; but the inaugural address of Jefferson, which was more to the people than to Congress, was the last delivered orally. After that his messages at the opening of Congress and on special occasions, made in writing, were sent to the presiding officer of the House addressed, by his private secretary—a practice ever since followed. Jefferson also discontinued the practice of holding levees, but it was reintroduced by Madison and his charming wife after he became President.

Presidents of the United States. The union of the English-American colonies and the formation of the Republic of the United States was begun at the organization of the First Continental Congress, in 1774. The Presidents of that and succeeding Congresses properly rank as Presidents of the United States. So ranking, *Peyton Randolph*, of Virginia, was chosen the first President, in September, 1774. He was succeeded by *Henry Middleton*, of South Carolina, Oct. 23, 1774, on account of Mr. Randolph's sickness. He served only three days, when the Congress adjourned. On May 19, 1775, *John Hancock*, of Massachusetts, was chosen President, and held the office until the autumn of 1777. *Henry Laurens*, of South Carolina, became President Nov. 1, 1777. *John Jay*, of New York, succeeded Laurens, Dec. 10, 1778, soon after which the latter was appointed minister to Holland. *Samuel Huntington*, of Connecticut, was chosen President Sept. 28, 1779, when Jay was appointed minister to Spain. He was succeeded by *Thomas McKean*, of Pennsylvania, July 10, 1781, who, in turn, gave place to *John Hanson*, of Maryland, Nov. 5, 1781. *Elias Boudinot*, of Huguenot descent, a native of Philadelphia, was chosen President Nov. 5, 1782. *Thomas Mifflin*, also a native of Philadelphia, was chosen President Oct. 3, 1783, and was followed by *Richard Henry Lee*, of Virginia, Nov. 30, 1784. *Nathaniel Gorham*, of Massachusetts, followed Lee, by appointment, June 6, 1786, and gave place to General *Arthur St. Clair*, Feb. 2, 1787. *Cyrus Griffin*, chosen Jan. 22, 1788, to succeed St. Clair, who was appointed Governor of the Northwest Territory, was the last of the Presidents of the Continental Congress, which expired March 4, 1789. Then the new government, under the national Constitution, went into operation, and *George Washington*, who had been chosen President, became the first chief magistrate of the new nation.

Presidents and Vice-Presidents of the United States. The table on the following page presents information of interest concerning the chief magistrates of our Republic from Washington, in 1797, to Harrison, in 1889, a period of more than ninety years, during which time the marvellous expansion and strength of the United States have made it a leading member among the family of nations.

Presque Isle, FORT, was the chief point of

No.	PRESIDENTS.	Residence when Elected.	Born.	Died.	When Inaugurated.	VICE PRESIDENTS.
1	George Washington.....	Va.	1732	1799	1789	John Adams.
2	John Adams.....	Mass.	1735	1826	1797	Thomas Jefferson.
3	Thomas Jefferson.....	Va.	1743	1826	1801	{ Aaron Burr. George Clinton. George Clinton. Elbridge Gerry.
4	James Madison.....	Va.	1751	1836	1809	{ Daniel D. Tomkins. John C. Calhoun. John C. Calhoun.
5	James Monroe.....	Va.	1758	1831	1817	{ Martin Van Buren. Richard M. Johnson.
6	John Q. Adams.....	Mass.	1767	1848	1825	John Tyler.
7	Andrew Jackson.....	Tenn.	1767	1845	1829	George M. Dallas.
8	Martin Van Buren.....	N. Y.	1782	1862	1837	Millard Fillmore.
9	William H. Harrison.....	Ohio.	1773	1841	1841	
10	John Tyler.....	Va.	1790	1862	1841	
11	James K. Polk.....	Tenn.	1795	1849	1845	William R. King.
12	Zachary Taylor.....	La.	1784	1850	1849	{ J. C. Breckinridge. Hannibal Hamlin.
13	Millard Fillmore.....	N. Y.	1800	1874	1850	{ Andrew Johnson.
14	Franklin Pierce.....	N. H.	1804	1869	1853	
15	James Buchanan.....	Penn.	1791	1868	1857	{ Schuyler Colfax. Henry Wilson.
16	Abraham Lincoln.....	Ill.	1809	1865	1861	William A. Wheeler.
17	Andrew Johnson.....	Tenn.	1808	1875	1865	Chester A. Arthur.
18	Ulysses S. Grant.....	Ill.	1822	1885	1869	Thos. A. Hendricks.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes.....	Ohio.	1822	1877	Levi P. Morton.
20	James A. Garfield.....	Ohio.	1831	1881	1881	
21	Chester A. Arthur.....	N. Y.	1830	1887	1881	
22	Grover Cleveland.....	N. Y.	1837	1885	
23	Benjamin Harrison.....	Indiana.	1833	1889	

communication between Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh) and Fort Niagara. It was on the site of Erie, Penn. It was garrisoned by twenty-four men. On June 20, 1763, it was attacked by Indians, and, after defending it two days, the commander, paralyzed by terror, surrendered the post. Several of the garrison were murdered, and the commander and a few others were carried to Detroit. (*See Pontiac's War.*) Here was erected one of the chain of French forts in the wilderness which excited the alarm and jealousy of the English colonists in America and the government at home. It was intended by the French as an important entrepot of supplies for the interior forts.

Preston, WILLIAM, was born near Louisville, Ky., Oct. 16, 1816; died in 1862. He served, in the war against Mexico, as lieutenant-colonel of Kentucky volunteers, and afterwards was in his state Legislature. In 1851 he was elected to Congress, and in March, 1859, President Buchanan appointed him envoy-extraordinary to the court of Spain. When the Civil War broke out, Mr. Preston resigned his office, and hastened home to join the Secessionists of Kentucky in efforts to carry that state out of the Union. At the Secession Convention at Russellville, he was appointed a commissioner to visit Richmond, and negotiate for the admission of Kentucky into the Confederacy, and accepted the commission of brigadier-general in the Confederate army. He was aid to his brother-in-law, General A. Sidney Johnston, at the battle of Shiloh (which see), and he served under Bragg in his invasion of Kentucky.

Prevost, AUGUSTINE, was born at Geneva, Switzerland; died at Barnet, Eng., May 5, 1768. He served as captain under Wolfe at Quebec. He came to America, a British colonel, in 1778, and distinguished himself in Georgia (see *Sunbury and Brier Creek, Battle at*), especially in his defence of Savannah, in 1779, for which he was promoted to major-general. (*See Siege of Savannah.*) He had made an unsuccessful attempt to

capture Charleston a few months before.

Prevost, SIR GEORGE.

was born in New York, May 19, 1767; died in England, Jan. 5, 1816. He entered the army in his youth, and served with distinction in the military operations of the British in the West Indies, especially at St. Lucia. In January, 1805, he was made a major-general, and in November a baronet. He was second in command at the capture of Martinique (1808), and the same year he became Governor of Nova Scotia. He was made lieutenant-general in 1811, and in June of that year he succeeded Sir James Craig as

Governor of Canada, which office he retained until his return to England, in 1814. He ably defended Canada in the War of 1812-15. With a large force of Wellington's veterans, he invaded New York in September, 1814, and was defeated in battle at Plattsburg on the 11th. (*See Plattsburg, Battles at, on Land and Water.*)

Prevost's Flight from Plattsburg. The cause of the sudden panic of the British troops at Plattsburg, and their precipitous flight on the night of the battle there (*see Plattsburg, Battles at, on Land and Water*), was inexplicable. The late Rev. Eleazar Williams (which see) informed the writer that it was the result of a clever trick arranged by him (Williams), who was then in the military service, as commander of a secret corps of observation, or "spies," as they were called in the Western Army. Governor Chittenden, of Vermont, restrained the militia of his state from leaving it. A few days before the battle, an officer (Colonel Fassett) from that state assured Macomb that the militia would cross the lake in spite of the governor. After the officer left, Williams suggested to Macomb that a letter from Fassett, declaring that a heavy body of militia were about to cross the lake, sent so as to fall into the hands of the British general, would have a salutary effect. Macomb directed Williams to carry out the plan. He went over to Burlington, and received from Fassett a letter to Macomb, in which he said Chittenden was marching with 10,000 men for St. Albans, that 5000 men were marching from St. Lawrence County, and that 4000 from Washington County were in motion. This letter Williams placed in the hands of a shrewd Irishwoman at Cumberland Head, who took it to Prevost just after the battle at Plattsburg had ended. Prevost, who was naturally timid, was greatly alarmed by the "intercepted" letter, and at a little past midnight his whole army were flying in haste towards the Canada frontier.

Price on Liberty. Dr. Price (*see Price, Richard*), in his essay entitled *Observations on Civil*

Liberty and the Justice and Policy of the War with America, defined liberty to be a government of laws made by common consent. Around this definition clustered his arguments. But his masterly plea (like that of all others) for the Americans was unavailing, though his tract had great influence at home, in applying to the actual condition of the representation of his own country the principle on which America justified her resistance. He raised a cry of reform which proved the death-knell of many abuses. Tories and Churchmen denounced him as an enemy to the throne and Christianity, and caricature was employed in vain against him. A print by Gillray exhibited Price, Priestley, and others tearing in pieces acts of Parliament and pulling down churches. Under the picture were these lines:

"From such implacable tormentors,
Fanatics, hypocrites, dissenters,
Cruel in power, and restless out,
And, when most factious, most devout,
May God preserve the Church and throne,
And George the good that sits thereon,
Nor may their plots exclude his heirs
From reigning, when the right is theirs!
For should the foot the head command,
And faction gain the upperhand,
We may expect a ruined land."

Price, RICHARD, D.D., LL.D., a British author, was born at Tynton, Glamorganshire, Wales, Feb. 23, 1723; died in London, March 19, 1791. He was a dissenting minister, and was connected with churches at Stoke-Newington and Hackney, as pastor and preacher, from 1743 until a short time before his death. He wrote much and well on morals, politics, and political and social economy. His *Appeal on the Subject of the National Debt* is said to have been the foundation of Pitt's Sinking Fund scheme. In 1776 he published *Observations on Civil Liberty and the Justice and Policy of the War with America*. It was a powerful plea for justice and right, and sixty thousand copies were distributed. The corporation of London gave him a vote of thanks and the freedom of the city; and in 1778 the American Congress invited him to become a citizen of the United States, and to aid them in the management of their finances, promising him a liberal remuneration. In 1783 Yale College conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D., and in 1784 he published *Observations on the Importance of the American Revolution*. His philosophical writings procured for him a fellowship in the Royal Society in 1764.

Price, STERLING, was born in Prince Edward County, Va., in September, 1809; died at St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 29, 1867. He was a member of Congress from Missouri (where he settled in 1830) in 1845, was colonel of Missouri cavalry in the war against Mexico, and in 1847 was made a brigadier-general and military governor of Chihuahua. He was Governor of Missouri from 1853 to 1857, and President of the State Convention in February, 1861. He was made general-in-chief of Missouri, and served the Confederacy faithfully as a leader of insurgent forces throughout the Civil War. At the close of the war he went to Mexico, but returned to Missouri in 1867, and died soon afterwards.

Prideaux, JOHN, was born in Devonshire, Eng., in 1718; died at Niagara, July 19, 1759. Son of Sir John Prideaux, he entered the army, and was appointed captain in 1745, colonel in 1758, and brigadier-general in 1759. Intrusted with the duty of reducing Fort Niagara, he led a strong force against it, and during a siege he was instantly killed by the bursting of a cannon.

Prince Regent, MANIFESTO OF THE. (See *Manifesto of the Prince Regent.*)

Prince (or Prence), THOMAS, Governor of Plymouth Colony, was born in England in 1601; died at Plymouth, Mass., March 29, 1673. He arrived in America in 1628, and was either Assistant (which see) or Governor of Plymouth from 1634 to 1673. He was one of the first settlers at Nauset, or Eastham, in 1644, and lived there until 1663. He was a zealous opposer of the Quakers, as heretics, though not a persecutor of them, and was an earnest champion of popular education. In spite of the opposition and clamors of the ignorant, he procured resources for the support of grammar-schools in the colony.

Prince, THOMAS, chronologist, was born at Sandwich, Mass., May 15, 1687; died in Boston, Oct. 22, 1758. He graduated at Harvard College in 1707. He was a minister of the Gospel, and, going to England in 1709, he preached there until 1717, when he returned to America, and was ordained minister of the "Old South Church," Boston (1718), as colleague of Dr. Sewall. In 1703 Mr. Prince began a collection of private and public papers relating to the civil and religious history of New England, and continued these labors for fifty years. These he published in the form of annals (1736 and 1756). The history was brought down only to 1633, as he spent so much time on the introductory epitome, beginning with the creation. His manuscripts were deposited in the Old South Church, and were partially destroyed by the British while they occupied Boston, in 1775-76. The remains, with his books, form a part of the Public Library of Boston.



STERLING PRICE.

Princeton, BATTLE AT. Alarmed by the blow at Trenton (see *Trenton, Battle at*), the British broke up their encampments along the Delaware, and retired to Princeton. Washington thereupon reoccupied Trenton, where he was speedily joined by three thousand six hundred

Pennsylvania militia. At that moment the term of enlistment of the New England regiments expired, but the persuasions of their officers and a bounty of \$10 induced them to remain for six weeks longer. Howe detained Cornwallis (who was about to sail for England), and sent him to take command of the concentrated troops at Princeton, about ten miles northeast of Trenton. Reinforced by troops from New Brunswick, he marched on Trenton (Jan. 2, 1777), where Washington was encamped on high ground east of a small stream, near where it enters the Delaware. After a sharp cannonade at a bridge and a ford, the British encamped, feeling sure of capturing the whole of Washington's army in the morning. The position of the latter was a perilous one. He had five thousand men, half of them militia who had been only a few days in camp. To fight the veterans before him would be madness; to attempt to recross the Delaware in the face of the enemy would be futile. Washington called a council of war, and it was decided to attempt to gain the rear of the enemy during the night, beat up his quarters at Princeton, and, if possible, fall on his stores at New Brunswick. Washington kept his camp-fires brightly burning, sent his baggage silently down the river to Burlington, had small parties throwing up intrenchments within hearing of the British sentinels, and at about midnight, the weather having suddenly become very cold and the ground hard frozen, the whole American army marched

the army had mysteriously disappeared. Faint sounds of cannonading at Princeton reached the ear of Cornwallis at Trenton. Although it was a keen winter morning, he thought it the rumbling of distant thunder. General Erskine more readily comprehended the matter, and exclaimed, "Thunder? To arms, general! Washington has outgeneralled us! Let us fly to the rescue at Princeton!" The army was now on the move in that direction. In the meantime the battle at Princeton was sharp and decisive. Mercer's forces were furiously attacked with the deadly bayonet, and they fled in disorder. The enemy pursued until, on the brow of a hill, they discovered the American regulars and Pennsylvania militia, under Washington, marching to the support of Mercer, who, in trying to rally his men, had his horse disabled under him, and was finally knocked down by a clubbed musket, and mortally wounded. Just then Washington appeared, checked the flight of the fugitives, and, with the help of Moulder's artillery, intercepted the other British regiment. Mawhood saw Washington bring-



VIEW OF THE BATTLE-GROUND NEAR PRINCETON.

away unobserved by the enemy. By a circuitous route, they reached Princeton (Jan. 3, 1777) before sunrise. Two of three British regiments lying at Princeton had just begun their march to join Cornwallis at Trenton. Their commander, Colonel Mawhood, first discovered the approaching Americans, under General Mercer, and a sharp engagement ensued, each having two field-pieces. Meanwhile the British at Trenton were greatly surprised, in the morning, to find their expected prey had escaped. The American camp-fires were still burning, but the lit-

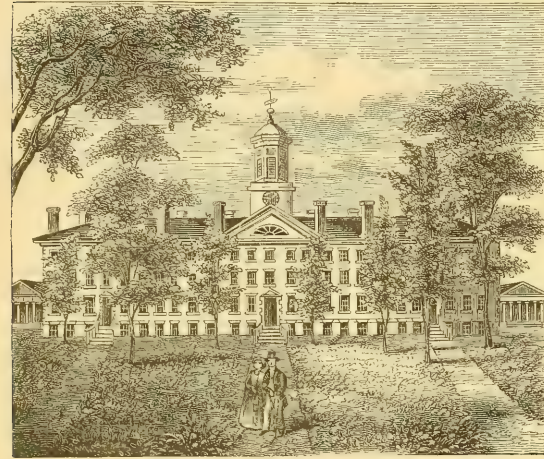
ing order out of confusion, and, charging with his artillery, tried in vain to seize Moulder's cannon. At this onset the Pennsylvanians, first in line, began to waver, when Washington, to encourage them, rode to the forefront of danger. For a moment he was hidden in the battle-smoke, and a shiver of dread lest he had fallen ran through the army. When he appeared, unhurt, a shout of joy rent the air. A fresh force of Americans, under Colonel Hitchcock, came up, and, with Hand's riflemen, were turning the British left, when Mawhood

ordered a retreat. His force (the Seventieth Regiment) fled across the snow-covered fields, leaving two brass cannons behind them. The Fifty-fifth Regiment, which had attempted to reinforce them, were pressed by the New England troops, under Stark, Poor, Patterson, Reed, and others, and were joined in their flight towards New Brunswick by the Fortieth, who had not taken part in the action. A British regiment in the strong stone-built Nassau Hall, of

wife of the first president of Harvard College Under the direction of the authorities at Boston, Day set up the press at Cambridge, and began printing there in January, 1639. Its first production was *The Freeman's Oath*, and the first literary work issued by it was a new metrical version of the Psalms, a revision of those of Sternhold and Hopkins. This was the beginning of book-printing in the United States. It was forty years before another printing-press was set up in this country. The first printing-press at work west of the Alleghany Mountains was in Cincinnati, in 1793, and the first west of the Mississippi was in St. Louis, in 1808.

Printing-press, THE. Wonderful improvements have been made in the construction of printing-presses in the United States within the present century. The press on which Benjamin Franklin worked as a journeyman printer, in 1725, was very little improved until 1817, when George Clymer, of Philadelphia, invented the "Columbian" press. It was the first important improvement. The power was applied by a compound lever. In 1829 Samuel Rast invented the "Washington" press, which superseded others for a while. The dubbing-balls, before used, were succeeded by inking-rollers, and later a self-inking apparatus was used. With that machine a good workman could turn off

two thousand sheets a day. Daniel Treadwell, of Boston, invented the first "power-press," and in 1830 Samuel Adams, of the same city, invented the celebrated "Adams" press, which is still used for fine book-work. It was improved by his son Isaac. Every operation, excepting the feeding of the sheets (and some-

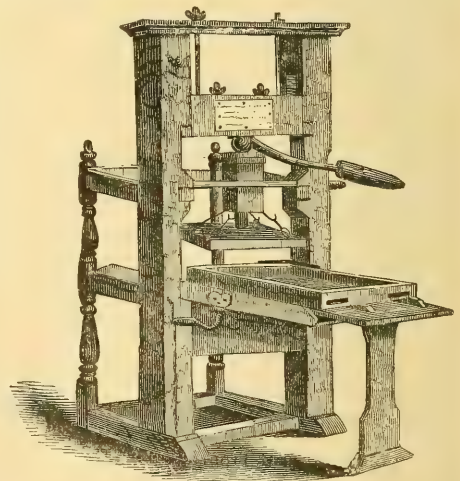


NASSAU HALL, PRINCETON COLLEGE.

the College of New Jersey, was cannonaded, and soon surrendered. In this short but sharp battle the British lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about four hundred and thirty men. The American loss was about one hundred, including Colonels Haslet and Potter, Major Morris, and Captains Shippen, Fleming, and Neal. Mercer died nine days after the battle. When Cornwallis arrived at Princeton, Washington and his little army and prisoners were far on their way towards the Millstone River, in hot pursuit of the Fortieth and Fifty-fifth regiments. Washington relinquished the chase because of the great fatigue of the American soldiers; and moving on to Morristown, in East Jersey, there established the winter-quarters of the army. He was universally applauded. It is said that Frederick the Great, of Prussia, declared that the achievements of Washington and his little band of patriots, between the 25th of December, 1776, and the 4th of January, 1777, were the most brilliant of any recorded in military history.

Pring, MARTIN. (See *New England*.)

Printing. The first printing in America was done in the City of Mexico, in 1539. There were then about two hundred printing-offices in Europe. The second press was set up at Lima, Peru, in 1586, and the third was erected at Cambridge, Mass., in 1639. In 1638 Rev. Jesse Glover started for Massachusetts with his family, having in his care a printing-press given to the colony by some friends in Holland. He was accompanied by Stephen Day, a competent printer. Mr. Glover died on the voyage, and his widow became the



FRANKLIN'S PRESS.

times that) is done automatically. The first "rotary" press for rapid newspaper-printing was made by a German mechanic in London, and used to print the *London Times*, in 1814.

It gave eighteen hundred impressions in an hour. An improved machine was made for the *Times*, in 1848, which threw off ten thousand sheets an hour. The Hoes, of New York, made many and great improvements in printing-machines, and between 1850 and 1860 they made successful attempts to print from a roll of paper, on both sides of the sheet. Difficulties that at first appeared have been overcome, and now the press used for a great daily newspaper will print the paper on both sides and fold it, ready for delivery, at the rate of twenty-five to forty thousand an hour: It was a good day's work when Franklin's old press gave two hundred and fifty impressions an hour.

Printing Prohibited in Virginia. In reply to questions of the Plantation Committee (see *Board of Trade and Plantations*), Governor Berkeley, in 1671, reported: "We have forty-eight parishes, and our ministers are well paid, and by my consent should be better if they would pray oftener and preach less. But as of all other commodities, so of this—the worst are sent out to us; and there are few that we can boast of, since the persecution in Cromwell's tyranny drove divers worthy men from hither. But I thank God there are no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them, and libels against the best government. God keep us from both!" The authorities in Virginia continued to hold this view after Berkeley had left. In 1680 John Buckner, having brought a printing-press to Virginia, printed the laws of that session for a while. Governor Culpepper and his Council called him to account and compelled him to give bonds that he would print no more until his majesty's pleasure should be known. Royal instructions came positively forbidding any printing in the colony. (See *Navigation Acts*.)

Prisoners, EXCHANGE OF, DURING THE CIVIL WAR. At the beginning of the Civil War prisoners were taken on both sides. The question instantly occurred to the government, Can we exchange prisoners with rebels against the national authority without thereby acknowledging the Confederate government, so called, as a government in fact? They could not; but humanity took precedence of policy, and an arrangement was made for an exchange of prisoners. Colonel W. H. Ludlow was chosen for the service by the national government; Robert Ould was chosen by the Confederates. The former commissioner had his headquarters at Fortress Monroe; the latter at Richmond. Prisoners were sent in boats to and from each place. This business went regularly on until it was interrupted by Jefferson Davis near the close of 1862. Because the government chose to use the loyal negroes as soldiers, Davis's fiery anger was kindled. On Dec. 23 he issued a most extraordinary proclamation, the tone of which more than anything else doubtless caused foreign governments to hesitate about

introducing the Confederacy into the family of nations. In it he outlawed a major-general of the Union army (see *Butler in New Orleans and Woman Order, The*), and he directed in that proclamation that all negro soldiers who might be taken prisoners, and all commissioned officers serving in company with them who should be captured, should be handed over to state governments for execution, the negroes as insurgent slaves, the white officers as inciters of servile insurrection. The government felt morally bound to afford equal protection to all its citizen soldiers of whatever hue. When Davis, in a message to the Confederate Congress (Jan. 12, 1863), announced his determination to deliver all white officers commanding negro troops, who might be captured, to state authorities to be hung, and to treat those troops as rebels against their masters, the national Congress took the matter up. Davis's proclamation and message were followed by his instructions to Robert Ould not to consider captive negro soldiers as prisoners of war. After that no quarter was given, in many instances, where colored troops were employed, and the black flag was carried against officers commanding them. The government felt compelled to refuse any more exchanges until the Confederates should treat all prisoners alike. In August, 1863, when the national commissioner of prisoners demanded that negro captives should be treated as prisoners of war and exchanged, Commissioner Ould replied: "We will die in the last ditch before giving up the right to send slaves back to slavery." The Confederate government thus effectually shut the door of exchange, and fearfully increased the number and terrible sufferings of the Union prisoners in their hands. These sufferings have been detailed in official reports, personal narratives, and otherwise; and there seems to be conclusive testimony to show that the order of Davis concerning negro prisoners was to deliberately stop exchanges and enable the Confederates to destroy or permanently disable Union prisoners by the slow process of physical exhaustion, by means of starvation or unwholesome food. General Meredith, commissioner of prisoners at Fortress Monroe, said in a letter: "On the 25th of November I offered to send immediately to City Point 12,000 or more Confederate prisoners, to be exchanged for National soldiers confined in the South. This proposition was distinctly and unequivocally refused by Mr. Ould. And why? Because the damnable plans of the rebel government in relation to our poor captured soldiers had not been fully carried out." The testimony seems clear that the Union prisoners at Richmond, Danville, Salisbury, and Andersonville were subjected to cruelties and poisonous food for the double purpose of crippling and reducing the National force and of striking terror into the Northern population, in order to prevent enlistments. When General John Winder, Davis's general commissary of prisoners, went from Richmond to take charge of the Union prisoners at Andersonville, the *Examiner* of that city exclaimed: "Thank God that Richmond is at last rid of old Winder!

God have mercy upon those to whom he has been sent!" (See *Andersonville and other Confederate Prisons*.) Meanwhile the Confederate prisoners of war had been well fed and humanely treated. This the Confederate authorities well knew; and when, in all the Confederate prisons, the Union captives were no better, as soldiers, than dead men—an army of 40,000 skeletons—Mr. Ould proposed, in a letter to General Butler (Aug. 10, 1864) a resumption of exchange, man for man. And when such resumption began, the difference between Union skeletons and vigorous Confederate soldiers was acknowledged by Ould, who wrote exultingly from City Point to General Winder: "The arrangement I have made works largely in our favor. We get rid of a set of miserable wretches, and receive some of the best material I ever saw." At the middle of autumn (1864) arrangements for special exchanges were made, and Lieutenant-colonel Mulford went with vessels to Savannah to receive and take to Annapolis 12,000 Union prisoners from Andersonville and elsewhere. In these the writer saw (December, 1864) the horrible effects of treatment in Confederate prison-pens. The records of the War Department show that during the war 220,000 Confederate soldiers were captured, of whom 26,436 died of wounds or diseases during their captivity; while, of 126,940 Union soldiers captured, nearly 22,576 died while prisoners—or a little more than 11 per cent. of the Confederates, and more than 17 per cent. of the Unionists.

Prisoners, FIRST EXCHANGE OF. Late in 1776 an arrangement was made for an exchange of prisoners between the Americans and British. The latter had taken about five thousand prisoners, and many of these had suffered terribly in the prisons in and around New York. (See *Prisons and Prison-ships*.) The Americans held about three thousand. At first the British refused to exchange, on the ground that the Americans were rebels; but after Howe's arrival at New York he had opened negotiations on the subject. A good deal of obstruction had occurred on account of the refusal of Congress to fulfil the stipulations made by Arnold at the Cedars. (See *Cedars, Affair at the*.) But finally a cartel was arranged, and a partial exchange was effected early in 1777. As the Americans had no prisoner of equal rank with General Charles Lee (which see), they offered in exchange for him six Hessian field-officers captured at Trenton. Lee was claimed by Howe as a deserter from the British army, and the exchange was at first refused. Howe had received orders to send Lee to England; but the fear of retaliation upon British prisoners, and some important revelations made by Lee, caused him to be kept in America, and finally exchanged for General Robert Prescott. (See *Treason of General Lee*.) There were other reasons for delay in the exchange of prisoners. The prisoners in the hands of the British were returned half-starved and disabled, and Washington refused to send back an equal number of healthy British and Hessian prisoners. Besides, those who came back were

persons whose terms of service generally had expired, and would be lost to the Continental army; while every person sent to the British army was a healthy recruit. For this reason Congress was in no haste to exchange.

Prisoners for Debt. The suffering of prisoners for debt, which impelled General Oglethorpe to propose colonizing a region in America with them, was terrible in the extreme. The writings of Howard and the pencil of Hogarth have vividly depicted them; yet these do not convey an adequate idea of the old debtors' prisons of England. The merchant, unfortunate in his business, was often plunged from affluence and social honor and usefulness to the dreadful dens of filth and misery called prisons. Oglethorpe had stood before one of the victims of the cruel law. He had been a distinguished London alderman, a thrifty merchant, and highly esteemed for his integrity and benevolence. As a "merchant prince," he had been a commercial leader. Great losses made him a bankrupt. His creditors sent him to prison. In a moment he was compelled to leave a happy home, delightful society, and luxurious ease for a loathsome prison-cell, there to herd with debased and criminal society. One by one his friends who could aid him in keeping famine from his wretched abode disappeared, and he was forgotten by the outside world. He had been twenty-three years in jail when Oglethorpe saw him. Gray-haired, ragged, haggard, and perishing with hunger, he lay upon a heap of filthy straw in a dark, damp, unventilated room. His devoted wife, who had shared his misery for eighteen years, had just starved to death, and her body lay in rags by his side, silent and cold. An hour before he had begged his jailer to remove her body to the prison burying-ground. The inhuman wretch, who was acquainted with the prisoner's history, had refused with an oath, and said, with cruel irony, "Send for your alderman's coach to take her to Westminster Abbey!" The scene led to the foundation of the colony of Georgia. (See *Georgia, Colony of*.) The fate of this London alderman was worse than that of the debtors of Greece and Rome, who were sold into slavery by their creditors. Laws for the imprisonment of debtors disgraced the statute-books of our states until within a comparatively few years. When Lafayette visited our country in 1824-25 he found Colonel Barton, the captor of General Prescott in Rhode Island, in a prison for debt, and released him by the payment of the creditor's demand. Robert Morris, whose financial ability was the main dependence of the colonies in carrying on the war for independence, was a prisoner for debt in his old age. Red-Jacket, the Seneca chief, once saw a man put in jail in Batavia, N. Y., for debt. His remark—"He no catch beaver there!"—fully illustrated the unwisdom of such laws; for surely a man in prison cannot earn money to pay a debt. Public attention was thoroughly aroused to the cruelties of the law when John G. Whittier wrote his stirring poem, *The Prisoner for Debt*, in which he thus alluded to Colonel Barton:

"What hath the gray-haired prisoner done?
 Hath murder stained his hands with gore?
 Ah, no! his crime's a fouler one—
God made the old man poor.
 For this he shares a felon's cell,
 The fittest earthly type of hell!
 For this, the boon for which he poured
 His young blood on the invader's sword,
 And counted light the fearful cost—
 His blood-gained liberty is lost!

* * * * *
 "Down with the law that binds him thus!
 Unworthy freemen, let it find
 No refuge from the withering curse
 Of God and human kind!
 Open the prisoner's living tomb,
 And usher from its brooding gloom
 The victims of your savage code
 To the free sun and air of God!
 No longer dare as crime to brand
 The chastening of the Almighty's hand!"

It is believed that this poem did much to bring about a repeal of the cruel laws of imprisonment for debt. It was abolished in the State of New York, except in certain specified cases, in the year 1831. Such laws have since been gradually dropped from the statute-books of other states; and now the legislation of the State of New York may be assumed, in its general features, as the prevalent system throughout the United States in respect to the coercive remedy for the collection of debts by process against the person.

Prisoners from Quebec. The prisoners of war captured at Quebec Dec. 31, 1775, five hundred in number, and released on parole by Carleton, arrived at Elizabethtown Point, N. J., on Sept. 24, 1776. They were so overjoyed on reaching the shore, just before midnight, that they could not sleep, "but ran a race to Elizabethtown," and "passed the night in singing, dancing, screaming, and raising the Indian halloo from excess of joy." Among them was Colonel Daniel Morgan, the intrepid leader of riflemen, who was soon afterwards exchanged.

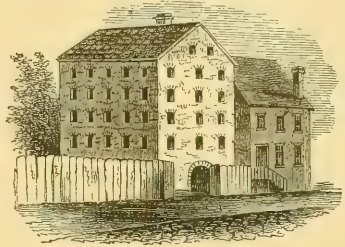
Prisoners of War, MEASURES FOR RELEASE OF. On April 15, 1783, Congress resolved "That the agent of mariners cause all the naval prisoners to be set at liberty;" also, "That the Secretary of War, in conjunction with the commander-in-chief, make proper arrangements for setting at liberty all land prisoners."

Prisons and Prison ships, BRITISH, AT NEW YORK. The British in New York confined the American prisoners of war in various large buildings, the most spacious of which were



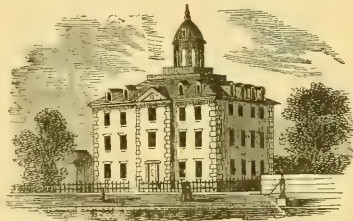
VAN CORTLANDT'S SUGAR-HOUSE.

streets, were confined at one time eight hundred prisoners; and in the Middle Dutch Church, corner of Nassau and Liberty streets, room was made for three thousand prisoners. Both churches were stripped of their pews, and floors were laid from one gallery to the other. Smaller churches were used for hospitals. Rhinelanders', Van Cortlandt's, and Livingston's sugar-houses contained hundreds of



SUGAR-HOUSE IN LIBERTY STREET.

prisoners, whose sufferings for want of fresh air, food, and cleanliness were dreadful. Under Commissaries Loring, Sproat, and others, and particularly under the infamous Provost-marshal Cunningham, the prisoners in these buildings and the provost jail received the most



PROVOST JAIL.

brutal treatment. Hundreds died and were cast into pits without any funeral ceremonies. The heat of summer was suffocating in the sugar-house prisons. "I saw," says Dunlap, in describing the one in Liberty Street, "every narrow aperture of those stone walls filled with human heads, face above face, seeking a portion of the external air." For many weeks the dead-cart visited this prison (a fair type of the others), into which from eight to twelve corpses were flung and piled up. They were then dumped into ditches in the outskirts of the city and covered with earth by their fellow-prisoners, who were detailed for the work. The prison-ships—dismantled old hulks—lying in the waters around the city, were more intolerable than the prisons on land. Of these, the *Jersey*, lying at the Wallabout, near the site of the Brooklyn Navy-yard, was the most famous. She was the hulk of a 64-gun ship, in which more than a thousand prisoners were sometimes confined at one time. There they suffered indescribable horrors from unwholesome food, foul air, filth, and vermin, and from small-pox, dysentery, and prison-fever that slew them by scores. Despair reigned there incessantly,

churches and sugar-houses. In the North Dutch Church, corner of Fulton and William

for their treatment was generally brutal in the extreme. Every night the living, dying, and dead were huddled together. At sunset each day was heard the savage order, accompanied by horrid imprecations, "Down, rebels, down!" and in the morning the significant cry, "Rebels, turn out your dead!" The latter were selected from the living, sewed up in blankets, carried on shore, and buried in shallow graves in the sand. Full eleven thousand were so taken from the *Jersey* and buried during the war. In 1808



THE JERSEY PRISON-SHIP.

the bones of these martyrs were gathered by the Tammany Society and placed in a vault near the entrance to the navy-yard, and a few years ago a magnificent monument was erected and dedicated to their memory in Trinity Church-yard, near Broadway.

Private Taxation in Virginia. In 1662, by a reorganization of the judiciary in Virginia, the governor and council became the highest tribunal, and these were all appointed, directly or indirectly, by the crown. In each county were eight empowered justices of the peace, appointed by the governor during his pleasure, who held monthly courts in their respective counties. The administration of justice in the counties was in the hands of persons holding these offices at the good-will of the governor, while the governor himself and his council constituted the General Court. The county courts, thus made independent of the people, exercised the arbitrary power of levying county taxes, which, in amount, generally exceeded the public levy. The commissioners themselves levied taxes to meet their own expenses; and, in like manner, the self-perpetuating vestries made out their lists of taxables, and assessed taxes without the consent of the parish. These private taxes, unequal and oppressive, were seldom audited; and the power was often exercised by men who combined to defraud the public.

Privateering. This is really legalized piracy—the right given to private individuals to roam the ocean and seize and plunder the vessels of an enemy in time of war. It is still the accepted rule among nations. On this subject Thomas Jefferson wrote (July 4, 1812) after the declaration of war, and after asking "What is war?" answered, "It is simply a contest between nations of trying which can do the other the most harm." Again he asked, "Who carries on war?" and answered, "Armies are formed and navies manned by individuals. What produces peace? The distress of individuals. What difference to the sufferer is it that his property is taken by a national or private armed vessel? Did our merchants, who have lost 917 vessels by British

captures, feel any gratification that most of them were taken by his majesty's men-of-war? Were the spoils less rigidly enforced by a 74-gun ship than by a privateer of 4 guns, and were not all equally condemned? . . . In the United States every possible encouragement should be given to privateering in time of war with a commercial nation. We have tens of thousands of seamen that without it would be destitute of the means of support and useless to their country." The same argument was used by the Dey of Algiers when Colonel Humphreys remonstrated against his piratical expeditions, and exhorted him to make peace with the United States. "If I were to make peace with everybody," he said, "what should I do with my corsairs? what should I do with my soldiers? They would take off my head for the want of other prizes, not being able to live on their miserable allowance." Mr. Jefferson continued, "Our national ships are too few in number to give employment to one twentieth part of them [the seamen], or retaliate the acts of the enemy. By licensing private armed vessels, the whole naval force of the nation is truly brought to bear on the foe; and while the contest lasts, that it may have the speedier termination, let every individual contribute his mite in the best way he can to distress and harass the enemy and compel him to peace."

Privateering in the Revolution. Early in the war privateering was entered upon with much zeal and vigor by the Americans, especially by the New-Englanders (see *Privateering*); and the scarcity produced by the interruption of regular commerce was partially supplied by successful cruisers. It was kept up during the whole war. Shares in vessels practising it were held by many of the leaders in the revolutionary struggle. Robert Morris made large profits by the business, and Washington was part owner of one or more privateers. The homeward-bound British vessels from the West Indies, deeply laden, and passing a long distance along the American coast, offered rich and tempting prizes. In the first year of this naval warfare nearly three hundred and fifty British vessels had been captured, worth, with their cargoes, \$5,000,000.

Privateers Authorized (1776). When the act of Parliament prohibiting all trade with the colonies and confiscating their ships and effects as if they were the ships and effects of open enemies was received by Congress, the first instinct was to retaliate. On March 16 (1776) a committee of the whole considered the propriety of authorizing the inhabitants of the colonies to fit out privateers. Franklin expressed a wish that such an act should be preceded by a declaration of war, as of one independent nation against another. Two days afterwards, after an able debate, privateers were authorized to cruise against ships and their cargoes belonging to any inhabitant, not of Ireland and the West Indies, but of Great Britain. All New England and New York, Virginia, and North Carolina voted for it. Maryland and Pennsylvania voted against it. On the following day (March 19), Wythe,

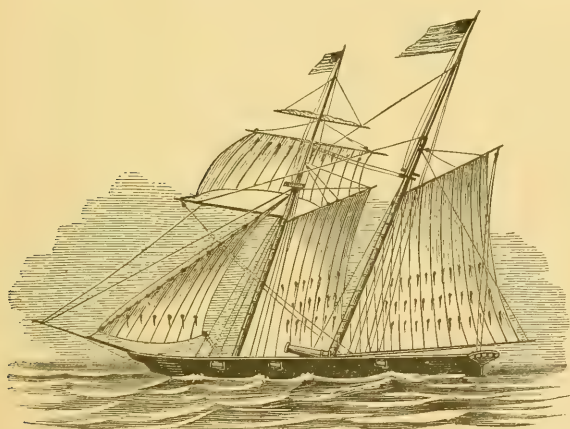
Jay, and Wilson were appointed to prepare a preamble to the resolutions, and when on the 22d Lee presented their report (being in the minority), he moved an amendment, charging the king himself with their grievances, inasmuch as he had "rejected their petitions with scorn and contempt." This was new and bold ground, and was objected to as severing the king from the colonies. Never before had they disclaimed allegiance to their monarch, and Congress hesitated; but on the following day (the 23d) the amendment was accepted. This was nearly three months before Lee offered his resolution for independence. He voted for this amendment.

Privateers, EXPLOITS OF AMERICAN. The records of the American privateers during the War of 1812-15 show the wonderful boldness and skill of American seamen, most of them untaught in the art of naval warfare and the general character of privateering service. After the first six months of the war most of the naval conflicts on the ocean were carried on, on the part of the Americans, by private armed vessels, which "took, burned, and destroyed" about 1600 British merchantmen of all classes in the space of three years and nine months, while the number of American merchant-vessels destroyed during the same period by British privateers did not vary much from 500. The American armed vessels which caused such disasters to British commerce numbered about 250. Of these, 46 were letters-of-marque (which see), and the remainder were privateers. This was 115 less than were enrolled while there were difficulties with France in the years 1789 and 1799. The number of private armed vessels then was 365. Of the whole number in 1812-15, 184 were sent out from the four ports of Baltimore, New York, Boston, and Salem. The aggregate number sent out from Portsmouth, N. H., Philadelphia, and Charleston, was 35. The remainder went out from other ports. The "clippers"

schooners with raking masts. They usually carried from six to ten guns, with a single long one, which was called "Long Tom," mounted on a swivel in the centre. They were usually manned with fifty persons besides officers, all armed with muskets, cutlasses, and boarding pikes, and commissioned to "burn, sink, and destroy the property of the enemy, either on the high seas or in his ports." A complete history of American privateering would fill several volumes; an outline of it is contained in Coggeshall's *History of American Privateers*, in one volume. The most famous and desperate combat recorded in the history of American privateering is that of the *General Armstrong*, Captain S. C. Reid, in September, 1814. (See *General Armstrong, The Privateer*.)

Privy Council. Formerly a body of men selected by the kings of England for their chief advisers and executors. First it was a small permanent committee selected out of the great council of the kingdom, which was composed of all the great tenants of the crown. It appears in the early rolls of Parliament as a permanent council, and under the Plantagenet monarchs it consisted of the five great officers of state, the two archbishops, and from ten to fifteen other persons, spiritual or temporal, sitting constantly as a court, and invested with extensive powers. Under the Stuarts, the Star-chamber Court and Court of Requests were committees of the Privy Council. The privy-councillors are chosen by the king without patent or grant. Under Charles II. their number, which had become large, was reduced (1679) to thirty. It soon became indefinite again and so continued. Those only who were specially summoned ever attended its meetings. Under its jurisdiction the king, in council, might issue proclamations binding on the subject if consonant with the laws of the land; temporarily regulate various matters of trade and international intercourse; inquire

into offences against the government and commit offenders to take their trial according to law, and had appellate jurisdiction in the last resort from all the colonies. The lord-president of the council was the fourth great officer of state. This office was created by Henry VIII. In the reign of William IV. a judicial committee of the Privy Council was constituted with high powers. It consisted of the chief-justice of the king's bench, the master of the rolls, the vice-chancellor of England, and several other persons, *ex officio*, and any two privy-councillors might be added by the sovereign. The function of advisers of the sovereign in all weighty matters is now discharged by the cabinet, or ministers of state.



CLIPPER-BUILT PRIVATEER SCHOONER.

were the fastest sailers and most successful of the privateers. These were mostly built at Baltimore, or for parties in that city, and were known as "Baltimore clippers." They were

Prize-money, DISTRIBUTION OF. At the beginning of the second war for independence (which see), Congress decreed that in the distribution of prize-money arising from the captures by national vessels, one half should go

to the United States, and the other half, divided into twenty equal parts, should be distributed in the following manner: to captains, three parts; to the lieutenants and sailing-masters, two parts; to the marine officers, surgeons, pursers, boatswains, gunners, carpenters, master's mates, and chaplains, two parts; to midshipmen, surgeon's mates, captain's clerks, school-masters, boatswain's mates, gunner's mates, carpenter's mates, stewards, sail-makers, masters-at-arms, armorers, and coxswains, three parts; to gunner's yeomen, boatswain's yeomen, quartermasters, quarter-gunners, coopers, sail-maker's mates, sergeants and corporals of marines, drummers and fifers, and extra petty officers, three parts; to seamen, ordinary seamen, marines and boys, seven parts.

Procès Verbal, the French term for an official report or record of proceedings in a court of justice or elsewhere. The French discoverers and explorers in America set up a cross and a column, and placed the royal arms of France upon the latter, and then proclaimed the country discovered to be a part of the dominions of France. Then a report of the whole proceedings was written and signed by the leader and his companions. (See *La Salle, Robert, Cavalier de.*) Sometimes they deposited a tablet of lead with an appropriate inscription. La Salle did so at the mouth of the Mississippi, and in the next century Céloron, who led a French expedition from Canada to the Ohio country (1749), buried several of them at different points as an enduring *procès verbal*. One of these plates, stolen by an Indian from the French interpreter at Fort Niagara, was taken to Colonel (afterwards General) William Johnson by a Cayuga sachem for an interpretation of its meaning. The following is a translation of the inscription: "In the year 1749, of the reign of Louis XV., King of France, we, Céloron, commander of a detachment sent by Monsieur the Marquis de la Galissonière, Governor-general of New France, to re-establish tranquillity in some Indian villages of these cantons, have buried this plate of lead at the confluence of the Ohio and Chautauqua* this 29th day of July, near the river Ohio, otherwise *Belle Rivière*, as a monument of the renewal of the possession we have taken of the said river Ohio, and of all those which empty into it, and of all the lands on both sides as far as the sources of said rivers, as enjoyed or ought to have been enjoyed by the kings of France preceding, and as they have there maintained themselves by arms and by treaties, especially those of Utrecht and Aix-la-Chapelle." This inscription revealed the designs of the French. The plate was sent to the royal governor of New York (George Clinton), and by him to the British government. He sent copies of the inscription to other colonial governors, and Colonel Johnson told the Five Nations that it implied an attempt to deprive them of their lands, and that the French ought to be immediately expelled from the Ohio and Niagara. One of the plates buried by Céloron

near the mouth of the Muskingum River was found by some boys near the close of the last century. A part of it was used for bullets; the preserved fragment is now in the library of the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester, Mass. Near the mouth of the Great Kanawha River, W. Va., another leaden *procès verbal*, buried by Céloron, was found by a boy in 1846. (See *Céloron's Expedition.*)

Proclamation by General and Admiral Howe. Foiled in their attempt at peace negotiations, the Howes issued a proclamation to the people of the colonies, in which they declared the intention of the British government to revise the instructions to the royal governors, and all acts of Parliament by which the colonists might think themselves aggrieved. They called on the people to judge for themselves whether it were not better to rely upon this promise and return to their allegiance than to sacrifice themselves to the unjust and precarious cause in which they were engaged. Influenced by this proclamation, many patriotic inhabitants of New Jersey took protection from the British authorities. The enlistment of Tories went on briskly under the shield of this proclamation, and Oliver De Lancey, brother of a former lieutenant-governor of New York, and Cortlandt Skinner, late Attorney-general of New Jersey and Speaker of the Assembly, were commissioned brigadier-generals. When the British and Hessian soldiers afterwards entered New Jersey, the people perceived, to their cost, that their "protectors" did not shield them from the abuse and plunder of armed men fighting for the king. Late in 1775, the Howes issued a new proclamation in their character of king's commissioners, calling upon the insurgents to disband, and upon all political bodies to relinquish their "usurped authority," and allowing sixty days within which to make submission. The speedy triumph of British arms seemed certain, and many, especially persons of property, hastened to make their submission. Tucker, President of the New Jersey Provincial Convention, abandoned the Whig cause and took a British protection. It was at this time that Joseph Galloway, of Pennsylvania, showed open signs of disaffection. For ten days after the issue of the proclamation, two or three hundred persons from New Jersey came in every day to take the oath of allegiance.

Proclamation of King George (1775). The arrival of Richard Penn in London with the second petition of Congress aroused the anger of the king towards, and his fixed determination concerning, the "rebellious colonies." He refused to see Penn or receive the petition, and on Aug. 23 he issued a proclamation for suppressing rebellion and sedition in America. "There is reason," said the proclamation, "to apprehend that such rebellion [in America] hath been much promoted and encouraged by the traitorous correspondence, counsels, and comfort, of divers wicked and desperate persons within our realm," and he called upon all officers of the realm, civil and military, and all his subjects, to disclose all "traitorous conspiracies," giving information of

* The Alleghany River was regarded as the Ohio proper, and the Monongahela only as a tributary.

the same to one of the secretaries of state, "in order to bring to condign punishment the authors, perpetrators, and abettors of such traitorous desigus." This proclamation was aimed at Chatham and Camden in the House of Lords, and Barré in the House of Commons, and their active political friends. When it was read to the people at the Royal Exchange it was received with a general hiss from the populace. But the stubborn king would not yield. He would rather perish than consent to repeal the alterations in the Charter of Massachusetts, or yield the absolute authority of Parliament. And North, who in his heart thought the king wrong, supported him chiefly, as was alleged, because he loved office with its power and emoluments better than justice. When, in November, the wife of John Adams read the king's proclamation, she wrote to her husband, saying, "This intelligence will make a plain path for you, though a dangerous one. I could not join to-day in the petitions of our worthy pastors for a reconciliation between our no longer parent state, but tyrant state, and the colonies. Let us separate; they are unworthy to be our brethren. Let us renounce them; and, instead of supplications as formerly for their prosperity and happiness, let us beseech the Almighty to blast their councils and bring to naught all their devices." The proclamation stimulated Congress to recommend the formation of state governments, and filled the minds and hearts of the people with thoughts of, and desires for, independence. Encouraged by Franklin, Rush, and others, Thomas Paine, an emigrant from England, and a clear and powerful writer, prepared an appeal to the people of America in favor of independence. (See *Common Sense*.)

Proclamation of the Restoration in Massachusetts. More than a year after the restoration of monarchy in England, Charles II. was formally proclaimed king (August, 1661) in Boston. All disorderly demonstrations were prohibited. None were to presume to drink the king's health, but a loyal address in fulsome style, designating the king as "one of the gods among men," was adopted by the authorities at Boston. The magistrates and ministers were uncertain of the king's intentions concerning the province, and hardly knew what to do.

Proclamation of Washington (1777). Late in January Washington issued a proclamation in the name of the United States that all who had taken British protection and professed fidelity to the crown should take an oath of allegiance to the United States or withdraw within the British lines. Regarding this as a violation of state supremacy, the Legislature of New Jersey censured the commander-in-chief, and a few members of Congress joined in the censure. There was then a growing faction in that body inimical to Washington, and ready to censure him. They were jealous of the power with which he had been invested (see *Dictatorship conferred on Washington*), and which he used so judiciously. "In private life," said John Adams, "I am willing to respect and look up to him; in this

House I feel myself to be the superior of General Washington." Not more than one hundred of the inhabitants of New Jersey had joined the army of Washington when fleeing before Cornwallis, while almost three thousand had subscribed to a declaration of fidelity to the king. Having felt the cruelty and endured the plunderings of the British and Hessian troops, they were now glad to obey the requirements of Washington's proclamation, and hundreds joined his troops who were sent out to harass the enemy.

Proclamations and Counter-proclamations (1775). A proclamation having been issued in the name of the king (Aug. 23, 1775), in which the colonists were denounced as "rebels," and accused of "forgetting the allegiance which they owed to the power which had protected and sustained them," the Congress issued a counter-proclamation (Dec. 6), in which they denied that they ever owed allegiance to Parliament, but avowed their allegiance to the sovereign. They condemned, and avowed their purpose to oppose with arms, the exercise of unconstitutional powers by the crown or Parliament, and proclaimed their resolution to retort upon the supporters of the ministry—the Tories—any severities which might be inflicted upon their friends and partisans.

Proctor, HENRY A., was born in Wales in 1765; died in Liverpool, Eng., in 1859. He joined the British army in 1781, and rose to the rank of major-general after his service in Canada in 1813. He came to Canada in command of a regiment in 1812, and, as acting brigadier-general, commanded British troops at Amherstburg, under the direction of General Brock, to prevent Hull's invasion of Canada. For his victory at Frenchtown (on the River Raisin) he was made a brigadier-general. (See *Frenchtown, Massacre et.*) He and his Indian allies were repulsed at Fort Meigs and at Fort Stephenson (which see); and he was defeated in the battle of the Thames (which see) by General Harrison. For his conduct in America, especially at Frenchtown, he was afterwards court-martialled, and suspended from command for six months; but was again in active service, and was made a lieutenant-general.

Proctor, THOMAS, colonel of Pennsylvania artillery during the Revolution, was born in Ireland in 1739; died in Philadelphia, May 16, 1806. He was distinguished in the battle of Brandywine and in Sullivan's expedition in 1779 (which see).

Prophecy of Pownall. Thomas Pownall, who, as governor of Massachusetts, and a traveller, explorer, and civil officer in the central portion of the Union, had become well acquainted with the characteristics of the American people, published in England, at the beginning of 1780, a memorial to the sovereigns in Europe, in which he said the system of establishing colonies in various climates to create a monopoly of the peculiar products of their labor was at an end; that America was so far removed from the influences of Europe and its embroiled interests that it was without a real enemy, and the

United States of America had taken an equal station with the nations upon earth; that negotiations were of no consequence either to the right or the fact—the independence of America was “a fixed fact;” that its government, young and strong, would struggle by the vigor of its internal healing principles of life against all evils in its system and surmount them. “Its strength will grow with years,” he said, “and it will establish its constitution.” He asserted his belief that in time the West Indies must, “in the course of events, become part of the great North American dominion.” He predicted the casting off by the Spanish colonies in South America of their dependence upon Spain, which occurred in less than fifty years afterwards, because “South America,” he said, “is growing too much for Spain to manage; it is in power independent, and will be so in act as soon as any occasion shall call forth that power.” He spoke of the civilizing activity of the human race having free course in America, the people there, “standing on the high ground of improvement up to which the most enlightened parts of Europe have advanced, like eaglets, commence the first efforts of their pinions from a towering advantage.” He lauded America as “the poor man’s country,” where labor and mental development went hand in hand—where “many a real philosopher, a politician, a warrior, emerges out of this wilderness, as the seed rises out of the ground where it hath lain buried for its season.” He referred to the freedom of the mechanic arts that would be secured by independence, where no laws lock up the artisan, and said, “The moment that the progress of civilization is ripe for it, manufactures will grow and increase with an astonishing exuberancy.” Referring to ship-building, he said: “Their commerce hath been striking deep root;” and referred to ocean and inland navigation as becoming “our vital principle of life, extended through our organized being, our nature.” “Before long,” he said, the Americans “will be trading in the South Sea, in the Spice Islands, and in China. . . . Commerce will open the door to immigration. By constant intercommunion, America will every day approach nearer and nearer to Europe. Unless the great potentates of Europe can station cherubim at every avenue with a flaming sword that turns every way to prevent man’s quitting this Old World, multitudes of their people, many of the most useful, enterprising spirits, will emigrate to the new one. Much of the active property will go there, too.” He alluded to the folly of the sovereigns trying to check the progress of the Americans, and said: “Those sovereigns of Europe who shall call upon their ministers to state to them things as they really do exist in nature, shall form the earliest, the more sure, and natural connection with North America, as being, what she is, an independent state. . . . The new empire of America is, like a giant, ready to run its course. The fostering care with which the rival powers of Europe will nurse it insures its establishment beyond all doubt and danger.” So early as 1760, Pownall, who had associated with

liberal men while upholding the king’s prerogative, many times said that the political independence of the Americans was certain, and near at hand. On one occasion Hutchinson, who, eight years later, was in Pownall’s official seat in Massachusetts, hearing of these remarks, exclaimed, “Not for centuries!” for he knew how strong was the affection of New England for the fatherland. He did *not* know how strong was the desire of the people for liberty.

Proposed Amendments to the Constitution. Early in the last session of the Thirty-sixth Congress (1860), when disloyal men lifted up the voice of sedition in that body, Alexander R. Boteler, of Virginia, proposed a committee of one from each state (thirty-three), to which should be referred so much of the President’s message as related “to the present perilous condition of the country” for consideration (see *Thirty-sixth Congress, The*), with power to report at any time. The committee was appointed, and it received a large number of resolutions, suggestions, and propositions for amendments to the national Constitution. The principal amendments offered were by John Cochrane and Daniel E. Sickles, of New York; Thomas C. Hindman, of Arkansas; Clement L. Vallandigham, of Ohio; and John W. Noell, of Missouri. Cochrane proposed the acceptance of the decision of the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case; that neither Congress nor the people of any territory should interfere with slavery therein while it remained a territory; that the Missouri Compromise, as to the limits of slavery, should be revived; that Congress should not have power to abolish the inter-state slave-trade; that the Fugitive Slave Law should be reaffirmed; that slaveholders might pass with their slaves unmolested through any free-labor state; and that all state laws nullifying the Fugitive Slave Law should be inoperative; also a declaration that the national Constitution was an article of agreement between sovereign states, and that an attempt of the national government to coerce a sovereign state into obedience to it would be levying war upon a substantial power, and would precipitate a dissolution of the Union. Sickles proposed an amendment declaring that when a state, in the exercise of its sovereignty, should secede, the government of the United States should appoint commissioners to confer with duly appointed agents of such state, and agree upon the disposition of the public property and territory belonging to the United States lying within it, and upon the proportion of the public debt to be assessed and paid by that state; also authorizing the President, when all should be settled, to proclaim the withdrawal of such state from the Union. This surrendered everything to the Secessionists. Senator Clingman had proposed almost the same thing a fortnight before. Sickles afterwards fought the Secessionists in the field and lost a leg. Hindman, afterwards a Confederate general, proposed an amendment that should guarantee the express recognition of slavery wherever it existed; no interference with the inter-state or domestic slave-trade; to give free action of slave-

holders with their slaves in free-labor states; to prohibit to any state the right of representation in Congress whose Legislature should pass laws impairing the obligations of the Fugitive Slave Law; to give to slave-labor states a negative upon all acts of Congress concerning slavery; to make these and all other provisions of the Constitution relating to slavery unamendable, and to grant to the several states authority to appoint all national officers within their respective limits. Vallandigham proposed an amendment providing for the division of the Republic into four sections, to be called respectively the *North*, the *West*, the *Pacific*, and the *South*. The North was to include the New England States, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; the West, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and Kansas. The Pacific, Oregon and California. The South, the fifteen slave-labor states. "This," said a writer at the time, "was the fullest and most logical embodiment yet made of Mr. Calhoun's subtle device for enabling a minority to obstruct and baffle the majority under a political system preserving the form of a republic." Noell proposed to instruct Congress to inquire and report as to the expediency of abolishing the office of President of the United States, and establishing in lieu thereof an executive council of three members, to be elected by districts composed of contiguous states as nearly as possible, and each member to be invested with a veto power; also, whether the equilibrium between the free-labor and slave-labor states might not be restored and preserved, particularly by a voluntary division on the part of the last-named states into two or more commonwealths. Other propositions for conciliation were offered, some similar and some quite dissimilar to those already mentioned; and it was evident to the people at large that the Republic would not be saved by the wisdom of their representatives alone.

Proprietaries of Pennsylvania Taxed. The Pennsylvania Assembly, by perseverance, triumphed at last. Tired of the struggle, and without a salary, which the Assembly persistently refused to vote him unless he would come to their terms, Governor Denny consented to a tax in which the proprietary estates were included. The Assembly had indemnified him against the forfeiture of his bond. (See *Controversy between the Governor and Assembly of Pennsylvania*.) This and other compliances with the popular will by the governor the Assembly rewarded by liberal grants of salary. The proprietaries, disgusted at what they called Denny's faithlessness, persuaded James Hamilton to again accept the office of governor. But, to obtain means for furnishing the quota of troops required from Pennsylvania, Hamilton was compelled to consent to a tax on the proprietary estates. The proprietaries, according to the constitutional doctrine in Pennsylvania, were bound by the acts of their agent (the governor), though contrary to their instructions. They petitioned the royal veto on eleven of Denny's acts, including the tax above referred to, Franklin, on the one hand, and the proprietaries, on

the other, were heard by their counsel before the Board of Trade and Plantations (which see). That body commented severely on the collusion between the Assembly and Denny evinced by a grant to the governor of a distinct sum of money for consenting to each of the eleven obnoxious acts. The great point of the right to tax the proprietary estates was decided in favor of the Assembly, but the eleven acts were disallowed. For his success on that occasion the Assembly gave Dr. Franklin thanks. But disputes with proprietaries broke out again not long afterwards.

Proprietary Government, FALL OF, IN PENNSYLVANIA. The Assembly of Pennsylvania, influenced by the proprietary government and office-holders in its own body, as well as by timid patriots, hoping, like John Dickinson, for peace and reconciliation, steadily opposed the idea of independence. Finally, a town meeting of four thousand people, held in State-house Yard, in Philadelphia (May 24, 1776), selected for its president Daniel Roberdeau. The meeting voted that the instruction of the Assembly for forming a new government (in accordance with John Adams's proposition) was illegal and an attempt at usurpation; and the Committee of the City and Liberties of Philadelphia were directed to summon a conference of the committees of every county in the province to make arrangements for a constituent convention to be chosen by the people. Then was preparation made for the fall of the proprietary charter of Pennsylvania. Dickinson and his friends persisted in opposition to independence. Concessions were made to the Continental Congress by the Assembly in not requiring newly elected members to swear allegiance to the king. Finally, on May 24, the Committee of Inspection of the city of Philadelphia addressed a memorial to the Congress, setting forth that the Assembly did not possess the confidence of the people, nor truly represent the sentiments of the province; and that measures had been taken for assembling a popular convention. The Assembly became nervous. It felt that its dissolution was nigh. In the first days of June no governor appeared. The members showed signs of yielding to the popular pressure; but on the 7th, the very day when Richard Henry Lee offered his famous resolution for independence in Congress (which see), John Dickinson, in a speech in the Assembly, pledged his word to the proprietary chief-justice (Allen), and to the whole House, that he and a majority of the Pennsylvania delegates in the Congress would continue to vote against independence. Only once again (after June 9, 1774) did a quorum of members of the Pennsylvania Assembly appear. The proprietary government had expired.

Proprietary Innovations in Pennsylvania. The Penn family, who inherited the Province of Pennsylvania from the founder, at about the middle of the last century had become very greedy for money and power. Their encroachments upon the political rights of the people had been observed a long time before public no-

tice was taken of them. To increase their political influence in the colony, the proprietaries had adopted the practice of appointing judicial and other officers, not during good behavior, as formerly, but during the pleasure of the proprietaries. On the death of John Penn, his half of Pennsylvania descended to his next brother, Thomas, who thus became possessor of three fourths of the province. Thomas began other encroachments on the popular rights. He adopted the practice of giving secret instructions to the deputy-governor, which his bond to the proprietaries compelled him to obey; but which, at the same time, he was forbidden to communicate to the Assembly. (*See Controversy between the Governor and Assembly of Pennsylvania.*)

Protection of the Capital (1861). It was evident at the opening of the new year (1861) that the plan of the Secessionists for seizing the capital was fast ripening, and measures were taken for the protection of the government. Lieutenant-general Scott was called in to cabinet meetings for consultation. The militia of the District of Columbia was organized, and a few companies of artillery, under Captain Charles P. Stone, of the Ordnance Department, were placed in Washington. It was also resolved to strengthen garrisons in forts in the slave-labor states, especially at Charleston.

Protest against Taxes in New York. Governor Francis Lovelace, as a means of raising a revenue, imposed a duty of ten per cent. upon all imports and exports in 1667. This was done upon the sole authority of the Duke of York, and was a revival of the duty formerly levied by the Dutch. Eight towns on Long Island protested against taxes being levied by the governor and council of the province without the royal authority. This protest was publicly burned by the common hangman, and the inhabitants who had consented to the overthrow of the Dutch rule, to "enjoy English liberties," were told that they should have liberty to think of nothing else excepting "how to pay taxes." In 1680 the people boldly opposed the levying of taxes by the sole authority of the Duke of York; and the grand jury of New York indicted the collector of taxes, and he was sent to England for trial on the charge of constructive high-treason in levying taxes without authority. The right to do so was questioned by the courts in England. No accuser appearing, the collector was released.

Protestant Episcopal Church in America. The Church of England in America, having suffered much during the old war for independence, sought, on the return of peace, to reorganize itself. Its clergy generally, and many of its members, had adhered to the crown in the struggle, and became refugee loyalists. Samuel Seabury, of New London, at the request of the Episcopalians of Connecticut, proceeded to England, in 1784, to obtain ordination as bishop. The English bishops, under the acts of Parliament, could not raise one to the episcopal dignity who did not take the oath of allegiance, and make acknowledgment that the King of England was

the head of the Church. Seabury, therefore, applied to the Jacobite nonjuring bishops of the Episcopal Church in Scotland, and was by them ordained. The American Episcopalians generally were not satisfied with this ordination, preferring to derive the Episcopate through the heads of the English Church. A convention, held during Seabury's absence (October, 1784), composed of delegates from several states, adopted resolutions on the basis of a fundamental constitution for the "Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America." A second convention, held the next year (Sept. 27, 1785), matured this constitution, which was afterwards ratified by conventions in the several states. All titles usually descriptive of temporal power and precedence, such as "Lord Bishop," were dropped, and the bishops and clergy were declared liable, in case of misbehavior, to deposition from office by the General and State Conventions. Some portions of the Liturgy were left out, and others modified, to adapt them to republican ideas. This convention addressed a letter to the English bishops, expressing friendly regards, and a desire to obtain Episcopal ordination for American bishops elect through their hands. After some hesitation the boon was granted, and William White, of Philadelphia, and Samuel Provost, of New York, were consecrated (Feb. 4, 1787), by the Archbishop of Canterbury, bishops respectively of the dioceses of Pennsylvania and New York. Rev. James Madison, of Virginia, was consecrated bishop, in 1790, by the Archbishop of Canterbury. At a triennial convention, held in October, 1789, measures were set on foot for perpetuating the Episcopacy in America. The consecration of Madison in England, the next year, completed the number of bishops in America canonically required to perform the act of consecration, and Rev. Thomas J. Claggett, D.D., of Maryland, was raised to the Episcopate by Bishops Provost, White, Seabury, and Madison. In the same year the revised Book of Common Prayer (now the standard) was adopted.

Protests against the Repeal of the Stamp Act. In March, 1766, a protest, prepared by Lord Lyttelton, against the repeal of the Stamp Act, was signed by thirty-three peers. In that House it was maintained that such a strange and unheard-of submission of King, Lords, and Commons to a successful insurrection of the colonies would make the authority of Great Britain contemptible. There were sixty-three members of the House of Lords, including several bishops, who were for subduing the colonies with fire and sword, if necessary; but the vote for repeal stood one hundred and five against seventy-one. Soon afterwards a second protest, containing a vigorous defence of the policy of Grenville, and showing a disposition to enforce the Stamp Act at all hazards, was signed by twenty-eight peers. At that hour of efforts for conciliation five of the bishops "solemnly recorded, on the journal of the House of Lords, their unrelenting enmity to measures of peace."

Proud, ROBERT, historian of Pennsylvania,

was a member of the Society of Friends, or Quakers. He was born in Yorkshire, Eng., May 10, 1728; died in Philadelphia, July 7, 1819. He came to Philadelphia in 1759, where he taught Greek and Latin in a Quaker academy until the breaking-out of the Revolution, when he gave a passive adherence to the British crown. In 1797 his *History of Pennsylvania* was published. It embraces the period between 1681 and 1742.

Providence Plantation. (See *Williams, Roger, and Rhode Island, Colony of.*)

Providence Rejects Negro Slavery. In the legal codes of Massachusetts and Connecticut, compiled by Roger Ludlow, about 1650, negro slavery was authorized. In the town of Providence, R. I., the colony with which Massachusetts and Connecticut would not fraternize when they formed the New England Confederacy (which see), because of the religious heresy of its founders, the enslaving of the negro was prohibited by law. In the "Providence Plantation," where Roger Williams bore personal rule, the law placed "black mankind" on the same footing as that of white mankind in regard to perpetual servitude. This regulation, enacted during a temporary disruption of the province, never extended to the other towns, and Providence has the high honor of being the only place in all our land where negro slavery never legally existed.

Provincial Assembly of New York, FINAL ADJOURNMENT OF THE. This body had always been behind the people in zeal for the cause of popular liberty. It was so lukewarm, because of the strong tincture of Toryism in its composition, in 1774-75, that it did not officially approve of the proceedings of the Continental Congress, nor adopt the American Association as public policy. This position caused the British ministry to count upon the disaffection of New York as a strong element of weakness in the colonies. They were mistaken. The New York Assembly sent so strong a remonstrance against the oppressive acts of Parliament that the ministry refused to receive it. Still the Assembly hesitated in the march of decided opposition to government. It refused to appoint delegates to the Second Continental Congress. This aroused the people, and at an exciting election for delegates to a Provincial Convention, for the purpose of choosing delegates to the Congress (March 15, 1775), the popular party triumphed. The Assembly adjourned on the 3d of April, and never met again.

Provincial Congress of Massachusetts. Governor Gage summoned a meeting of the Massachusetts Assembly at Salem, under the provisions of the new and obnoxious act of Parliament. Perceiving the increasing boldness of the people under the stimulus of the proceedings of the Continental Congress, he countermanded the summons. The members denied his right to do so. They met at Salem, ninety in number, on the appointed day (Oct. 5, 1774), waited two days for the governor, who did not appear, and then organized themselves into a Provincial Congress, with John Hancock as president and

Benjamin Lincoln secretary. They adjourned to Concord, where, on the 11th, two hundred and sixty members took their seats. There they adjourned to Cambridge, when they sent a message to the governor, telling him that, for the want of a legal assembly, they had formed a provisional convention. They complained of unlawful acts of Parliament, expressed their loyalty to the king, and protested against the fortifying of Boston Neck by the governor. Gage denounced them. This act increased their zeal. They appointed a Committee of Safety, to whom they delegated large powers. They were authorized to call out the militia of the province, and perform other acts of sovereignty. Another committee was authorized to procure ammunition and military stores, for which purpose more than \$60,000 were appropriated. A Receiver-general (Henry Gardiner) was appointed, into whose hands the constables and tax-collectors were directed to pay all moneys received by them. They made provision for arming the province, and appointed Jeremiah Preble, Artemas Ward, and Seth Pomeroy general officers of the militia. They also authorized the enrolment of twelve thousand minute-men, and, assuming both legislative and executive powers, received the allegiance of the people generally. So passed away royal rule in Massachusetts, and the sovereignty of the people was established in the form of the Provincial Congress. Gage issued a proclamation denouncing their proceedings, to which no attention was paid.

Provincial Congress of New Hampshire, THE, assembled at Exeter, on May 17, 1775, when ninety-eight counties, towns, parishes, and boroughs were represented by deputies, Matthew Thornton being chosen president, and Eleazar Thompson, secretary. They established a post-office at Portsmouth, provided for procuring arms, recommended the establishment of home manufactures, commissioned Brigadier-general Folsom first commander, and provided for the issue of bills of credit.

Provincial Congress of New Jersey. On the 2d of May, 1775, the Provincial Committee of Correspondence of New Jersey directed the chairman to summon a Provincial Congress of deputies to meet at Trenton, on Tuesday, the 23d of the same month. Thirteen counties were represented—namely, Bergen, Essex, Middlesex, Morris, Somerset, Sussex, Monmouth, Hunterdon, Burlington, Gloucester, Cumberland, Salem, and Cape May. Hendrick Fisher was chosen president; Jonathan D. Sargent, secretary; and William Paterson and Frederick Frelinghuysen, assistants. The Provincial Assembly had been called (May 15) by Governor Franklin (son of Benjamin Franklin), to consider North's conciliatory proposition. They declined to approve it, or to take any decisive step in the matter, except with the consent of the Continental Congress, then in session. They adjourned a few days afterwards, and never met again. Royal authority was at an end in New Jersey. The Provincial Congress adopted measures for organizing the militia and the issuing of \$50,000

in bills of credit for the payment of extraordinary expenses.

Provincial Congress of New York, ORGANIZATION OF THE. On the recommendation of the Committee of Sixty of the City of New York (which see), delegates chosen in a majority of the counties of the province met at the Exchange in New York, May 22, 1775. They adjourned to the next day, in order to have a more complete representation, when delegates appeared from the following counties, New York, Albany, Dutchess, Ulster, Orange, Westchester, Kings, Suffolk, and Richmond. The Congress was organized by the appointment of Peter Van Brugh Livingston, president; Volkert P. Douw, vice-president; John McKesson and Robert Benson, secretaries; and Thomas Petit, door-keeper. They adopted the method of voting of the Provincial Convention (which see). They forwarded to the Continental Congress a financial scheme, devised by Gouverneur Morris, for the defence of the colonies by the issue of a Continental paper-currency, substantially the same as that shortly adopted. (See *Continental Paper-money*.) They also took measures for enlisting four regiments for the defence of the province, and for erecting fortifications, recommended by the Continental Congress, at the head of York Island and in the Hudson Highlands. The Provincial Congress agreed to furnish provisions for the garrison at Ticonderoga. There was a strong Tory element in the Congress, which caused much effort towards conciliation, and a plan was agreed to, in spite of the warm opposition of leading Sons of Liberty. It contemplated a repeal of all obnoxious acts of Parliament, but acknowledged the right of the mother country to regulate trade, and the duty of the colonists to contribute to the common charges by grants to be made by the colonial assemblies, or by a general Congress, specially called for that purpose. But this plan met with little favor, and in time the Provincial Congress of New York became more thoroughly patriotic. It showed hesitation, however, in several important emergencies, especially in the matter of declaring the independence of the colonies. It ceased to exist in the summer of 1777, when a state government was organized.

Provincial Congress of North Carolina. On Monday, Aug. 21, 1775, a Provincial Congress, consisting of one hundred and eighty-four deputies, assembled at Hillsborough. They first declared their determination to protect the Regulators (which see), who were liable to punishment; declared Governor Martin's proclamation (which see) to have a tendency to stir up tumult and insurrection in the province dangerous to the peace of the king's government, and directed it to be publicly burned by the common hangman. They provided for raising troops; authorized the raising, in addition to a regular force, of ten battalions, to be called minute-men (which see), and they authorized the emission of bills of credit to the amount of \$150,000.

Provincial Convention of Maryland, THE, met at Annapolis, April 24, 1775. There were one

hundred deputies present. They chose Matthew Tilghman president, and Gabriel Duval, clerk.

Provincial Convention of New York. Delegates chosen in March, 1775, from nine counties in the Province of New York—namely, New York, Albany, Dutchess, Orange, Westchester, Kings, Ulster, Suffolk, and Queens—assembled at the Exchange, in the city of New York, on the 20th of April, and organized by choosing Philip Livingston, of the city of New York, president, and John McKesson, secretary. It was agreed that every question should be determined by a majority of the votes of the counties represented, the city and county of New York to be considered as *four*, the city and county of Albany as *three*, and each of the other counties as *two*. On the 21st, Philip Livingston, James Duane, John Alsop, John Jay, Simon Boerum, William Floyd, Henry Wisner, Philip Schuyler, George Clinton, Lewis Morris, Francis Lewis, and Robert R. Livingston were elected delegates to the Second Continental Congress. Their credentials were signed by the forty-one delegates present, and at eleven o'clock on Sunday morning, April 22, the convention finally adjourned.

Provincial Convention of North Carolina. A general meeting of delegates was held at New Berne, April 3, 1775, at which delegates from twenty-six counties and seven towns appeared. John Harvey was appointed moderator, and Andrew Knox, clerk. The General Assembly of the province was in session at the same time, but on the 8th the governor (Alexander Martin) dissolved them, his council having declared that, in consequence of having approved the proceedings of the Continental Congress, "the longer existence of such a House of Assembly" was "incompatible with the honor of the crown and the safety of the people." They never met again.

Provincial Jealousy a Bar to National Union. After the Declaration of Independence was adopted, the Congress considered two plans for a confederation of the states, one by Dr. Franklin, the other by John Dickinson. Franklin's plan was broad and national in its views; that of Dickinson was narrow and provincial. The latter was supported by those who feared the effects of a consolidated government, and took pride in independent state authority. In this the delegates from South Carolina were conspicuous. Edward Rutledge, who espoused Dickinson's plan, saw danger in the very thought of an indissoluble league of states, and said, "If the plan now proposed [Franklin's] shall be adopted, nothing less than ruin to some colonies will be the consequence. The idea of destroying all provincial distinctions, and making everything of the most minute kind bend to what they call the good of the whole, is, in other terms, to say that these colonies must be subject to the government of the Eastern provinces. The force of their arms I hold exceeding cheap, but I confess I dread their overwhelming influence in council; I dread their low cunning, and those levelling principles which men without

character and without fortune generally possess, which are so captivating to the lower class of mankind, and which will occasion such a fluctuation of property as to introduce the greatest disorder. I am resolved to vest the Congress with no more power than what is absolutely necessary, and to keep the staff in our own hands; for I am confident, if surrendered into the hands of others, a most pernicious use will be made of it." Mr. Rutledge evidently expressed the sentiments of a majority of the Congress at that time and afterwards, for in the Articles of Confederation (which see) that were finally adopted, the powers of the separate states were so rigidly preserved that the confederation was only a weak league of states that failed to win the respect of European nations. The mind of Washington soared far above these petty jealousies. In a general order issued on Aug. 1, 1776, he spoke for union. "Divisions among ourselves," he said, "most effectually assist our enemies; the provinces are all united to oppose the common enemy, and all distinctions are sunk in the name of American." So Patrick Henry had declared in the First Continental Congress. (See *Continental Congress, the First*.)

Provisional Constitution of the Southern Confederacy. It declared that the convention at Montgomery was a "Congress" vested with the same legislative power as that of the United States. It provided that the Provisional President of the Confederacy should hold his office one year, unless superseded by the establishment of a permanent government; that each state should be a judicial district, and that the several district judges should compose the Supreme Court of the Confederacy; that the word "Confederacy" should be substituted for the word "Union" in the national Constitution; that the President might veto a separate appropriation without affecting the whole bill; that the African slave-trade should be prohibited; that the Congress should be empowered to prohibit the introduction of slaves from any state not a member of the Confederacy; that all appropriations should be made upon the demands of the President or heads of departments; and that members of Congress might hold offices of honor and emolument under the Provisional Government. No mention was made of taxes excepting those in the form of a tariff for revenue, nor the keeping of troops and ships of war by states, nor for any ratification of the Constitution by the people. All legislative powers were vested in the "Congress" there assembled until otherwise ordained.

Pryor, ROGER A., was born in Dinwiddie County, Va., July 10, 1828, and graduated at Hampden-Sidney College in 1845. He became a lawyer and editor, and an advocate of state supremacy. In 1854 he was a commissioner to Greece, and was elected to Congress in 1859. He was a vehement advocate of secession; went to South Carolina early in 1861 to urge on civil war; was on the staff of Beauregard in the attack upon Fort Sumter in April; was made a brigadier-general and led a division in the battles before Richmond in 1862, and resigned in

1863. He was a member of the Confederate Congress, and was captured and confined in Fort Lafayette for a time. After the war he edited a newspaper in Tennessee, and finally settled as a lawyer in New York, where he still (1890) remains.

Public Debt. At the close of the Revolution (1783) the restoration of the public credit was the first care of the Congress. The whole expense of that war was estimated at the sum of \$135,000,000. In this is included the specie value of all the bills issued by the Treasury of the United States, redeemed according to a scale of depreciation established by Congress. The whole amount of the debt of the United States, as ascertained in 1783, was a little more than \$42,000,000, of which \$8,000,000 arose from loans obtained in France and Holland, and the remainder was due to American citizens. The annual interest on the debt was \$2,415,956. The whole indebtedness of the United States, state and national, was about \$70,000,000. At the close of the second war for independence (1812-15), it amounted to about \$127,000,000, which was all extinguished within twenty years from that time. In 1835 the Republic was out of debt, and in 1836 there was a surplus in the Treasury of \$28,000,000, which was distributed among the several state banks to loan out, and was never returned. The Civil War that broke out in 1861 burdened the nation with heavy indebtedness, under which load, much lightened by partial liquidation, it still (1887) labors. On Jan. 1, 1861, the total national debt was a little more than \$69,000,000, consisting of loans, Texas indemnity, Texas debt (see *Texas*), and Treasury notes. On the 30th of June, 1865, the total national debt was \$2,682,593,000. On the 1st of January, 1866, it was \$2,807,310,000. On July 4, 1876, it was \$2,099,439,344; a decrease in ten years and six months of \$707,870,656. The several states in the Union on June 30, 1880, had an aggregate debt of \$1,201,803,177, exclusive of the Confederate debt, which is not considered in national financial statistics. This sum, added to the national debt, at that time amounting to \$2,120,415,370, made the total indebtedness of the Republic, state and national, \$3,326,218,547.

Public Health. Concern for the public health has been specially manifested in the United States since about the year 1850. In 1849 the Legislature of Massachusetts authorized an inquiry on the subject, and in 1850 a committee made a report in a volume of over 500 pages. Michigan also moved early in the matter. In 1864 a system of sanitary inspection was inaugurated in the City of New York. The establishment of a Board of Health soon followed. The example has been imitated in other states, until now (1887) nearly every member of the Republic has a State Board of Health. So, also, have the principal cities. In 1873 the American Public Health Association was formed, which now includes representatives in every state in the Union. Through its exertions Congress was induced to create a National Board of Health.

Public High-school in Philadelphia. In

1669 Penn gave a charter for a public high-school which had been established in Philadelphia.

Public Libraries. Previous to the Revolution there were only five public libraries, outside of colleges, in the English-American colonies. These were the "Library Company of Philadelphia," founded in 1731; "American Philosophical Society," 1742; "Library Society," Charleston, S. C., 1748; "Athenæum," Providence, R. I., 1753; and "Society Library," New York, founded in 1754. In 1776 they numbered more than 1100, each containing 1000 volumes and upwards. This does not include School-district and Sunday-school libraries. In 1873 there were 150 public libraries containing from 10,000 to 25,000 volumes each; 75 containing 25,000 or more volumes each; 37 from 25,000 to 50,000 volumes each, and 15 over 50,000 volumes each. The 75 alluded to are among the most important libraries of the United States, and contained an aggregate of 3,725,200 volumes. Of these, 9 contained over 100,000 volumes each. The Library of Congress, at Washington, had in 1876 about 275,000 volumes; the Public Library of Boston, 262,000; Astor and Mercantile libraries of New York, 152,000 each; Mercantile Library of Philadelphia, 105,000 volumes; and Boston Athenæum, 105,000. The total contents of the public and private libraries of the United States in 1870 were 45,528,938 volumes. Of these libraries, 108,800 were private, containing a total of 26,072,420 volumes. The Sunday-school libraries of the United States contained 8,346,153 volumes, and other circulating libraries 2,536,128.

Public Property Seized in Alabama (1861).

A week before the Secession Ordinance of Alabama was adopted (Jan. 11, 1861), volunteer troops, in accordance with an arrangement made with the governors of Louisiana and Georgia, and by order of the Governor of Alabama, had seized the arsenal at Mount Vernon, about thirty miles above Mobile, and Fort Morgan, at the entrance to Mobile Harbor, about thirty miles below the city. The Mount Vernon Arsenal was captured by four insurgent companies commanded by Captain Leadbetter, of the United States Engineer Corps, and a native of Maine. At dawn (Jan. 4, 1861) they surprised Captain Reno, in command of the arsenal, and the Alabama insurgents thus obtained 15,000 stand of arms, 150,000 pounds of gunpowder, some cannons, and a large quantity of munitions of war.

Public Property Seized in Florida (1861).

Before the Florida Ordinance of Secession was passed, Florida troops seized (Jan. 6, 1861) the Chattahoochee Arsenal, with 500,000 rounds of musket-cartridges, 300,000 rifle-cartridges, and 50,000 pounds of gunpowder. They also took possession of Fort Marion, at St. Augustine, formerly the Castle of St. Mark, which was built by the Spaniards more than a hundred years before. It contained an arsenal. On the 15th they seized the United States Coast Survey schooner *F. W. Dana*, and appropriated it to their own use. The Chattahoochee Arsenal was in charge of the courageous Sergeant Powell and

three men. He said, "Five minutes ago I was in command of this arsenal, but in consequence of the weakness of my command, I am obliged to surrender. . . . If I had force equal to, or half the strength of yours, I'll be d——d if you would have entered that gate until you had passed over my dead body. You see that I have but three men. I now consider myself a prisoner of war. Take my sword, Captain Jones."

Public Property Seized in Georgia (1861).

On the recommendation of Senator Toombs and others at Washington, the Governor of Georgia (Joseph Brown) ordered the seizure of the United States coast defences on the border of the state before the secession convention met. Fort Pulaski, on Cockspur Island, at the mouth of the Savannah River, and Fort Jackson, near the city of Savannah, were seized on Jan. 3, 1861. On the same day the national arsenal at Savannah was taken possession of by insurgents, and 700 state troops, by the orders and in the presence of the governor, took possession of the arsenal at Augusta, Jan. 24, when the National troops there were sent to New York. In the arsenal were 22,000 muskets and rifles, some cannons, and a large amount of munitions of war. The forts were without garrisons, and each was in charge of only two or three men.

Public Property Seized in Louisiana (1861).

Prompted by advice from John Slidell and Judah P. Benjamin, then sitting as members of the United States Senate, the Governor of Louisiana (Moore) sent expeditions from New Orleans to seize forts Jackson and St. Philip on the Mississippi, below the city, then in charge of Major Beauregard; also Fort Pike, on Lake Pontchartrain, and the arsenal at Baton Rouge. A part of General Palfrey's division went down the river in a steam vessel, and on the evening of Jan. 10, 1861, the commander of Fort St. Philip (Dart) gladly gave it up to the secessionists; but the commander of Fort Jackson (Sergeant Smith), which surrendered, gave up the keys under protest. State troops seized Fort Livingston, on Grand Terre Island, Barataria Bay, at the same time, and on the 20th the unfinished fort on Ship Island was seized and held by the insurgents. Troops left New Orleans, 300 in number, under Colonel Walton, on the evening of Dec. 9, in a steam vessel, and on the following evening arrived at Baton Rouge to seize the arsenal, then in command of Major Haskin. He was compelled to surrender it on the 11th. By this act the insurgents were put in possession of 50,000 small-arms, four howitzers, twenty pieces of heavy ordnance, two field-batteries, 300 barrels of gunpowder, and a large quantity of other munitions of war. A part of this property Governor Moore turned over to Governor Pettus, of Mississippi. The barracks below New Orleans were seized on the 11th. They were used for a marine hospital. The United States collector at New Orleans was required to remove the 216 patients from the barracks immediately, as the state wanted the building for the gathering insurgents. The collector (Hatch) remonstrated, and they were allowed to remain. The author-

ities of Louisiana also seized the national Mint and the Custom-house there, with all the precious metals they contained in coin and bullion, and by order of the State Convention this treasure, amounting to \$536,000, was placed in the state coffers. Soon after this, a draft for \$300,000 was received by the sub-treasurer at New Orleans from the Treasury Department, which that fiscal officer refused to pay, saying, "The money in my custody is no longer the property of the United States, but of the Republic of Louisiana."

Public Treasury, THE (1861). The first care of the government after the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln was to ascertain the condition of its money-chest. The management of Cobb, Buchanan's Secretary of the Treasury, had prostrated the public credit in the fall of 1860. To a loan of \$20,000,000 asked for in June, one half to be paid in October, only \$7,000,000 were subscribed. A few days after Cobb left the Treasury, Congress authorized (Dec. 14, 1860) the issue of \$10,000,000 in Treasury-notes, payable in one year at the current rate of interest offered. After the retirement of Cobb there was a partial restoration of confidence among capitalists, but this was soon weakened by his immediate successor, Thomas, of Maryland, and the robbing of the Indian Trust Fund (which see). Interest on the public debt would become due Jan. 1, and the government would be embarrassed. Loyal bankers came forward to the relief of the government. The appointment of John A. Dix as Secretary of the Treasury inspired confidence, and the remainder of the authorized loan was soon subscribed for, but at the high rate of interest of 10½ per cent. a year. On Feb. 8, Congress authorized a loan of \$25,000,000 to bear an interest of 6 per cent. On Feb. 27 the secretary offered \$8,000,000 of this stock, and there were more than \$14,000,000 proffered. On March 2, Congress, being purged of its disloyal element, passed an act to go into effect April 1 which established the highest protective tariff. Confidence was restored, and all through the war that ensued the government never lacked money to carry on its operations.

Puebla (La Puebla de los Angeles), AMERICANS IN (1847). This is the capital of the Mexican State of Puebla, and is the sacred city of the republic. It was founded after the reduction of Mexico by Cortez (1519-1521). It contains more than sixty churches, thirteen nunneries, nine monasteries, and twenty-one collegiate houses. Many of the churches and convents are rich in gold and silver ornaments, paintings, and statues. The city is about 7000 feet above the level of the sea, and contains about 80,000 inhabitants. After his victory at Cerro Gordo (which see), General Scott pressed forward on the great national road over the Cordilleras. General Worth had joined the army (see Vera Cruz), and with his division led the way. They entered the strongly fortified town of Jalapa April 19, 1847, and a few days afterwards Worth unfurled the American flag over the formidable Castle of Perote, on the summit of the Cordillera, fifty miles beyond Jalapa. This fortress

was regarded as the strongest in Mexico after San Juan de Ulloa. Appalled by the suddenness and strength of this invasion, the Mexicans gave up these places without making any resistance. At Perote the victors gained fifty-four pieces of artillery and an immense quantity of munitions of war. Onward the victors swept over the lofty Cordilleras, and on May 15th they halted at the sacred Puebla de los Angeles, where they remained until August. There Scott counted up the fruits of his invasion thus far. In the space of two months he had made 10,000 Mexican prisoners and captured 700 splendid pieces of artillery, 10,000 muskets, and 20,000 shot and shells; and yet, when he reached Puebla, his whole effective marching force with which he was provided for the conquest of the capital of Mexico, did not exceed 4500 men. Sickness and the demands for garrison duty had reduced his army about one half. At Puebla Scott gave the Mexicans an opportunity to treat for peace. The government had sent Nicholas P. Trist as a diplomatic agent, clothed with power to negotiate for peace. He had reached Jalapa just as the army had moved forward, and he now accompanied it. He made overtures to the Mexican government, which were treated with disdain and loud boasts of their valor and patriotism. General Scott issued a conciliatory proclamation to the Mexican people on the subject while on the march, which closed with this significant paragraph: "I am marching on Puebla and Mexico, and from those capitals I shall again address you." At Puebla Scott was reinforced by fresh troops. His chief officers were Generals Worth, Twiggs, Quitman, Pillow, Shields, Smith, and Cadwallader. On the 7th of August he resumed his march towards the capital. (See *Mexico, War with*.)

Pulaski, COUNT CASIMIR, was born in Lithuania, Poland, March 4, 1748; died at Savannah,



COUNT CASIMIR PULASKI.

Ga., Oct. 11, 1779. His father was Count Pulaski, who formed the Confederation of Bar in

1768. He had served under his father in his struggle for liberty in Poland; and when his sire perished in a dungeon the young count was elected commander-in-chief (1770). In 1771 he, with thirty-nine others, disguised as peasants, entered Warsaw, and, seizing King Stanislaus, carried him out of the city, but were compelled to leave their captive and fly for safety. His little army was soon afterwards defeated. He was outlawed, and his estates were confiscated, when he entered the Turkish army and made war on Russia. Sympathizing with the Americans in their struggle for independence, he came to our shores in the summer of 1777, joined the army under Washington, and fought bravely in the battle of Brandywine. Congress gave him command of cavalry, with the rank of brigadier-general. He was in the battle of Germantown; and in 1778 his "Legion" was formed, composed of sixty light horsemen and two hundred foot-soldiers. Surprised near Little Egg Harbor, on the New Jersey coast, nearly all of his foot-soldiers were killed. Recruiting his ranks, he went South in February, 1779, and was in active service under General Lincoln, engaging bravely in the siege of Savannah (which see), in which he was mortally wounded, taken to the United States brig *Wasp*, and there died. Congress voted a monument to his memory, which was never erected. The citizens of Savannah erected one to "Greene and Pulaski,"



GREENE AND PULASKI MONUMENT.

the corner-stone of which was laid by Lafayette in 1825.

Purchas, SAMUEL, was born at Thaxted, Essex, Eng., in 1577; died in London in 1628. He was an able clergyman, but is chiefly known by his famous work entitled *Purchas his Pilgrimages; or, Relations of the World and the Religions observed in all Ages and Places discovered from the Creation until this Present*. It contains an account of voyages, religions, etc., and was pub-

lished in five volumes in 1613. This, with *Hakluyt's Voyages*, led the way to similar collections. The third volume relates to America, and contains the original narratives of the earliest English navigators and explorers of the North American continent. Purchas was Rector of St. Martin's, Ludgate, and Chaplain to Abbot, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Puritanism was exhibited in its most radical form in New England, for there it had freedom of action.¹ The Puritan was not a sufferer, but an aggressor.² He was the straitest of his sect. He was an unflinching egotist, who regarded himself as his "brother's keeper," and was continually busied in watching and guiding him. His constant business seemed to be to save his fellow-men from sin, error, and eternal punishment. He sat in judgment upon their belief and actions with the authority of a God-chosen high-priest. He would not allow a Jesuit or a Roman Catholic priest to live in the colony. His motives were pure, his aims lofty, but his methods were uncharitable and sometimes absurd. As a law-giver and magistrate, his statute-books exhibit the salient points in his character—a self-constituted censor and a conservator of the moral and spiritual destiny of his fellow-mortals. His laws in those statute-books were largely sumptuary in their character. He imposed a fine upon every woman who should cut her hair like that of a man. He forbade all gaming for amusement or gain, and would not allow cards or dice to be introduced into the colony. He fined families whose young women did not spin as much flax or wool daily as the selectmen had required of them. He forbade all persons to run, or even walk, "except reverently to and from church," on Sunday; and he doomed a burglar, because he committed a crime on that sacred day, to have one of his ears cut off. He commanded John Wedgewood to be put in the stocks for being in the company of drunkards. Thomas Pitt was severely whipped for "suspicion of slander, idleness, and stubbornness." He admonished Captain Lovell to "take heed of light carriage." Josias Plaistowe stole four baskets of corn from the Indians, and he was ordered to return to them eight baskets, to be fined five pounds, and thereafter to "be called by the name of Josias, and not Mr. Plaistowe, as formerly." He directed his grand-jurors to admonish those who wore apparel too costly for their incomes, and, if they did not heed the warning, to fine them; and in 1646 he placed on the statute-books of Massachusetts a law which imposed the penalty of flogging for kissing a woman in the street, even by way of honest salute. He rigidly enforced this law a hundred years after its enactment, because it was not repealed. A British war-vessel entered the harbor of Boston. The captain, hastening to his home in that town, met his wife in the street and kissed her. He was accused, found guilty, and mildly whipped. Just before sailing on another cruise he invited his accuser, the magistrates, and others who approved the punishment to dine on board his vessel. When all were merry with good-cheer

he ordered his boatswain and mate to flog the magistrates with a knotted cat-o'-nine-tails. It was done, and the astonished guests were driven pell-mell over the side of the ship into a boat waiting to receive them. Such were some of the outward manifestations of Puritanism in New England, especially in Massachusetts and Connecticut. In Rhode Island it was softened, and finally it assumed an aspect of broader charity everywhere. Its devotees were stern, conscientious moralists and narrow religionists. They came to plant a church free from disturbance by persecution, and proclaimed the broad doctrine of liberty of conscience—the right to exercise private judgment. "Unsettled persons"—Latitudinarian in religion—came to enjoy freedom and to disseminate their views. In that dissemination Puritanism saw a prophecy of subversion of its principles. Alarmed, it became a persecutor in turn. "God forbid," said Governor Dudley in his old age, "our love for truth should be grown so cold that we should tolerate errors—I die no libertine." "To say that men ought to have liberty of conscience is impious ignorance," said Parson Ward, of Ipswich, a leading divine. "Religion admits of no eccentric notions," said Parson Norton, another leading divine and persecutor of so-called Quakers in Boston.

Puritans. This name was applied in England, at the middle of the 16th century, to persons who wished to see a greater degree of reformation in the Established Church than was adopted by Queen Elizabeth, and a purer form, not of faith, but of discipline and worship. It became a common name of all who, from conscientious motives, but upon different grounds, disapproved of the established ritual in the Church of England from the Reformation under Elizabeth to the act of uniformity in 1562. From that time until the Revolution in England in 1688 as many as refused to comply with the established form of worship were called "Non-conformists." There were about two thousand clergymen and half a million people who were so denominated. From the accession of William and Mary and the passage of the Toleration Act the name of "Non-conformists" was changed to "Dissenters," or Protestant Dissenters. Because the stricter Non-conformists in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I. professed and acted purer lives in morals and manners, they were called "Puritans" in derision. There were different degrees of Puritanism, some seeking a moderate reform of the English liturgy, others wishing to abolish Episcopacy, and some declaring against any Church authority whatsoever. Representatives from these three classes of Puritans formed the larger portion of the earlier settlers in New England. The union of these in the Civil War in England effected the overthrow of the monarchy, and at the restoration the name of Puritan was one of reproach. Since the Toleration Act of 1690 the word has ceased to designate any particular sect. Those in New England were generally earnest and pious bigots, and some of them were as fierce persecutors as those from whom they had fled for conscience' sake.

Puritans and Indians. The early settlers in New England regarded the barbarians around them as something less than human. Cotton Mather took a short method of solving the question of their origin. He guessed that "the devil decoyed the miserable salvages hither in hope that the Gospel of our Lord Jesus Christ would never come here to destroy or disturb his absolute control over them." And after wars with the Indians had imbittered both parties, the expressions of pious men concerning them are shocking to the enlightened mind of to-day. After the massacre of the Pequods, Mather wrote: "It was supposed that no less than five or six hundred Pequot souls were brought down to hell that day." (See *Pequod War*.) The learned and pious Dr. Increase Mather, in speaking of the efficiency of prayer in bringing about the destruction of the Indians, said: "Nor could they [the English] cease crying to the Lord against Philip until they had prayed the bullet into his heart." In speaking of an Indian who had sneered at the religion of the English, he said that immediately upon his uttering a "hideous blasphemy a bullet took him in the head and dashed out his brains, sending his cursed soul in a moment amongst the devils and blasphemers in hell forever." The feeling against the barbarians at the close of King Philip's War among the New-Englanders was that of intense bitterness and savage hatred. It was manifested in many ways; and when we consider the atrocities perpetrated by the Indians, we cannot much wonder at it. The captives who fell into the hands of the Rhode-Islanders were distributed among them as servants and slaves. A large body of Indians assembled at Dover, N. H., to treat for peace were treacherously seized by Major Waldron. About two hundred of them were claimed as fugitives from Massachusetts, and were sent to Boston, where some were hanged and the remainder sent to Bermuda and sold as slaves. To have been present at the "Swamp fight" was adjudged by the authorities of Rhode Island sufficient foundation for putting an Indian to death. Death or slavery was the penalty for all known to have shed English blood. Some fishermen at Marblehead having been killed by the Indians, some women of that town, coming out of church on Sunday just as two Indian prisoners were brought in, fell upon and murdered them. King Philip's dead body was first beheaded and then quartered. His head was carried into Plymouth on a pole and there exhibited for months. His wife and son, made prisoners, were sent to Bermuda and sold as slaves. The disposition of the boy was warmly discussed, some of the elders of the church proposing to put him to death, but slavery was his final doom.

Puritans, EMIGRATION OF, TO MARYLAND. At the time of the passage of the Toleration Act in Maryland (1649) the Puritans in Virginia were severely persecuted because they refused to use the church liturgy, and one hundred and eighteen of them left that colony. Their pastor, Mr. Harrison, returned to England; but nearly all the others, led by their ruling elder, Mr. Du-

rand, went to Maryland, and settled on the banks of the Severn River, near the site of Annapolis, and called the place Providence. The next year Governor Stone visited them and organized the settlement into a shire, and called it Ann Arundel County, in compliment to the wife of Lord Baltimore. (See *Baltimore, Lords*.) These Puritans gave the proprietor considerable trouble.

Putnam and Molang. While Abercrombie was resting securely in his intrenchments at Lake George after his repulse at Ticonderoga, two or three of his convoys had been cut off by French scouting-parties, and he sent out Ma-

guished them. But they were renewed with greater intensity, and Putnam lost all hope, when a French officer dashed through the crowd of yelling savages, scattered the burning fagots, and cut the cords that bound the victim. It was Molang, the leader of the French and Indians, who had heard of the dreadful proceedings. Putnam was delivered to Montcalm at Ticonderoga, treated kindly, and sent a prisoner to Montreal. He was afterwards exchanged for a prisoner captured by Bradstreet at Fort Frontenac.

Putnam Hurries to the Field. On the morning after the affairs at Lexington and Concord (April 20, 1775) Israel Putnam, of Pomfret, Conn., the famous Provincial soldier of the French and Indian War, was in his field, with tow blouse and leather apron, assisting hired men in building a stone wall on his farm. A horseman at full speed acquainted him with the stirring news. He instantly set out to arouse the militia of the nearest town, and was chosen their leader when they were gathered. In his rough guise he set out for Cambridge, and reached it at sunrise, having ridden the same horse one hundred miles in eighteen hours.

Putnam, ISRAEL, was born at Salem, Mass., Jan. 7, 1718; died at Brooklyn, Conn., May 29, 1790. In 1739 he settled in Pomfret, Conn., where he acquired a good estate. He raised a company, and served in the French and Indian War with so much efficiency that in 1757 he was promoted to the rank of major. He was in command of rangers, and in an encounter not far from the southern end of Lake Champlain he was made a prisoner and taken to Montreal. He was exchanged, and was lieutenant-colonel at the capture of Montreal in 1760, and at the capture of Havana in 1762. He was a colonel in Bradstreet's Western expedition in 1764. After the war he settled on a farm in Brooklyn township, where also he kept a tavern. When he heard of the affair at Lexington he left his field and,

without changing his clothing, set off for Boston, where he was appointed a Provincial major-general. He was very active in the battle of Bunker's Hill, and was appointed one of the



MAJOR ISRAEL PUTNAM IN BRITISH UNIFORM.

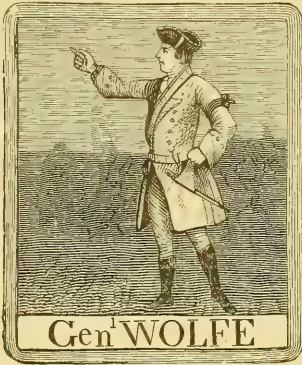
jors Rogers and Putnam to intercept them. (See *Ticonderoga*.) Apprised of this movement, Montcalm sent Molang, an active partisan, to waylay the English detachment. While marching through the forest (August, 1758), in three divisions, within a mile of Fort Anne, the left, led by Putnam, fell into an ambuscade of Indians, who attacked the English furiously, uttering horrid yells. Putnam and his men fought bravely. His fusée at length missed fire with the muzzle at the breast of a powerful Indian, who, with a loud war-whoop, sprang forward and captured the brave leader. Binding Putnam to a tree (where his garments were riddled by bullets), the chief fought on. The Indians were defeated, when his captor unbound Putnam and took him deeper into the forest to torture him. He was stripped naked and bound to a sapling with green withes. Dry wood was piled high around him and lighted, while the Indians chanted the death-song. The flames were kindling fiercely, when a sudden thunder-shower burst over the forest and nearly extin-



ISRAEL PUTNAM, 1776.

first major-generals of the Continental army. From that time his services were given to his

country without cessation until 1779, at West Point, strengthening the fortifications there. Paralysis of one side of his body affected his physical condition, but did not impair his mind, and he lived in retirement until his death. The sign on Putnam's tavern bore a full-length portrait of General Wolfe. In the following letter,



PUTNAM'S SIGN.

written at the close of the war for independence, he alludes to his having been an innkeeper:

"BROOKLYN, Feb. 18, 1782.

"GENTLEMEN,—Being an Enemy to Idleness, Dissipation, and Intemperance, I would object against any measure that may be conducive thereto; and as the multiplying of public-houses where the public good does not require it has a direct tendency to ruin the morals of the youth, and promote idleness and intemperance among all ranks of people, especially as the grand object of those candidates for license is money, and where that is the case, men are not apt to be over-tender of people's morals or purses. The authority of this town, I think, have run into a great error in approving an additional number of public houses, especially in this parish. They have approved two houses in the centre, where there never was custom (I mean travelling custom) enough for one. The other custom (or domestic), I have been informed, has of late years increased, and the licensing of another house, I fear, would increase it more. As I kept a public house here myself a number of years before the war, I had an opportunity of knowing, and certainly do know, that the travelling custom is too trifling for a man to lay himself out so as to keep such a house as travellers have a right to expect; therefore I hope your honors will consult the good of this parish, so as only to license one of the two houses. I shall not undertake to say which ought to be licensed; your honors will act according to your best information.

"I am, with esteem, your honors' humble servant,

"ISRAEL PUTNAM.

"To the Honorable County Court, to be held at Windham on the 19th inst."

Putnam Rallies Flying Troops. When powder failed them, and further resistance seemed vain, Colonel Prescott ordered a retreat from Bunker's (Breed's) Hill (which see), and they fled across Charlestown Neck. Putnam was absent from the hill at the third onset, collecting men for a reinforcement, and was encountered by the retreating party on the declivity of Bunker's Hill proper. Acting on his own responsibility, he now, for the first time, assumed supreme command of those troops. Without orders from any person, he rallied such of the flying soldiers as would obey him, joined them to a detachment which had not arrived in time to share in the battle, and took possession of Prospect Hill, where he encamped that night, and which remained an American encampment throughout the nine months' siege of Boston.

Putnam, RUFUS, was born at Sutton, Mass., April 9, 1738; died at Marietta, O., May 4, 1824. He served in the French and Indian War (which see) from 1757 to 1760, and on the surrender of Montreal (1760) he married and settled in Braintree, Mass., as a millwright. He was studious, and acquired a good knowledge of mathematics, surveying, and navigation. He was a deputy surveyor in Florida before the Revolution. He entered the army at Cambridge in 1775 as lieutenant-colonel, and the ability he displayed in casting up defences at Roxbury caused Washington to recommend him to Congress as superior, as an engineer, to any of the Frenchmen then employed in that service. He was appointed chief-engineer (August, 1776), but soon afterwards left that branch of the service to take command of a Massachusetts regiment. He was with the Northern Army in 1777, and in 1778 he, with his cousin, General Putnam, superintended the construction of the fortifications at West Point. After the capture of Stony Point (which see) he commanded a regiment in Wayne's brigade, and served to the end of the campaign. He was made a brigadier-general in 1783. He was aid to General Lincoln in quelling Shays's insurrection (1787), and in 1788, as Superintendent of the Ohio Company (which see), he founded Marietta, the first permanent settlement in the eastern part of the Northwest Territory. He was judge of the Superior Court of that territory in 1789, and was a brigadier-general in Wayne's campaign against the Indians. As United States Commissioner, he made important treaties with some of the tribes. He was United States Surveyor-general from October, 1793, to September, 1803.

Pyle, DEFEAT OF. Recrossing the Dan after his famous retreat into Virginia, Greene attempted to frustrate the efforts of Cornwallis to embody the loyalists of North Carolina into military corps. In this business the gallant Colonel Henry Lee, with his "Legion," was conspicuous. At the head of his cavalry, he scoured the country around the head-waters of the Haw and Deep rivers, where, by force and stratagem, he foiled Tarleton, who was recruiting among the Tories there. Colonel Pyle, an active loyalist, had gathered three or four hundred Tories, and was marching to join Cornwallis. Lee's Legion greatly resembled Tarleton's, and he made the country people believe that he was recruiting for Cornwallis. Two prisoners were compelled to favor the deception or suffer instant death. Two well-mounted young men of Pyle's corps were so deceived, and informed Lee (supposing him to be Tarleton) of the near presence of that corps. Lee sent word to Pyle, by one of the young men, of his approach, and, assuming the person of Tarleton, requested him to draw up his corps on one side of the road, that his wearied troops might pass without delay. The order, or request, was obeyed. Lee intended, when he should secure the complete advantage of Pyle, to reveal himself and give his Tory corps the choice, after being disarmed, to join the patriot army or return home. He had ordered Pickens to conceal his riflemen

near. Just as Lee (as Tarleton) rode along Pyle's line (March 2, 1781), and had grasped the hand of the latter in an apparently friendly salute, some of the loyalists discovered Pickens's riflemen. Perceiving that they were betrayed, they commenced firing upon the rear-guard of the cavalry, commanded by Captain Eggleston. That officer instantly turned upon the foe, and the movement was followed by the whole column. A terrible fight and slaughter ensued. Of the loyalists, ninety were killed and a large portion of the remainder wounded in a brief

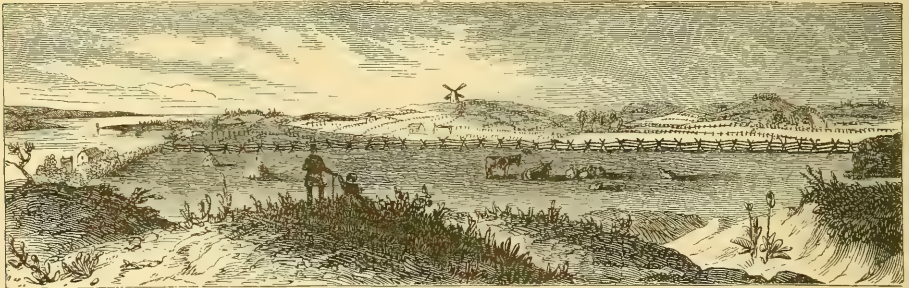
space of time. A cry for mercy was raised by the loyalists. It was granted when the Americans were assured of their safety. Colonel Pyle, wounded, fled to the shelter of a pond near by, where, tradition says, he laid himself under water, with nothing but his nose above it, until after dark, when he crawled out and made his way to his home. Tarleton, who was near, fled to Hillsborough, and the disheartened Tories returned to their homes. Cornwallis wrote: "I am among timid friends and adjoining inveterate rebels."

Q.

Quaker Enthusiasts Whipped in Massachusetts. In 1671 the patience of the people of Massachusetts was sorely tried by the conduct of two young married Quaker women, who walked without any clothing through the streets of Salem and Newburyport, in emulation of the prophet Ezekiel, as a sign of the nakedness of the land. They were whipped at cart-tails, from town to town, out of the colony, under the law against vagabond Quakers. The young husband of one of them followed the cart to which his wife was tied, and from time to time interposed his hat between her naked and bleeding back and the lash of the executioner.

Quaker Hill (R. I.), BATTLE AT. In the summer of 1778 there were 6000 British troops on Rhode Island, commanded by General Pigot. His headquarters were at Newport. They had held the island since late in 1776. An attempt had been made, by a force under General Spen-

can army could be made ready to move against the foe. Greene and Lafayette had both been sent to aid Sullivan, and success was confidently expected. On Aug. 10 the Americans crossed over the narrow strait at the north end of the island in two divisions, commanded respectively by Greene and Lafayette, where they expected to be joined by the 4000 French troops of the fleet, according to arrangement. But at that time Howe had appeared off Newport with his fleet, and D'Estaing went out to meet him, taking the troops with him. A stiff wind was then rising from the northeast, and before the two fleets were ready for attack it had increased to a furious gale, and scattered both armaments. The wind blew the spray from the ocean over Newport, and the windows were incrustated with salt. The French fleet, much shattered, went to Boston for repairs, and the storm, which ended on the 14th, had spoiled much of the ammunition



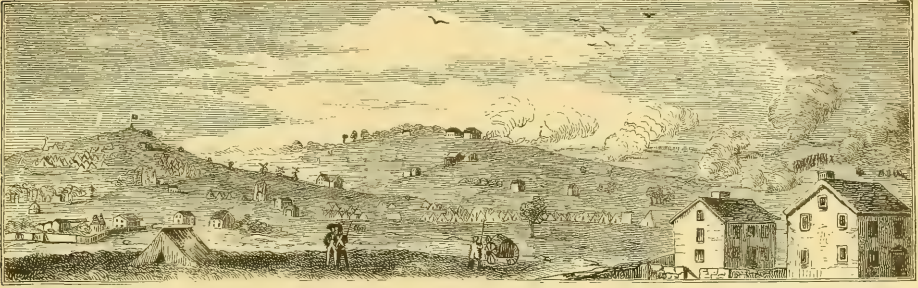
QUAKER HILL, FROM THE FORT ON BUTTS'S HILL.

cer, of Connecticut, the year before, to expel them from the island, but it failed, and that officer resigned his commission and shortly after entered Congress. General Sullivan was his successor, and he had been directed to call upon the New England States for 5000 militia. The call was promptly obeyed. John Hancock, as general, led the Massachusetts militia in person. There was much enthusiasm. The French fleet, under D'Estaing, occupied Narraganset Bay, and opened communication with the American army, then near, and 10,000 strong. The French fleet even entered Newport Harbor, and compelled the British to burn or sink six frigates that lay there. There was a delay of a week before the Ameri-

of the Americans, and damaged their provisions. Expecting D'Estaing's speedy return, the Americans had marched towards Newport, and when Sullivan found he had gone to Boston, he sent Lafayette to urge him to return. The militia began to desert, and Sullivan's army was reduced to 6000 men. He felt compelled to retreat, and began that movement on the night of the 28th, pursued by the British. The Americans made a stand at Butts's Hill, and, turning, drove the pursuers back to Quaker Hill, where they had strong intrenchments. There a severe engagement occurred (Aug. 29, 1778), and the British were pushed farther back. It was a hot and sultry day, and many perished by the heat.

The action ended at three o'clock P.M., but a sluggish cannonade was kept up until sunset. On the night of the 30th Sullivan's army withdrew to the main. They had lost about 200 men, and the British 260. Sullivan made bit-

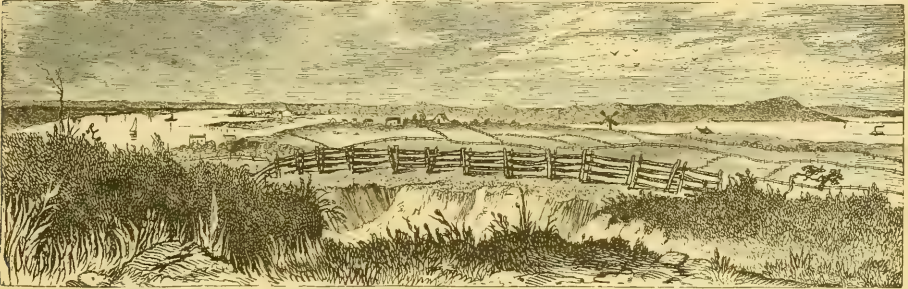
Kemphthorn, sailed into Boston Harbor, with Mary Fisher and Ann Austin, two members of the Society of Friends, on board, brought from Barbadoes. At a council held July 11, 1656, it was ordered that the two women should be



SCENE OF THE ENGAGEMENT ON RHODE ISLAND, AUG. 29, 1778. (From a print in the Gentleman's Magazine, 1778.)

ter complaints against D'Estaing, but Congress soothed his wounded spirit by commending his course. The day after Sullivan withdrew, the British on Rhode Island were reinforced by 4000 men from New York, led by General Clinton in person.

searched; that all their books should be destroyed by the common hangman; that the women should be kept in prison, without communication with any one, except by permission of the authorities, to "prevent the spreading of their corrupt opinions," until they should be put



VIEW NORTHWARD FROM BUTTS'S HILL.

Quakers Executed in Boston. On Oct. 27, 1659, Marmaduke Stephenson and William Robinson, of England, and Mary Dyer, of Newport, R. I., widow of William Dyer, late Recorder of Providence Plantation, were conducted to the scaffold in Boston, because they had violated a law which imposed the penalty of death upon Quakers who should return to the province after having been banished. On the earnest petition of her son, Mary Dyer, after seeing her two companions executed, was reprieved on the scaffold, on condition that she should leave the colony in forty-eight hours. Impelled "by the Spirit," as she alleged, Mary Dyer soon afterwards returned to Boston, where she was promptly hanged, June 1, 1660. Several other returned Quakers were sentenced to suffer death, but only one (William Leddra) was hanged, March 14, 1661.

Quakers, FIRST, IN NEW ENGLAND, appeared in July, 1656, and were banished from the colony. There were twelve of them.

Quakers, FIRST LAW AGAINST, IN NEW ENGLAND. In 1656, the *Swallow*, of Boston, Captain

on board some vessel to be transported out of the country; and that the captain of the *Swallow* should transport them speedily to Barbadoes, he being compelled to pay all charges for their imprisonment. Laws against heretics were already in force in New England, but this was the first legislation directed exclusively against the Quakers. The root of their heresy was the assertion of the rights of individual conscience and of private interpretation of the Scriptures.

Quakers, FIRST PERSECUTION OF, IN NEW ENGLAND. Ann Austin and Mary Fisher, on their arrival in Boston, in 1656, were committed to jail to await the sailing of the vessel in which they came, in which they were to be sent out of the colony. (See *Quakers, First Law against, in New England*.) The windows of the jail were boarded up. They were stripped, and were searched to find the conventional "witch-marks," which were, fortunately, not found. The religious books they brought with them were burned by the common hangman, and their jailer and the citizens were forbidden to give them any food. A benevolent citizen named

Upshall furnished the jailer with money to buy food for the prisoners. For this offence he was fined \$100, imprisoned four days, and, notwithstanding he was in feeble health, was ordered to leave the colony in thirty days. He was fined, in addition, \$15 for each absence from public worship during the thirty days. The exile was not permitted, by the Governor of Plymouth Colony, to settle there, and he went to the wilderness, where he experienced the loving-kindness of the barbarians. "What a God have those English," exclaimed a chief, "who deal so with one another about their God!"

Quakers in Maryland. Because the Friends refused to perform military duty or take an oath in Maryland (as elsewhere), they were subject to fines and imprisonment, but were not persecuted there on account of their religious views. When, in 1676, George Fox, the founder of the sect, was in Maryland, his preaching was not hindered. He might be seen on the shores of the Chesapeake, preaching at the evening twilight, when the labors of the day were over, to a multitude of people, comprising members of the Legislature and other distinguished men of the province, yeomen, and large groups of Indians, with chiefs and sachems, their wives and children, all led by their emperor.

Quakers in New Amsterdam. Governor Stuyvesant was a strict Churchman, and guarded, as far as possible, the purity of the ritual and doctrines of the Reformed Dutch Church in New Netherland. He compelled the Lutherans to conform, and did not allow other sects to take root there. In 1657 a ship arrived at New Amsterdam, having on board several of "the accursed sect called Quakers." They had been banished from Boston, and were on their way from Barbadoes to Rhode Island, "where all kinds of scum dwell," wrote Dominie Megapolenses, "for it is nothing else than a sink of New England." Among the Friends were Dorothy Waugh and Mary Witherhead. They went from street to street in New Amsterdam, preaching their new doctrine to the gathered people. Stuyvesant ordered the women to be seized and cast into prison, where, for eight days, they were imprisoned in dirty, vermin-infested cells, with their hands tied behind them, when they were sent on board the ship in which they came, to be transported to Rhode Island. Robert Hodgson, who determined to remain in New Netherland, took up his abode at Hempstead, where a few Quakers were quietly settled. There he held a meeting, and Stuyvesant ordered him to his prison at New Amsterdam. Tied to the tail of a cart wherein sat two young women, offenders like himself, he was driven by a band of soldiers during the night through the woods to the city, where he was imprisoned in "a filthy jail," under sentence of such confinement for two years, to pay a heavy fine, and to have his days spent in hard labor, chained to a wheelbarrow with a negro, who lashed him with a heavy tarred rope. He was subjected to other cruel treatment at the hands of the governor, until the Dutch people, as well as the English,

cried "Shame!" There were no other persecutions of the Friends after Hodgson's release.

Quakers in North Carolina. There were a few Friends, or Quakers, on the Chowan River, in North Carolina, among the early settlers, and these George Fox visited in 1672. His preaching there increased their numbers by conversions to his doctrines.

Quakers, LAWS AGAINST. After Massachusetts had suspended its laws against Quakers, in 1661, Parliament made a law (1662) which provided that every five of them, meeting for religious worship, should be fined, for the first offence, \$25; for the second offence, \$50; and for the third offence to abjure the realm on oath, or be transported to the American colonies. Many refused to take the oath, and were transported. By an act of the Virginia Legislature, passed in 1662, every master of a vessel who should import a Quaker, unless such as had been shipped from England under the above act, was subjected to a fine of five thousand pounds of tobacco for the first offence. Severe laws against other sectaries were passed in Virginia, and many of the non-conformists in that colony, while Berkeley ruled, fled deep into the wilderness to avoid persecution.

Quakers, MANDAMUS RESPECTING. In 1661 Charles II. sent a letter to the government of New England (see *New England Confederacy*), signifying his pleasure that there should be no further persecution of the Quakers who were condemned to suffer death or other corporal punishment, but that they (those in the provinces) should be sent to England for trial; whereupon the General Court ordered "that the execution of the laws against Quakers, as such, so far as they respect corporal punishment or death, be suspended until the Court take further order." The twenty-eight imprisoned Quakers were released, and sent out of the jurisdiction of Massachusetts.

Quakers not Persecuted in Rhode Island. In September, 1656, the authorities of Massachusetts addressed to President Arnold, of Rhode Island, an urgent letter, protesting against the toleration of Quakers allowed there, and intimating that, unless it was discontinued, it would be resented by total non-intercourse. There was then very little sympathy felt for the Quakers in Rhode Island, but the authorities refused to persecute them, and Coddington and others afterwards joined them.

Quakers, PERSECUTION OF THE. The sect of "Friends," who were called Quakers in derision, was founded at about the middle of the 17th century. At first they were called "Professors (or Children) of the Light," because of their fundamental principle that the light of Christ within was God's gift of salvation—that "Light which lighteth every man that cometh into the world." It is said that George Fox, the real founder of the sect, when brought before magistrates at Derby, England, in 1650, told them to "quake before the Lord," when one of them (Gervase Bennet) caught up the word

"quake," and was the first who called the sect "Quakers." They were generally known by that name afterwards. (See *Fox, George*.) They spread rapidly in England, and were severely persecuted by the Church and State. At one time there were four thousand of them in loathsome prisons in England. The most prominent of Fox's disciples was William Penn, who did much to alleviate their sufferings. Many died in prison or from the effects of imprisonment. Grievous fines were imposed, a large portion of which went to informers. They were insulted by the lower classes; their women and children were dragged by the hair along the streets; their meeting-houses were robbed of their windows; and, by order of King Charles and the Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1670, their meeting-houses were pulled down; and when they gathered for worship beside the ruins they were beaten over the head by soldiers and dispersed. In this way many were killed outright or disabled for life. Constables and informers broke into their houses. The value of their property destroyed before the accession of William and Mary (1689) was estimated at \$5,000,000. Besides this, they were fined to the amount of over \$80,000, and their goods were continually seized because they refused to pay tithes, bear arms, or enroll themselves in the military force of the country. "The purity of their lives, the patience with which they endured insult and persecution (never returning evil for evil), their zeal, their devotedness, and their love for each other often compelled the admiration even of magistrates whose orders oppressed them." To escape persecution, many of them emigrated to the Continent, and some to the West Indies and North America. In the latter-named countries they found persecutors. Those who first appeared in New England and endured persecution there were fanatical and aggressive, and were not true representatives of the sect in England. They were among the earliest of the disciples of Fox, whose enthusiasm led their judgment; and some of them were absolutely lunatics and utterly unlike the sober-minded, mild-mannered members of that society to-day. They ran into the wildest extravagances of speech; openly reviling magistrates and ministers of the Gospel with intemperate language; overriding the rights of all others in maintaining their own; making the most exalted pretensions to the exclusive possession of the gifts of the Holy Spirit; scorned all respect for human laws; mocked the institutions of the country; and two or three fanatical young women outraged decency by appearing without clothing in the churches and in the streets, as emblems of the "unclothed souls of the people;" while others, with loud voices, proclaimed that the wrath of the Almighty was about to fall like destructive lightning upon Boston and Salem. This conduct, and these indecencies, caused the passage of some cruel laws in Massachusetts against the Quakers. The first of the sect who appeared there were Mary Fisher and Ann Austin, who arrived at Boston from Barbadoes in September (N. S.), 1656. Their

trunks were searched, and their books were burned by the common hangman before they were allowed to land. Cast into prison, their persons were stripped in a search for bodily marks of witches. None were found, and they, being mild-mannered women, and innocent, were soon released and expelled from Massachusetts as "heretics." Nine other men and women who came from London were similarly treated. Others "sought martyrdom" in New England and found it. Some reviled, scolded, and denounced the authorities in Church and State, railing at the functionaries from windows as they passed by. More and more severe were the laws passed against the Quakers. They were banished on pain of death. Three of them who returned were led to the scaffold—two young men and Mary Dyer, widow of the Secretary of State of Rhode Island. The young men were hanged; Mary was relieved and sent back to Rhode Island. The next spring she returned to Boston, defied the laws, and was hanged. The severity of the laws caused a revulsion in public feeling. True Friends who came stoutly maintained their course with prudence, and were regarded by thoughtful persons as real martyrs for conscience' sake. A demand for the repeal of the bloody enactments caused their repeal in 1661, when the fanaticism of both parties subsided and a more Christian spirit prevailed. In Virginia, laws almost as severe as those in Massachusetts were enacted against the Quakers. In Maryland, also, where religious toleration was professed, they were punished as "vagabonds" who persuaded people not to perform required public duties. In Rhode Island they were not interfered with, and those who sought martyrdom did not go there. Some of them who did so disgusted Roger Williams that he tried to argue them out of the colony.

Quakers, POLITICAL RULE OF THE, IN PENNSYLVANIA. From the founding of the government of Pennsylvania the rule of the colony was held by the Quakers, they being more numerous than others. When wars with the French and Indians afflicted the colonies their peace principles made the members of the Assembly of that sect oppose appropriations of men and money for war purposes. When, in 1755, the frontiers of Pennsylvania were seriously threatened, the Quakers, though still a majority in the Assembly, could no longer resist the loud cry "To arms" in Philadelphia and echoed from the frontiers. The hostile Indians were among the Juniata settlements. The proprietary party successfully stirred up the people. After a sharp struggle, the Assembly, in consideration of a voluntary subscription of £5000 by the proprietaries, consented to levy a tax of £50,000, from which the estates of the latter were exempted. The expenditure of the amount was intrusted to a committee of seven, of whom a majority were members of the Assembly; and these became the managers of the war, now formally declared, against the Delawares and Shawnoese. So the golden chain of friendship which bound the barbarians to Will-

iam Penn was first broken. This was the first time the Quakers were driven into an open participation in war. Some of the more conscientious resigned their seats in the Assembly, and others declined a re-election. So it was that, in 1755, the rule of the Quakers in the administration of public affairs in Pennsylvania came to an end.

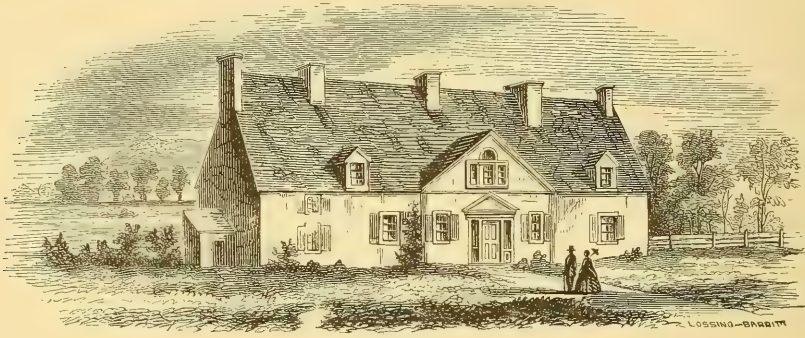
Quarrel with America fairly stated :

"Rudely forced to drink tea, Massachusetts, in anger,
Spills the tea on John Bull. John falls on to bang her.
Massachusetts, enraged, calls her neighbors to aid
And give Master John a severe bastinado.
Now, good men of the law, who is at fault,
The one who begins or resists the assault?"

Anderson's Constitutional Gazette (1775).

Quartering Act. A clause inserted in the mutiny act in 1765 authorized the quartering of troops upon the English-American colonies.

city occupied a strong position for defence against attack. It consisted of an upper and a lower town on a point of land at the confluence of the St. Lawrence and its tributary the St. Charles. The lower town was built on a narrow beach at the water's edge of both rivers; the upper town occupied a high rocky cape, rising at one point three hundred feet above the river, and extending back some distance in a lofty plateau, called the Plains of Abraham. The upper town was surrounded by a fortified wall. At the mouth of the St. Charles the French had moored several floating batteries, and, apprised of the expedition, had taken vigorous measures to strengthen the port. Beyond the St. Charles, and between it and the Montmorency, a river which enters the St. Lawrence a few miles below Quebec, lay



MONTCALM'S HEADQUARTERS.

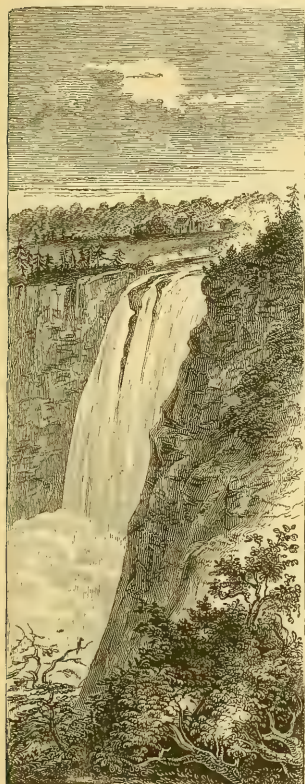
By a special enactment known as the "Quartering Act," the colonies in which they were stationed were required to find quarters, firewood, bedding, drink, soap, and candles.

Quebec Act. Evidently anticipating rebellion in America, and distrustful of the newly acquired colony of Quebec, a bill was passed in the spring of 1774 which guaranteed to the Roman Catholic Church in that province the possession of its ample property, amounting to a fourth part or more of the old French grants, with full freedom of worship. The calling of an assembly was indefinitely postponed, the legislative authority, except for taxation, being committed to a council nominated by the crown. The boundaries of the province were extended to the Mississippi River on the west and the Ohio on the south, so as to include, besides the present Canada, the territory embraced in the five states north of the Ohio.

Quebec, CAPTURE OF (1759). The expedition for the capture of Quebec, fitted out in the spring of 1759, was placed under the command of General James Wolfe, then only thirty-three years of age. He left Louisbourg with 8000 troops, in transports, under a convoy of twenty-two line-of-battle ships and as many frigates and smaller armed vessels, commanded by Admirals Holmes and Saunders. On the 27th of June he landed his troops on the Isle of Orleans, about three miles below Quebec. That

Montcalm's army, almost equal in numbers to that of Wolfe, but composed largely of Canadians and Indians. This camp was strongly intrenched, and, overhanging the St. Lawrence, and extending a great distance above Quebec, the Heights, almost perpendicular on the river-front, seemed to present an almost impregnable barrier of defence. Wolfe found a great advantage in his naval superiority, which gave him full command of the river. On the south side of the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec, was Point Levi, occupied by some French troops. This post Wolfe seized (July 30) without much opposition, on which he erected batteries. From there he hurled hot shot upon the city, which destroyed the cathedral and did much damage to the lower town, but which had very little effect upon the strong fortifications of the upper town. Wolfe then determined to land below the mouth of the Montmorency and bring Montcalm into action. For this purpose he caused a large force to be landed, under Generals Townshend and Murray (July 10), who were to force the passage of the Montmorency. But the French were so strongly posted that such action was deferred. Finally General Monckton, with grenadiers, crossed the river from Point Levi and landed upon the beach at the foot of the high bank, just above the Montmorency. Murray and Townshend were ordered to cross that stream above the great falls and co-operate with Monckton, but the latter was too eager for

attack to await their coming. He unwisely rushed forward, but was soon repulsed and compelled to take shelter behind a block-house near the beach, just as a thunder-storm, which had



MONTMORENCY FALLS.

been gathering for some time, burst in fury upon the combatants. Before it ceased night came on, and the roar of the rising tide warned the English to take to their boats. In the battle and the flood 500 of the English perished. Various devices were conceived for destroying the French shipping, to draw out the garrison, and to produce alarm. A magazine and many houses were fired and burned, but it was impossible to cut out the French shipping. Two months passed away; very little progress had been made towards conquest; and no other

intelligence had been received from Amherst (see *Ticonderoga*, 1759) than a report by the enemy that he had retreated. The season for action was rapidly passing. The prospect was discouraging; yet Wolfe, though prostrated by sickness, was full of hope. He called a council of officers at his bedside, and, on the suggestion of General Townshend, it was resolved to scale the Heights of Abraham from the St. Lawrence and assault the town. A plan was instantly matured, and, feeble as Wolfe was from the effects of fever, he resolved to lead the assault in person. The camp below the Montmorency was broken up (Sept. 8), and the attention of Montcalm was diverted from the real designs of the English by seeming preparations to attack his lines. Even De Bougainville, whom Montcalm had sent up the river with 1500 men to guard against an attack above the town, had no suspicions of their intentions, so secretly and skillfully had the affair been managed. The troops had been withdrawn from the Isle of Orleans and placed on shipboard, and on the evening of Sept. 12 the vessels moved up the stream several miles above the intended landing-place, which was at a cove at the foot of a narrow ravine, a short distance above the town, that led up to

the Plains of Abraham. At midnight the troops left the ships, and in flat-bottomed boats, with muffled oars, went down to the designated landing-place, where they disembarked. At dawn (Sept. 13) Lieutenant-colonel Howe (afterwards General Sir William Howe, of our Revolutionary period) led the van up the tangled ravine in the face of a sharp fire from the guard above. After a brief struggle they reached the plain, drove off a small force there, and covered the ascent



WOLFE'S RAVINE.

of the main body. In early morning the whole British force was upon the Plains of Abraham, ready to attack the city at its weakest points. It was an apparition unexpected to the vigilant Montcalm. He instantly put his troops in motion to meet the impending peril of the city. He crossed the St. Charles, and between nine and ten o'clock in the morning the English were confronted by the French army on the plains. A general fierce and sanguinary battle quickly ensued. Eight or ten 6-pounders, dragged up the heights by sailors, were brought into play after the action began. The French had only two small field-pieces. The contending generals were respectively stationed on the right of the English and the left of the French, opposite each other, and there the battle raged fiercest. Wolfe, though twice wounded, continued to give orders. His grenadiers were pressing the French back, when, a third time, he was wounded, and mortally. English bayonets and the broadswords of the Scotch Highlanders at length began to make the French line waver. At that moment Montcalm fell, mortally wounded, and the whole French line broke into disorder and fled. Monckton, who had taken the command, was severely wounded. Townshend continued the battle until the victory was won. Of the French, 500 were killed, and 1000 (including the wounded) were made prisoners. The English lost 600 killed and wounded. General Townshend now prepared to besiege the city. Threatened famine within aided him, and five days after the death of Wolfe (Sept. 18, 1759) Quebec, with its fortifications, shipping, stores, and people, was surrendered to the English, when 5000 troops, led by General Murray, took possession of the whole. The English fleet,

with the sick and French prisoners, sailed for Halifax. Many years ago a truncated column of granite was erected on the spot where Wolfe



WOLFE'S FIRST MONUMENT.

fell. Relic-seekers broke it into an unattractive mass, and it was removed for a more stately structure. (See *Wolfe, James*.)

Quebec, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1690). The New England colonies and New York formed a bold design, in 1690, to subject Canada to the crown of England. (See *Colonial Congress, Early*.) An armament was fitted out for operations by sea and land. The naval arm of the service was placed under the command of Sir William Phipps, who, without charts or pilots, crawled cautiously along the shores around Acadia and up the St. Lawrence, consuming nine weeks on the passage. A swift Indian runner had carried news of the expedition from Pemaquid to Frontenac, at Montreal, in time to allow him to hasten to Quebec and strengthen the fortifications there. Phipps did not arrive until the 5th of October. Immediate operations were necessary on account of the lateness of the season. He sent a flag demanding the instant surrender of the city and fortifications. His summons was treated with disdain. After being prevented from landing near the city by a gale, he debarked a large body of his troops at the Isle of Orleans, about three miles below the town, where they were attacked by the French and Indians. There the English remained until the 11th, when a deserter gave them such an account of the strength of Quebec that Phipps abandoned the enterprise, hastily re-embarked his troops, and crawled back to Boston with his whole fleet, after it had been dispersed by a tempest.

Quebec, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1711). After the reduction of Port Royal, Colonel Nicholson went again to England to solicit an expedition against Canada. The ministry acceded to his proposal, and a sufficient armament was ordered for the grand enterprise. Nicholson hastened back, gave notice to the colonies, and prepared for the invasion of Canada by sea and land. (See *Queen Anne's War*.) Admiral Walker commanded the fleet of sixty-eight vessels of war and transports, bearing about seven thousand men. When the ships arrived at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, after loitering by the way, they were overtaken by a storm and thick fog.

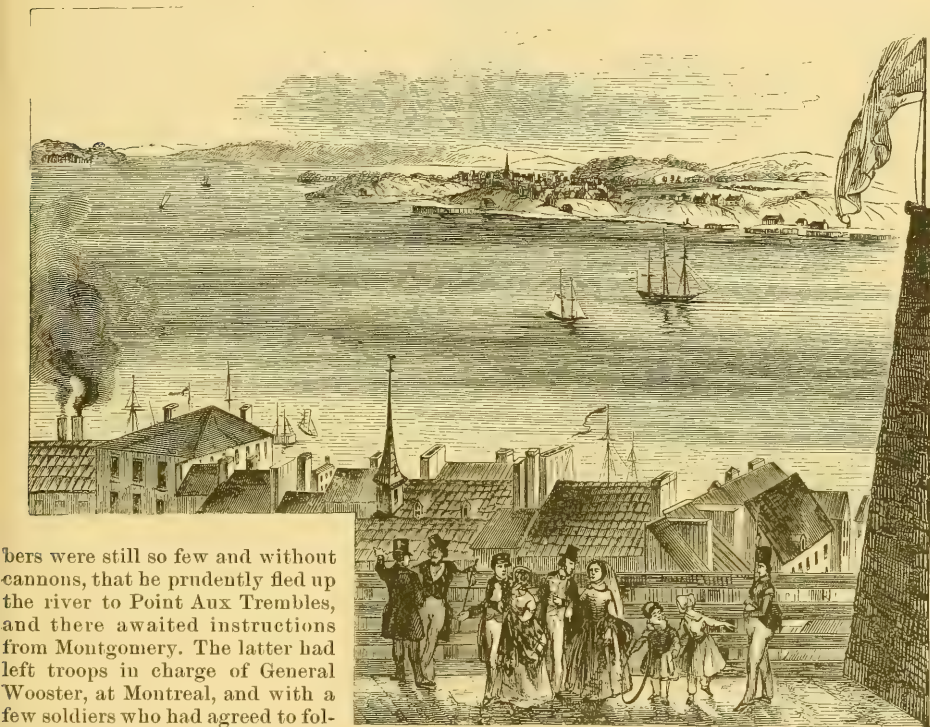
They were in a perilous place among rocks and shoals. His New England pilots, familiar with the coast, told him so; but he haughtily rejected their information, and relied wholly on French pilots, who were interested in deceiving him. On the night of Sept. 2 his fleet was driving on the shore. Just as the admiral was going to bed, the captain of his flag-ship came down to him and said, "Land is in sight; we are in great danger." He did not believe it. Presently a Provincial captain rushed down and exclaimed, "For the Lord's sake, come on deck, or we shall be lost!" Leisurely putting on his gown and slippers, the admiral ascended to the deck and saw the imminent peril. His orders given to secure safety were too late. The vessels were driven on the rocks, and eight of them were lost. In the disaster almost a thousand men perished. At a council of war held a few days afterwards, it was determined to abandon the expedition, and Nicholson, with his ships, returned to England, while the troops were sent to Boston. The arrogant Walker actually claimed credit for himself in retreating, falsely charging the disaster to the New England pilots, and saying: "Had we arrived safe at Quebec, ten or twelve thousand men must have been left to perish with cold and hunger; by the loss of a part, Providence saved all the rest." His government did not reward him for helping Providence. Governor Vaudreuil, at Montreal, advised of the movement, had sent out Jesuit missionaries and other agents to gather Indian allies, and, hastening to Quebec, strengthened the fortifications there. So enthusiastic were the people in preparing for defence that women worked on the forts.

Quebec, REJOICINGS AT (1776). During the early summer of 1776 the American troops were drawn out of Canada, and an attempt to seize that province by the patriots was frustrated. On the anniversary of the repulse of the British at Quebec, the day was set apart as one for thanksgiving for the deliverance of Canada. In the churches the *Te Deum* was chanted, and in the evening the provincial militia gave a grand ball. When Governor Carleton entered, the assembly broke out into loud cheers, followed by a song in English in his praise.

Quebec, SIEGE OF (1775). On the day (Nov. 13, 1775) after Montgomery entered Montreal in triumph, Colonel Benedict Arnold, with 750 half-naked men, having not more than 400 muskets and no artillery, stood before the walls of Quebec. He boldly demanded its surrender. He had reached Point Levi four days before, at the end of a terrible march through the wilderness. (See *Arnold's Expedition to Quebec*.) Veiled in falling snow, they had appeared like a supernatural apparition—a spectral army—on the bleak shore. The man who carried the news of their advent into Quebec created great consternation there. He said, in French, that they were *vêtu en toile*—clothed in linen cloth—referring to Morgan's riflemen in their linen frocks. The last word was mistaken for *tôle*—iron plate—and the message created a panic. Detained by the storm, Arnold

crossed the river on the night of the 13th with 550 men in bark canoes, landed at Wolfe's Cove (where Wolfe landed in 1759), ascended to the Plains of Abraham, marched towards the two gates of the city opening on the plain, and ordered his men to give three cheers to bring out the regulars to attack him, when he hoped to rush in through the open gates, and by the assistance of friends within the walls to seize the city. The commander there paid little attention to him, and after making a ridiculous display of arrogance and folly for a few days by issuing proclamations and demanding the surrender of the city, he was startled by news of the descent of the St. Lawrence by Carleton, and that the garrison were about to sally out and attack him with field-pieces. He had been joined by the 200 troops he had left at Point Levi, but his num-

men, exposed to tempest and cold on the bleak plain. He made an ice-redoubt and planted upon it six 12-pound cannons and two howitzers brought by Colonel Lamb. From four or five mortars placed in the lower town he sent bomb-shells into the city, and set a few buildings on fire. Some round-shot from the citadel shivered Lamb's ice-battery and compelled him to withdraw. Then Montgomery waited a fortnight for expected reinforcements, but in vain. The terms of the enlistments of some of his men had almost expired, and the deadly small-pox appeared among them. Quarrels between Arnold and several of his officers alienated some of the troops, and it appeared at one time as if a dissolution of the little invading army was imminent. On Christmas Montgomery determined to try and carry the city by assault at two points

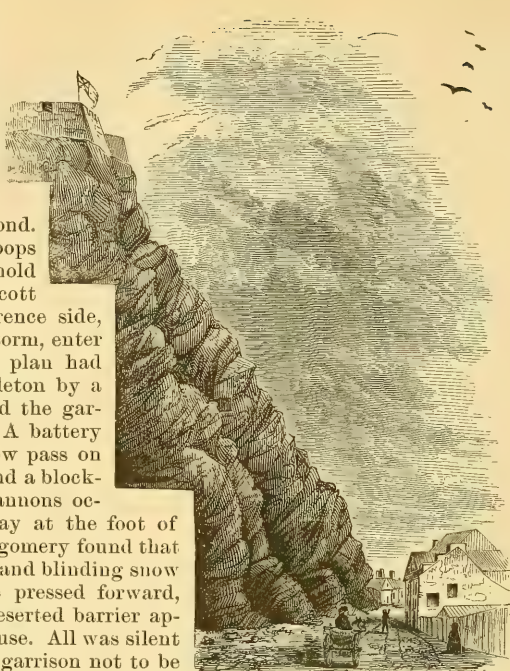


VIEW OF POINT LEVI, FROM DURHAM TERRACE, QUEBEC.

bers were still so few and without cannons, that he prudently fled up the river to Point Aux Trembles, and there awaited instructions from Montgomery. The latter had left troops in charge of General Wooster, at Montreal, and with a few soldiers who had agreed to follow him he went towards Quebec. He met Arnold's shivering soldiers on the 3d of December, and took command of the combined troops. With woollen clothing which he took with him he clothed Arnold's men, and with the combined force, less than 1000 strong, and 200 Canadian volunteers under Colonel James Livingston, he pressed forward, and stood before Quebec on the evening of the 5th of December. On the following morning he demanded the surrender of the city and garrison of Governor Carleton, when the flag which he sent was fired upon. Montgomery sent a letter to Carleton, but the latter refused to have any communication with a "rebel general." The latter prepared to assail the walled town with his handful of ill-supplied

simultaneously, one division to be under his own command, the other to be led by Arnold. It was determined to undertake the task on the next stormy night, Arnold to attack the lower town in the gloom, setting fire to the suburb of St. Roque, while the main body under Montgomery should make the attack on the St. Lawrence side of the town. A snow-storm began (Dec. 30, 1775), and, notwithstanding sickness and desertion had reduced the invading army to 750 effective men, movements for the assault were immediately made. While Colonel Arnold led 350 men to assault the city on the St. Charles side, Colonel Livingston made a feigned attack on the St. Louis Gate, and Major Brown men-

aced Cape Diamond Bastion. At the same time Montgomery descended to the edge of the St. Lawrence with the remainder of the army, and made his way along the narrow shore at the foot of Cape Diamond. The plan was for the troops of Montgomery and Arnold to meet and assail Prescott Gate on the St. Lawrence side, and, carrying it by storm, enter the city. The whole plan had been revealed to Carleton by a Canadian deserter, and the garrison was prepared. A battery was placed at a narrow pass on the St. Charles side, and a block-house with masked cannons occupied the narrow way at the foot of Cape Diamond. Montgomery found that pass blocked with ice, and blinding snow was falling fast. He pressed forward, and after passing a deserted barrier approached the block-house. All was silent there. Believing the garrison not to be on the alert, Montgomery shouted to the companies of Captains Mott and Cheeseman near him, "Men of New York, you will not fear to follow where your general leads; push on, my brave boys, and Quebec is ours!" Through the thick snow-veil forty men in the block-house watched for the appearance of the invaders just



FOOT OF CAPE DIAMOND.

gorgan took the command. A party of the Americans near Palace Gate were captured. The remainder fought desperately until ten o'clock, when Morgan, having lost full a hundred men, was compelled to surrender. A reserve force of Arnold's division had retreated, and these were soon joined by the forces of Lieutenant-colonel Campbell. So ended the siege of Quebec. The whole loss of the Americans in the assault, killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about 400; that of the British was only about 20 killed. Arnold retired with the remnant of his troops to Sillery, three miles up the river, and, with breastworks covered with snow, he kept up the blockade of Quebec during the winter.

Quebec, SYMPATHY OF, WITH BOSTON. While the English-American colonies were assisting Boston because of its distress when its port was closed (see *Boston Port Bill*), the French inhabitants of Quebec, joining with those of English origin, shipped 1040 bushels of wheat for the use of Boston sufferers.

Queen Aliquippa was an Indian sovereign who dwelt at the confluence of the Monongahela and Youghiogheny, in the southeastern part of Alleghany County, Penn., at the time of Washington's expedition to Fort Le Boeuf (1753). She had complained of his neglect in not calling on her on his outward journey, so he visited her in returning. With an apology, he gave the queen a coat and a bottle of rum. "The latter," Washington wrote, "was thought the much better present of the two," and harmony of feeling was soon restored. Aliquippa was a woman of great muscular and mental strength, and had performed such brave deeds that she was held in



PLACE WHERE ARNOLD WAS WOUNDED.

at dawn. Montgomery's shout was answered by a deadly storm of grape-shot from the masked

reverence by the barbarians of western Pennsylvania.

Queen Anne's War. The Treaty of Ryswick produced only a lull in the inter-colonial war in America. It was very brief. James II. died in France in September, 1701, and Louis XIV., who had sheltered him, acknowledged his son, Prince James (commonly known as The Pretender), to be the lawful heir to the English throne. This naturally offended the English, for Louis had acknowledged William as king in the Ryswick treaty. The British Parliament had also settled the crown on Anne, second daughter of James, so as to secure a Protestant succession. The English were also offended because Louis had placed his grandson, Philip of Aragon, on the Spanish throne, and thus extended the influence of France among the dynasties of Europe. On the death of William III. (March 8, 1702) Anne ascended the throne, and on the same day the triple alliance between England, Holland, and the German Empire against France was renewed. Soon afterwards, chiefly because of the movements of Louis above mentioned, England declared war against France, and their respective colonies in America took up arms against each other. The war, which lasted eleven years, was known in Europe as the War of the Spanish Succession, in America as Queen Anne's War. Fortunately, the Five Nations had made a treaty of neutrality (Aug. 4, 1701) with the French in Canada, and thus became an impassable barrier against the savages from the St. Lawrence. The tribes from the Merrimac to the Penobscot had made a treaty of peace with New England (July, 1703), but the French induced them to violate it; and before the close of that summer a furious Indian raid occurred along the whole frontier from Casco to Wells. So indiscriminate was the slaughter that even Quakers were massacred. The immediate cause of this outbreak seems to have been an attack upon and plunder of the trading-post of the young Baron de Castine (see *Castine, Vincent, Baron de*) at the mouth of the Penobscot. In March, 1704, a party of French and Indians attacked Deerfield, on the Connecticut River, killed forty of the inhabitants, burned the village, and carried away 112 captives. Similar scenes occurred elsewhere. Remote settlements were abandoned, and fields were cultivated only by armed parties united for common defence. This state of things became insupportable, and in the spring of 1707 Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire prepared to chastise the barbarians in the east. Rhode Island had not suffered, for Massachusetts sheltered that colony, but the inhabitants humanely helped their afflicted neighbors. Connecticut, though threatened from the north, refused to join in the enterprise. Early in June (1707), 1000 men under Colonel Marsh sailed from Nantucket for Port Royal, Acadia, convoyed by an English man-of-war. The French were prepared for them, and only the destruction of property outside the fort there was accomplished. The war continued, with occasional distressing episodes. In September, 1710, an armament of ships and troops left Bos-

ton and sailed for Port Royal, in connection with a fleet from England with troops under Colonel Nicholson. They captured Port Royal and altered the name to Annapolis, in compliment to the queen. Acadia was annexed to England, under the old title of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. The following year an expedition moved against Quebec. Sir Hovenden Walker arrived at Boston (June 25, 1711) with an English fleet and army, which were joined by New England forces; and on Aug. 15, fifteen men-of-war and forty transports, bearing about 7000 men, departed for the St. Lawrence. Meanwhile, Nicholson had proceeded to Albany, where a force of about 4000 men were gathered, a portion of them Iroquois Indians. These forces commenced their march towards Canada, Aug. 28. Walker, like Braddock nearly fifty years later, haughtily refused to listen to experienced subordinates, and lost eight ships and about 1000 men on the rocks at the mouth of the St. Lawrence on the night of Sept. 2. Disheartened by this calamity, Walker returned to England with the remainder of the fleet, and the colonial troops went back to Boston. On hearing of this failure, the land force marching to attack Montreal retraced their steps. Hostilities were now suspended, and peace was concluded by the treaty at Utrecht, April 11, 1713. The eastern Indians sued for peace, and at Portsmouth the governors of Massachusetts and New Hampshire made a covenant of peace (July 24) with the chiefs of the hostile tribes. A peace of thirty years ensued.

Queen Elizabeth and Raleigh, Smoking.

Sir Walter Raleigh was the recipient of the first tobacco taken to England by Philip Amidas, and Elizabeth, the maiden queen of the realm, became his apt pupil in learning to smoke it. One day while she and the courtier and some others were indulging in the habit, Raleigh offered a wager that he would ascertain the weight of the smoke that should issue from the queen's lips in a given time. Elizabeth accepted the challenge. Raleigh weighed the tobacco that was put into her pipe, and then weighed the ashes that remained in it; the difference in the weight he assigned as the weight of the smoke. The queen, laughing, acknowledged that he had won the wager, and said he was the first alchemist she had ever heard of who had succeeded in turning smoke into gold.

Queen Victoria's Proclamation (1861).

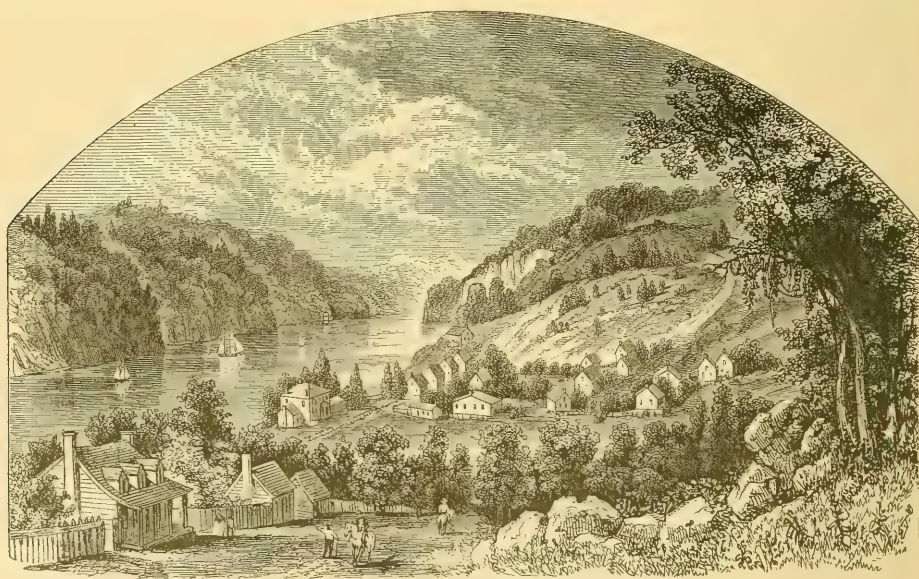
While the Queen of England personally sympathized with the government of the United States in its trouble with the malcontents in 1861, she was induced by her ministers, who were practically unfriendly towards the Republic of the West, to issue a proclamation (May 13) by which a Confederate government then existing was acknowledged as regular and legitimate, and belligerent rights were accorded to the insurgents. At the beginning of May a motion was made in the British Parliament with a view to the recognition of the independence of the so-called Confederate States of America, and in reply to a question of the mover, Lord John Russell, Minister for Foreign Affairs, replied, "The attorney-

and solicitor-general and the queen's advocate and the government have come to the opinion that the Southern Confederacy of America, according to those principles which seem to them to be just principles, must be treated as a belligerent." This was the first official announcement of the intentions of the British government in the matter. It was made before Mr. Adams, the minister of the new administration, reached England. This unseemly haste indicated the unfriendliness of the British ministry. In a note to Lord John Russell (May 20) Mr. Adams spoke of the action of the government as "precipitate and unprecedented." But while belligerent rights were accorded to the Confederates, one of which was that of privateering, by an order in council (which see) on June 1, 1861, they were deprived of the chief advantages of that right by the prohibition of the disposal of prizes in British ports.

Queen's (now Rutgers) College, an institution for higher education, established in the English-American colonies, was founded under the auspices of the Reformed Dutch Church. A royal charter was obtained in 1770, with the title of Queen's College, and it was a theological seminary until 1865, when it became a partially independent literary college, on condition that the president and three fourths of its trustees should be in full communion with the Reformed Dutch Church. It received the name of Rutgers College in 1825, when Colonel Henry Rutgers gave it \$5000. Its operations had been three

bell, an energetic worker, was called to the presidential chair in 1863. Under his administration several hundred thousand dollars were added to the endowment; fine buildings have been erected, and in 1875 the number of students increased from sixty to more than two hundred. In 1866 the State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts (see *Agricultural Colleges*) was opened as a department of Rutgers College, with a farm of one hundred acres. Its library numbered, in 1875, between seven and eight thousand volumes, and provision had been made for largely increasing it. The same year the college had, also, a grammar-school of nearly two hundred pupils.

Queenstown, BATTLE AT (1812). The unfortunate armistice signed by Dearborn so delayed preparations for war on the Niagara frontier that General Van Rensselaer found himself in command of only 700 men there on the 1st of September, 1812. His headquarters were at Lewiston, opposite Queenstown. He had been promised 5000 men at that time, and was charged with the double duty of defending that frontier and invading Canada. After the armistice (which see) was ended, regulars and militia began to gather on that frontier, and towards the middle of October Van Rensselaer had 6000 men scattered along the river from Lewiston to Buffalo. Feeling strong enough, he marched to invade Canada from Lewiston, on the night of the 12th. It was intensely dark. A storm had just ceased, and the air was laden with vapor. At three



QUEENSTOWN IN 1812.

times suspended previous to that time—once by the Revolution and twice by financial embarrassment. Its first president was Rev. Dr. J. R. Hardenburg. Its small endowments and the disturbances of the Civil War threatened it with a fourth suspension, when Rev. Dr. W. H. Camp-

o'clock in the morning (Oct. 13) Colonel Solomon Van Rensselaer, in command of 600 men, was on the shore at Lewiston, prepared to cross the river in the gloom, but, for want of a sufficient number of boats, he crossed with less than half his force. The British, on the alert, had

discovered the movement of the Americans, and when the latter landed, at the foot of the high, rocky bank of the Niagara River, they were assailed with musketry and a small field-piece. To this attack a battery on Lewiston Heights responded, when the British fled towards the village of Queenstown. They were followed by regulars, under Captain John E. Wool, who pushed gallantly up the hill, pressed the British back to the plateau on which Queenstown stands, and finally gained possession of Queenstown Heights. Colonel Van Rensselaer had followed with militia, but was so severely wounded that he was compelled to relinquish the command and return to Lewiston. A bullet had passed through the fleshy part of both Wool's thighs, but, unmindful of his wounds, he would neither leave the field nor relinquish his command until the arrival of his senior officer, Lieutenant-colonel Chrystie, at about nine o'clock. General Sir Isaac Brock was at Fort George, seven miles below Queenstown, when the firing began. He hastened to the scene of action with his staff and pressed up the Heights to a redan battery, where they dismounted, when suddenly Wool and his men came upon them. Brock and his staff fled in haste, and in a few minutes the American flag was waving over that little work. Brock placed himself at the head of some troops to drive Wool from the Heights, and at first the Americans were pressed back by overwhelming numbers to the verge of the precipice, which rises two hundred feet above the river, when, inspired by Wool's words and acts, they turned so furiously upon the British that they broke and fled down the hill. They were rallied by Brock, and were about to ascend the Heights, when their commander was mortally wounded at the foot of the hill. Wool was left master of the Heights until the arrival of General Wadsworth, of the New York militia, who took the chief command. General Sheaffe, who succeeded Brock, again rallied the troops. Lieutenant-colonel Scott had crossed the river, and joined the Americans on the Heights as a volunteer, and at the request of General Wadsworth he took active command. Early in the afternoon a crowd of Indians, led by John Brandt, son of the great Mohawk chief, fell upon the American pickets with a horrid war-whoop. The militia were about to flee, when the towering form and trumpet-toned voice of Scott arrested their attention. He inspired the troops, now about 600 strong, to fall upon the barbarians, who turned and fled in terror to the woods. General Van Rensselaer, who had come over from Lewiston, hastened back to send over more militia. About 1000 had come over in the morning, but few had engaged in the contest. The others refused to go, pleading that they were not compelled to leave the soil of their country, and they stood idly at Lewiston while their comrades were being slaughtered. Overwhelming numbers had pressed forward under General Sheaffe, and compelled the Americans to surrender. The loss of the Americans, in killed and wounded, was about 190; the number made prisoners was 900. The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and pris-

oners—the latter taken in the morning—was about 130. The prisoners were marched to Newark, opposite Fort Niagara. The American militia, officers and privates, were paroled and sent across the river, but those of the regular army were detained, prisoners of war, for exchange, sent to Quebec, and thence by a cartel-ship to Boston.

Quincy, JOSIAH, JR., was born in Boston, Feb. 23, 1744; died April 26, 1775. He graduated at Harvard University in 1763, and soon rose to distinction as a lawyer. He was fervent and influential as a speaker and writer. In 1770 he, with John Adams, defended Captain Preston. (See *Boston Massacre*.) Ill-health compelled him to abandon all business. He made a voyage to Charleston in February, 1773, which gave him much benefit, but his constitution was permanently impaired. He took part in public affairs, speaking against British oppression fervidly and eloquently, until September, 1774, when he made a voyage to England. In London he labored incessantly in behalf of the American cause, but his health soon gave way, and on a voyage homeward he died when he was in sight of his native land, at the early age of thirty-one years.

Quincy, JOSIAH, LL.D., son of Josiah Quincy, Jr., was born in Boston, Feb. 4, 1772; died at Quincy, Mass., July 1, 1864. He graduated at Harvard University in 1790, and entered upon the practice of law in Boston in 1793. In 1804 he was State



JOSIAH QUINCY.

Senator, and was a member of Congress from 1805 to 1813, in which, as a Federalist, he opposed the measures of the administration—especially with regard to the admission of Louisiana as a state and the War of 1812–15—with great ability and vigor. He was ready, fervid, earnest, witty, and keenly satirical in speech, and was a constant annoyance to Presidents Jefferson and Madison. After the war he was again State Senator (1815–20), member of the State Constitutional Conven-

tion, Speaker of the Massachusetts Assembly in 1820-21, Mayor of Boston from 1823 to 1829, and President of Harvard University from 1829 to 1845. He was Judge of the Boston Municipal Court in 1822, and he first laid down the rule that the publication of the truth with good intentions, and for a justifiable motive, was not libelous. Mr. Quincy was a life-long opposer of the system of slave labor, not only as morally wrong, but injurious to the country; and at the age of ninety-one years he made a public patriotic

his denunciations of his opponents, especially when topics connected with the war of 1812 was a theme for debate. He was patriotic, and most sincerely opposed the war; but when it was begun he never omitted to give his aid to his distressed country in the conflict. He was a leader among the Federalists, and was cordially hated by his Democratic opponents. They lampooned him, they abused him, they caricatured him. In a caricature before me he is called "Josiah the First," and has upon his breast, as the decoration of an order, crossed codfishes, in allusion to his persistent defence of the New England fisheries. He is called "King" because of his political domination in New England. In the caricature his coat is scarlet, his waistcoat brown, his breeches light green, and his stockings white silk. In a space near his head, in the original, are the words, "I, Josiah the First, do, by this royal proclamation, announce myself King of New England, Nova Scotia, and Passamaquoddy, Grand Master of the noble Order of the Two Codfishes."



Quitman, JOHN ANTHONY, LL.D., was born at Rhinebeck, N. Y., Sept. 1, 1799; died at Natchez, Miss., July 17, 1858. He became a lawyer, and settled in Natchez in 1823, where he engaged in cotton-planting and the practice of law, in which profession he soon became distinguished. From 1826 to 1831 he was Chancellor of the Supreme Court of Mississippi, and again from 1832 to 1834. Quitman served in both branches of the State Legislature, and was governor *pro tem.* in 1835. In the struggle of Texas for independence he was distinguished. In 1839 he became Judge of the State High Court of Errors and Appeals, and in 1846 the President of the United States appointed him brigadier-general of volunteers. He served with distinction through the war against Mexico, and was appointed by General Scott military governor of the city of Mexico. In 1850 he was elected Governor of Mississippi, and was in Congress from 1856 to 1858, at the head of the Military Committee. General Quitman was a devoted disciple of Calhoun in his political creed.

speech in support of the efforts of the government to suppress the great insurrection in 1861-65. Mr. Quincy's career in Congress was memorable. It was at a time of great political agitation and international commotion. He was an able debater, and was sometimes almost fierce in

R.

Race for Washington, THE THIRD. The corps of Howard and Slocum were detached from the Army of the Potomac, and sent, under Hooker, to reinforce the Army of the Cumberland, in southern Tennessee and northern Georgia. Hearing of this reduction of Meade's force, General Lee resolved to make an attempt to flank the Nationals, and make a rapid march on Washington. He had gone some distance in that movement (Oct. 13, 1863) before Meade discovered it, when he immediately fell back, and the third race for the capital, over nearly the same course pursued on former occasions, seemed for a day or two like a friendly march in parallel lines; but soon it became very exciting, Lee aiming to strike Meade's line of retreat, and the latter foiling him. It was a race marked by

the most stirring incidents, for there was much scouting and skirmishing on the way. It was won by the Army of the Potomac. It ended at Bristow's Station (which see), where a severe engagement ensued between the corps of Generals Warren and Hill. On the morning of Oct. 18 the National army stood in Lee's way on the Heights of Centreville. Lee, after pushing a thin line to Bull's Run, to mask his designs, effectually destroyed the railway from Bristow's Station to the Rappahannock, and then began a retreat (Oct. 18) with his whole army, followed the next day by Meade. In this movement each army lost about eight hundred men in killed and wounded.

Race towards Richmond (1863). Three days after General Lee escaped into Virginia

(July 17-18, 1863), General Meade crossed the Potomac to follow his flying antagonist. The Nationals marched rapidly along the eastern base of the Blue Ridge, while the Confederates went rapidly up the Shenandoah valley, after trying to check Meade by threatening to re-enter Maryland. Failing in this, Lee hastened to oppose a movement that menaced his front and flank, and threatened to cut off his retreat to Richmond. During that exciting race, there were several skirmishes in the mountain-passes. Finally Lee, by a quick and skilful movement, while Meade was detained at Manassas Gap by a heavy skirmish, dashed through Chester Gap, and, crossing the Rappahannock, took a position between that stream and the Rapid Anna. For a while the opposing armies rested. Meade advanced cautiously, and at the middle of September he crossed the Rappahannock, and drove Lee beyond the Rapid Anna, where the latter took a strong defensive position. Here ended the race towards Richmond. Meanwhile the cavalry of Buford and Kilpatrick had been active between the two rivers, and had frequent skirmishes with Stuart's mounted force. Troops had been drawn from each army and sent to other fields of service, and Lee was compelled to take a defensive position. His defences were too strong for a prudent commander to assail directly.

Radford, WILLIAM, is a native of Virginia, and entered the navy as midshipman in March, 1825; served well on the Mexican coast, as lieutenant, in the war against Mexico, and was in command of the *Cumberland* when sunk by the *Merrimac* in Hampton Roads, in March, 1861. (See *Monitor and Merrimac*.) In the attacks of Porter's squadron on Fort Fisher (which see), Radford commanded the *New Ironsides*. Was made rear-admiral. Died Jan. 8, 1890.

Raids and Skirmishes in Tennessee (1863). After the battle at Stone's River, or Murfreesborough, the armies of Rosecrans and Bragg lay confronting each other, the former at the scene of the battle and the latter below the Duck River. Bragg's main base of supplies was at Chattanooga. In that relative position the two armies continued from January until June. Meanwhile detached parties were very active in various parts of Tennessee. At the beginning of February (1863), General Wheeler, Bragg's chief of artillery, with 4500 mounted men, with Brigadiers Forrest and Wharton, attempted to recapture Fort Donelson. The chief object of the Confederates there was to interrupt the navigation of the Cumberland River, and thus interfere with the transportation of supplies for Rosecrans's army. The Confederates failed to capture Fort Donelson, for it was well defended by a little garrison of 600 men under Colonel A. C. Harding assisted by gunboats. There was a severe engagement (Feb. 3), and at eight o'clock in the evening the Confederates fled with a loss of nearly 600 men. Harding lost 156, of whom fifty were made prisoners. Late in January, General J. C. Davis swept over a considerable space in thirteen days, and captured 141 of Wheeler's

men. Later, General Earl Van Dorn, with a large mounted force, was hovering near Franklin, below Nashville. Sheridan at Murfreesborough and Colonel Colburn at Franklin marched simultaneously to confront him. Van Dorn was accompanied by Forrest. Colburn with 2700 men moved against Van Dorn at Spring Hill, but failed to form a junction with Sheridan. After a sharp encounter he was forced to surrender (March 5) about 1300 of his infantry. The remainder, with the cavalry, escaped. Sheridan, with about 1800 cavalry, skirmished in several places with the Confederates, and finally at Thompson's Station, after a sharp engagement, captured some of his antagonists and drove Van Dorn beyond the Duck River. He returned to Murfreesborough with nearly a hundred prisoners, with a loss of ten men killed and wounded. On March 18, Colonel A. S. Hall with 1400 men was attacked by Morgan the guerilla and 2000 men at Milton, twelve miles from Murfreesborough. With the aid of Harris's battery, in a three hours' struggle Hall repulsed Morgan, who lost three or four hundred men killed and wounded. Early in April, General Gordon Grainger was in command at Franklin, building a fort near. He had about 5000 troops. Van Dorn attacked him there (April 10) with 9000 Confederates. The latter intended if successful to push on and seize Nashville, but he was repulsed with a loss of about 300 men. Rosecrans sent Colonel Streight on an extensive raid in Alabama and Georgia in April and May, which resulted in the capture of the leader and his men. (See *Streight's Raid*.)

Raids by Dana, Davidson, and Grierson (1864). There were National forces on the Lower Mississippi to prevent the concentration of forces west of Georgia against Sherman during his march to the sea. (See *Atlanta to the Sea and Savannah*.) These made swift excursions, striking at assembling troops. A troop of mounted men under General Dana went out from Vicksburg and fought and vanquished (Nov. 25, 1864) Confederates on the Big Black River. They destroyed several miles of the railway connecting New Orleans and Tennessee, with the bridges and rolling-stock, much cotton, and valuable stores. Another expedition under General Davidson went out from Baton Rouge, La., and struck the same railway (Nov. 30) at Tangipahoa, laying waste its track and other property. Then he pushed on almost to Mobile, creating great alarm. On Dec. 21 (1864), General Grierson went out from Memphis, Tenn., with 3500 mounted men to operate on the Ohio and Mobile Railway. (See *Grierson's Raid*.) They struck that road at Tupelo and destroyed it to Okolona. They destroyed near Verona, on the way (Dec. 25), ordnance and supplies destined for Hood's army. Much of these was loaded in 200 wagons which Forrest had captured from Sturgis in June. At Okolona Grierson had a severe struggle with Confederate troops and defeated them. He captured a train of cars and about 500 prisoners. Grierson now moved southward and struck the Mississippi Central Railway at Winona Station, and tore up the track several miles

each way. The raiders soon afterwards defeated Confederate cavalry under Colonel Wood at Benton, and then hastened to Vicksburg with the trophies of 500 prisoners, 800 beeves, and 1000 liberated slaves. It had been a destructive and alarming raid, during which Grierson's men destroyed 95 railway cars, 300 wagons, 30 full warehouses, and liberated, by taking therefrom, 100 Union soldiers who had been famishing in Confederate prisons.

Railroads in the United States. The steam-carriage was dimly shadowed by Evans's "Orac-ter Amphibolis" (See *Evans, Oliver*.) It suggested the locomotive. His drawings and specifications, sent to England in 1787 and 1794-95, were copied there, and became the basis of all subsequent inventions of that nature. In 1804 Evans said, "The time will come when a steam-carriage will set out from Washington in the morning, the passengers will breakfast at Baltimore, dine at Philadelphia, and sup in New York." The prophecy is fulfilled. The first railroad charter granted in America was given by the Legislature of New York to the Mohawk and Hudson Railroad Company in 1825. The road was completed in the fall of 1831. The next charter was given by the Legislature of Maryland (1827) to the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company. The same year Horatio Allen, yet (1883) living, was sent to England by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company to buy for them locomotives and iron for a railway which they built in 1828 from Honesdale to the coal-mines. Allen, in the latter part of 1829, put the first locomotive on an American railway. The first locomotive built in the United States was by Peter Cooper, at his iron-works near Baltimore, in 1830. It was a small machine, and drew an open car on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, filled with directors, from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills at the rate of eighteen miles an hour. The multiplication of railways in our country kept pace with the marvellous increase in population, wealth, and inland commerce, until in 1890 the mileage was greater than that of all other railway systems in the world combined. In 1830 there were in the country 23 miles of passenger railways. On June 30, 1890, there were 163,000 miles of completed railway, costing, in round numbers, \$9,000,000,000. The gross earnings of the roads in that year were fully \$1,051,877,000. The number of locomotive engines was 29,928, and the number of cars 1,164,138, of which 26,511 were in passenger service. The total number of men employed on the railways was 749,031.

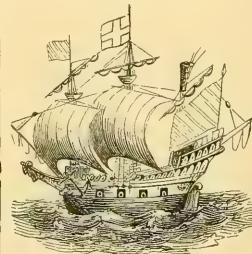
Rains, GABRIEL JAMES, a native of North Carolina, graduated at West Point in 1827. He served with distinction in the Seminole War (which see), in which he was severely wounded, and was breveted major for gallantry. In 1855 he was brigadier-general of volunteers in Washington Territory, and was lieutenant-colonel in the National army in the summer of 1861, when he resigned and became a brigadier-general of the Confederate army. In the battle of Wilson's Creek (which see) he led the advance di-

vision. He also commanded a division in the battles at Shiloh and Perryville.

Rains, JAMES EDWARD, was born at Nashville, Tenn., April 10, 1833; died Dec. 31, 1862. He was a staunch Union man and a prominent lawyer before the war, and, at one time, edited the *Daily Republican Banner*, at Nashville. He was also attorney-general of the state, but resigned, joined the Confederate army, and was for a time in command at Cumberland Gap. He was a brigadier-general; acted with bravery in the battles of Shiloh and Perryville, and was killed in the battle of Stone's River.

Rale, SEBASTIAN, a Jesuit missionary to the Indians, was born in France in 1658; killed at Norridgewock, Me., Aug. 12, 1724. In the fall of 1689 he came to Quebec, and was first stationed as a missionary among the Abenakes, near the Falls of the Chaudière. Then he was sent to the Illinois country, and as early as 1695 he established a mission among the Abenakes at Norridgewock, on the Kennebec River. He acquired great influence over the barbarians, accompanying them on their hunting and fishing excursions. The English accused him of instigating savage forays on the New England frontiers, and a price was set upon his head. They burned his mission church in 1705. It was rebuilt, and in 1722 Rale's cabin and church were plundered by New England soldiers, who carried away his "Dictionary of the Abenake Language," which is preserved in MS. in the library of Harvard University. It has been printed (1833) by the Academy of Arts and Sciences. In 1724 Father Rale was shot at the mission cross by some New-Englanders with a number of Indians. (See *Norridgewock, Expedition to*.) In August, 1833, Bishop Fenwick (R. C.) erected a monument to his memory.

Raleigh, SIR WALTER, connected with American colonization, was born at Hayes, Devonshire, England, in 1552, educated at Oxford, and at the age of seventeen went as a soldier to France to assist the Huguenots. He afterwards fought in the Netherlands, and returning to England he found that his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, had just obtained a patent for establishing a plantation in America. Raleigh joined him,



FORM OF RALEIGH'S SHIPS.

and they sailed for the Western continent in 1579, but were turned back by the loss of one ship and the crippling of the others in a fight with Spanish cruisers. After serving in the suppression of a rebellion in Ireland, he was admitted to the court of Queen Elizabeth, who conferred honors upon him. These favors were won by his gallantry in spreading his scarlet cloak over a miry place for the queen to walk upon. Through his influence he obtained another patent for Gilbert, and they again proposed to sail for America. Accident kept Raleigh at home, but Gil-

bert sailed from Plymouth with five ships in 1583, and landing in Newfoundland he took possession of the island in the name of the queen. Off the coast of Maine the squadron was dispersed, and the vessel in which Gilbert sailed was lost in a storm with all on board. Afterwards Raleigh obtained for himself a patent as lord proprietor of the country extending from Delaware Bay to the mouth of the Santee River, to plant a colony there; and in 1584 he sent two ships thither under the respective commands of Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow. (See *Amidas, Philip*.) They entered Ocracoke Inlet, off the coast of North Carolina, in July; explored Pamlico and Albemarle sounds; discovered Roanoke Island, and, waving over its soil the banner of England, took possession of it in the name of the queen. On their return to England in the autumn they gave glowing accounts of the country they had discovered, and as a memorial of her unmarried state, it is said, the queen gave to the domain the name of Virginia. She knighted Raleigh, and gave him lucrative privileges that enriched him. Raleigh now took measures for sending out a colony to settle in Virginia, and on the 9th of April, 1585, seven of his vessels sailed from Plymouth with 180 colonists and a full complement of seamen. Sir Richard Grenville (see *Grenville, Sir Richard*) commanded the expedition, accompanied by Sir Ralph Lane (see *Lane, Sir Ralph*) as governor of the colony, Philip Amidas as admiral of the fleet, Thomas Cavendish, who the next year followed the path of Drake around the world, Thomas Harriott (see *Harriott, Thomas*), as historian of the expedition, and John With, a competent painter, to delineate men and things in America. The expedition reached the American coast late in June, and the vessels being nearly wrecked on a point of land, they named it Cape Fear. Entering Ocracoke Inlet, they landed on Roanoke Island. There Grenville left the colonists and returned to England with the ships. The next year Raleigh sent reinforcements and supplies to the colony, but the settlement was abandoned. The settlers had gone home in one of Drake's ships. (See *Drake, Sir Francis*.) In 1587 Raleigh sent out a colony of farmers and mechanics to settle on the shores of Chesapeake Bay, with John White as governor. He gave them a charter and a municipal government to found the "City of Raleigh." White landed on Roanoke Island and went back to England for reinforcements and supplies. Two of Raleigh's supply-ships were captured by French cruisers. His funds were exhausted, having spent \$200,000 in his colonization schemes, and the colonists were left to perish or become incorporated with the Indian tribes. (See *Dare, Virginia*.) Raleigh was a lieutenant-general in command of the forces in Cornwall in 1588, and behaved gallantly in fighting the Spanish Armada. The next year he formed under his patents a company of "Merchants and Adventurers" to carry on his colonization schemes in America, but it was a failure. With Drake he went to restore Dom Antonio to the throne of Portugal in 1589; brought the poet Edmund Spenser from Ireland to the British court;

lost favor there himself by bad conduct; planned an expedition to Guiana, S. A., and went there with five ships in 1595, and published a highly colored account of the country on his return. Regaining a portion of the royal favor, he was in public employment and received large grants from the crown, but the death of Elizabeth in 1603 was a fatal blow to his fortunes. On the accession of James he was stripped of his preferences, and soon after was arrested on a charge of conspiring to dethrone the king, found guilty, and sentenced to be beheaded. He was reprieved and imprisoned in the Tower thirteen years, during six of which his wife bore him company. During that period Raleigh wrote his *History of the World*. Released in 1615 (not pardoned), he was commanding admiral of the fleet, and was sent by James with fourteen ships to Guiana in search of treasures. One of Raleigh's commanders was sent up the Orinoco with 250 men in boats, landed at the Spanish settlement of St. Thomas, and, in defiance of the peaceable instructions of the king, killed the governor and set fire to the town. Raleigh's eldest son was killed in the action. Unable either to advance or to maintain their position, they retreated in haste to the ships, a Spanish fleet, which had been informed of their movements, hovering near. The expedition was a failure, several of the ships were lost, and he returned in 1618 ruined in health and reputation. Disappointed in his avaricious desires, the infamous king consented to Raleigh's recommitment to the Tower and his execution (Oct. 29, 1618) under the sentence of 1603. Lane, Raleigh's governor in Virginia, first introduced tobacco into England. He had learned to smoke it, and taught Raleigh.



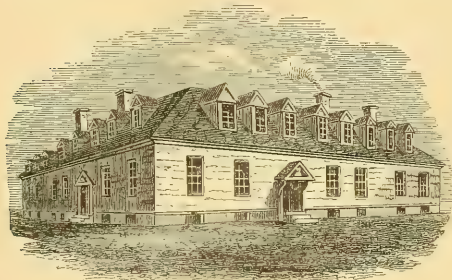
RALEIGH ENJOYING HIS PIPE.

When the servant of the latter first saw his master enveloped in tobacco-smoke, supposing him to be on fire, he dashed a pail of water over him. Raleigh taught the queen to smoke.

Raleigh Tavern, THE, at Williamsburg, Va., was, with its famous Apollo Room, the cradle of liberty in Virginia, as Faneuil Hall was in Massachusetts. It was there that the patriots of the Virginia House of Burgesses met when Governor Dunmore dissolved that House in 1774;

appointed delegates to the first Continental Congress; devised schemes for local self-government, and defied the power of the royal representative. The old tavern was yet standing when the late

and was president of that body for a year. His *History of the Revolution in South Carolina* was published in 1785, and in 1789 his *History of the American Revolution*. Both were translated into the French language and published in France.



RALEIGH TAVERN.

Civil War broke out. In 1850, over the door of the main entrance to the building was a wooden bust of Sir Walter Raleigh.

Rall, a Hessian officer killed at Trenton, led a regiment of the Germaus hired by the British government to fight the Americans. (See *German Mercenaries*.) His troops were of the contingent furnished by the Elector of Hesse-Cassel. He landed at Staten Island in June, 1776; took part in the battle of White Plains and the capture of Fort Washington, and was killed in the battle of Trenton (which see), of which post he was in command.

Rambouillet Decree. Professing to be indignant at what seemed to be partiality shown to England by the Americans in their restrictive acts, Napoleon caused the seizure and confiscation of many American vessels and their cargoes. Armstrong remonstrated, and when he learned that several vessels were to be sold, he offered to the French government a vigorous protest, in which he recapitulated the many aggressions which American commerce had suffered from French cruisers. This just remonstrance was ungenerously answered by a decree framed at Rambouillet March 23, 1810, but not issued until May 1, that ordered the sale of 132 American vessels which had been seized, worth, with their cargoes, \$8,000,000, the proceeds to be placed in the French military chest. It also ordered that "all American vessels which should enter French ports, or ports occupied by French troops, should be seized and sequestered."

Ramsay, DAVID, M.D., historian, was born at Lancaster, Penn., April 2, 1749; died at Charleston, S. C., May 8, 1815. In 1773 he began the practice of medicine in Charleston, where he ardently espoused the cause of the patriots, became active in the Provisional Free Government, Council of Safety, etc., and when the war broke out he became a surgeon in the military service. He was among the prisoners captured at Charleston in 1780, and was closely confined in the castle (now Fort Marion—see following page) at St. Augustine. (See *Siege of Charleston*.) Dr. Ramsay was a member of Congress from 1782 to 1786,



DAVID RAMSAY.

In 1801 he published a *Life of Washington*, and in 1809 a *History of the United States* to the close of the colonial period. He also published some minor works. On one occasion Dr. Ramsay was shot and wounded in the street in Charleston by a lunatic to whose insanity the doctor had testified.

Ramsay, ALEXANDER, was born near Harrisburg, Penn., September, 1815. He was clerk of the House of Representatives of Pennsylvania in 1841, and was a member of Congress four years—1843-47. President Taylor appointed him first governor of the Territory of Minnesota in 1849, when it contained a civilized population of nearly 5000 white people and half-breed Indians. He remained in that office until 1853, and made treaties with the Indians by which



ALEXANDER RAMSAY.

cessions of large tracts of land were made to the national government. He was chosen the first mayor of St. Paul, the capital, in 1855. He was an active "war governor" in 1860-64, was Republican United States Senator, 1864-75, and was Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Hayes, 1879-81.



FORT MARION, ST. AUGUSTINE. (See Ramsay, David.)

Randolph, EDMUND, was born in Virginia, Aug. 10, 1753; died in Frederick County, Va., Sept. 12, 1813. He was a son of John Randolph, Attorney-general of Virginia, who left the province with Lord Dunmore in 1775. Educated a lawyer, he had entered upon its practice while the storm of the Revolution was brewing. He was a warm patriot—opposed to his father—and in August, 1775, became aid to Washington. He was a delegate to the Virginia convention held at Williamsburg in May, 1776, and in July became the attorney-general of the state. From 1779 to 1782 he occupied a seat in Congress, and from 1786 to 1788 was Governor of Virginia.



EDMUND RANDOLPH.

He took a leading part in the convention that framed the national Constitution, in which he introduced the "Virginia plan." He voted against and refused to sign the Constitution, but urged its acceptance by the Virginia Ratification Convention. Washington appointed him Attorney-general in 1789, and in January, 1794, he succeeded Jefferson as Secretary of State. Having been disinherited by his father for refusing to join the royal cause, he was in moderate circumstances. Having lost the confidence of the administration in consequence of an alleged intrigue with the French minister (see *Randolph and Fouchet*), he resigned his office in August, 1795, and retired to private life, when he wrote and published an unsatisfactory "vindication."

Randolph (EDMUND) and Fouchet. Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, succeeded Mr. Jefferson as Secretary of State in January, 1794, and, becoming involved in an intrigue with Fouchet, the French minister, lost the confidence of the administration and resigned in 1795. Fouchet, in a private despatch to his government concerning the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), written some time in August, 1794, said that as soon as the disturbance in western Pennsylvania was known Randolph came to his lodgings and requested a private conversation. He stated that civil war was imminent; that four

influential men might save it; but these being debtors of English merchants, would be deprived of their liberty if they should take the smallest step. He asked Fouchet if he could lend them funds immediately to shelter them from English persecution. In his despatch in October following, Fouchet returned to the subject. He gave a sketch of the rise of opposing parties in the United States, in which he represented that the disturbances had grown out of political hostility to Hamilton, and Hamilton himself as taking the advantage which they afforded to make the President regard as a blow to the Constitution what, in fact, was only a protest against the Secretary of the Treasury. He says Randolph informed him that the persistence in enforcing the excise (see *Whiskey Insurrection*) was a scheme of Hamilton's to mislead the President into unpopular courses and to introduce absolute power—in other words, a monarchy—under pretext of giving energy to the government. Such, according to Fouchet, was the origin of the expedition into the western counties of Pennsylvania. He then freely commented upon the characters of several leading men in the government, and made it appear that venality—a thirst for riches—was a strong motive of action among the politicians of the United States, especially of those of the Federal party. This opinion appears to have been formed from information given him by Randolph, who, two or three days before Washington's proclamation to the insurgents was issued, came to him to borrow money. This despatch, which revealed the inimical relations of the Secretary of State to the government he was serving, was intercepted on its way to France by a British cruiser, and, through Lord Grenville, was transmitted to Mr. Hammond, the British minister at Philadelphia. That functionary, ascribing the delay in ratifying Jay's treaty to Randolph, communicated Fouchet's despatch to Wolcott, as going to show what intrigues the Secretary of State had carried on with the late French minister. Wolcott consulted with other friends of the government, and a message was sent to the President, at Mount Vernon, requesting his immediate return to Philadelphia. On his arrival the despatch was presented to him (Aug. 12, 1795). A cabinet council was held the next day, when the question was propounded, "What shall be

done with the treaty (Jay's)?" Randolph opposed the ratification vehemently. The other members were in favor of it, and on the 18th of August the President signed it. When copies of the treaty had been signed by Randolph as Secretary of State, Washington presented to him the intercepted despatch of Fouchet in the presence of the other members, with a request to read it and to make such explanations as he might think fit. After reading it, he commenced commenting upon it. He could not tell, he said, what Fouchet referred to when he spoke of Randolph as asking for money for himself and some brother patriots. Perceiving that his explanations were unsatisfactory, he proposed to put the remainder of his observations in writing, and immediately tendered his resignation. He requested that the despatch might be kept secret till he should be able to prepare his explanations, for which purpose he proposed to visit Fouchet, who was at Newport, R. I., and about to sail for France. Fouchet gave to Randolph an explanatory letter that was very unsatisfactory. Randolph published a "vindication," but it, too, was very unsatisfactory, and he retired from office under the shadow of a cloud. He was greatly embarrassed in his pecuniary circumstances, and left office a defaulter to the government.

Randolph (EDWARD) and Massachusetts.

Randolph was a persistent disturber of the peace in Massachusetts. He first appeared there in June, 1676, as bearer of an order from the Privy Council citing Massachusetts to defend her title to Maine. He reappeared in 1678 as a messenger from the Privy Council with a new oath of allegiance and to inquire concerning the non-observance of the navigation laws. In July, 1680, he came again, with the returning agents sent to England by Massachusetts, bearing a commission as collector of the royal customs for New England and inspector for enforcing the acts of trade. He presented his commission to the General Court. They took no notice of it. He posted a notice of his appointment at the public exchange, but it was torn down by order of the magistrates. The General Court erected a naval office, at which all vessels were required to enter and clear, and so superseded Randolph's authority. But Randolph seized vessels for the violation of the acts of trade. The whole population were against him, and he was cast in an overwhelming number of lawsuits. In 1682 he obtained leave to go to England, but soon returned with a royal letter complaining of these obstructions to law and demanding the immediate appointment of agents empowered to consent to a modification of the colonial charter. Disobedience was no longer safe. The king threatened a writ of *quo warranto*, and agents were sent to England. Randolph's commission was ordered to be enrolled, and the General Court assumed a submissive attitude. The theocratic party, with Increase Mather at their head, held out, but could not resist the tempest. Randolph was again in England, when he filed articles of high misdemeanor against Massachusetts. A writ of *quo*

warranto was issued, and the indefatigable enemy of Massachusetts again crossed the ocean, this time in a royal frigate, and himself served the writ on the magistrates (November, 1683). There was delay, and before action was taken a default was recorded. Judgment was entered (November, 1684) pronouncing the charter void. Massachusetts became a royal province. The reign of theocracy was ended. Randolph was a member of the Council during the administration of Andros, and in 1689 was imprisoned as a traitor. Released, he went to the West Indies, where he died.

Randolph, JOHN, was born in Chesterfield County, Va., June 3, 1773; died in Philadelphia, May 24, 1833. He was a descendant of Pocahontas. Delicate in health at his birth, he was so all through life. He studied both at Princeton College, New Jersey, and at Columbia College, New York. In 1799 he entered Congress as a delegate from the Charlotte district, which he represented until 1829 (a period of thirty years), excepting four years while holding a seat in the United States Senate—1825 to 1827. He was an adherent of the state supremacy doc-



JOHN RANDOLPH.

trine, and in Congress often stood alone, for he opposed measures of the Democratic party, to which he belonged. He was sarcastic in debate, and often eloquent. He frequently indulged in the grossest insults of his opponents, and fought a duel with Henry Clay in 1826. He supported Jackson for the Presidency, and in 1831 was sent to Russia as American minister at the Muscovite court. He soon returned home in feeble health, and expressed his sympathy with the South Carolina nullifiers. When about to depart for Europe again, he died. In politics and social life, Mr. Randolph was like an Ishmaelite—"his hand against every man's, and every man's hand against him."

Randolph, PEYTON, President of the First

Continental Congress, was born in Virginia in 1723; died in Philadelphia Oct. 22, 1775. Educated at the College of William and Mary, he went to England, and there studied law at the



PEYTON RANDOLPH.

Temple. Afterwards (1748) he was made King's Attorney for Virginia, and was elected to a seat in the House of Burgesses, wherein he was at the head of a committee to revise the laws of the colony. He was the author of an address of the House to the king, in opposition to the Stamp Act, and in April, 1766, was chosen speaker, when he resigned the office of Attorney-general. Early espousing the cause of the colonists, he was a leader in patriotic movements in Virginia, and was made chairman of the Committee of Correspondence in 1773. Appointed President of the First Continental Congress, he presided with great dignity. In March, 1775, he was president of a convention of delegates at Richmond to select delegates for the Second Continental Congress. For a short time he acted as Speaker of the House, and on the 10th of May resumed his seat in Congress, and was re-elected its President. A stroke of apoplexy prostrated him in death in the autumn.

Randolph Silenced in Congress. John Randolph, of Virginia, was a member of the Committee on Foreign Relations early in 1812, when it had been determined to declare war against Great Britain. He was opposed to the measure, and, made aware that a war message was coming from Madison, and knowing that debates upon it would be with doors closed against the public, attempted to anticipate matters by a speech in the House. He arose (May 29, 1812), but when he approached the theme of war he was called to order, as no question was before the House. Henry Clay, the speaker, decided that a motion could be preceded by a speech, and he was allowed to go on. He was again stopped by Calhoun, who insisted upon his putting his motion in writing, and obtaining for it a second, before he should be allowed to speak. This the speaker sustained, when Randolph made a motion, in writing, that it was not expedient to go to war with Great Britain. Then he was cut short by the objection that, pre-

vious to any discussion, the House must agree to consider the motion. The House refused to consider it, and Randolph, long accustomed to untrammelled license with his tongue, was effectually silenced. Through the press he complained of this suppression of the freedom of debate.

Ransom, THOMAS EDWARD GREENFIELD, was born at Norwich, Conn., Nov. 29, 1834; died at Rome, Ga., Oct. 29, 1864. He was taught engineering in early life, and was a land-agent and civil engineer in Illinois when the Civil War broke out, when he became a major of volunteers. He led his regiment, as lieutenant-colonel, in the attack on Fort Donelson (which see), where he was severely wounded. He was promoted to colonel, and was wounded in the head at the battle of Shiloh. In June following (1862) he became chief of General McClelland's staff and inspector-general of the Army of the Tennessee. In November he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and the next year he was distinguished at Vicksburg. Ransom was conspicuous for his skill and bravery in Banks's Red River expedition, and was severely wounded in the battle at Sabine Cross-roads (which see). He was finally promoted to the command of the Seventeenth Corps.

Rappahannock Station, BATTLE AT. In the pursuit of Lee, in his retreat towards Richmond from the vicinity of Bull's Run (October, 1863), the Sixth Corps, under General Sedgwick, found the Confederates strongly intrenched in works cast up by the Nationals on the north side of the Rappahannock, at Rappahannock Station. They were about two thousand in number. Sedgwick advanced (Nov. 7, 1863) upon each flank of the works, with the division of General D. A. Russell marching upon the centre. The first brigade, under Colonel P. C. Ellmaker, was in the van of Russell's division, and just before sunset, in two columns, stormed the works with fixed bayonets. The van of the stormers rushed through a thick tempest of causter-shot and bullets, followed by the remainder of the brigade, and after a struggle of a few moments the strongest redoubt was carried. In that charge the slaughter of the Unionists was fearful. At the same time two regiments of Upton's brigade charged the rifle-pits, drove the Confederates from them, and, sweeping down to the pontoon-bridge, cut off the retreat of the garrison. The National loss was about three hundred killed and wounded. The fruits of victory were over sixteen hundred prisoners, four guns, eight battle-flags, two thousand small-arms, and the pontoon-bridge.

Ratification of the Acts of the First Continental Congress. The Assembly of Pennsylvania, composed of a majority of Friends, or Quakers, or of those who were friendly to those interests, was the first legislative body that ratified unanimously the acts of the General Congress. They not only approved of its acts, but appointed members to represent Pennsylvania in the new Congress, proposed to be held on the 10th of May following, and adopted sundry

measures to put the province in a state of defence.

Ratification of the Treaties with France. On May 4, 1778, the Continental Congress unanimously ratified the treaties with France, and expressed their grateful acknowledgments to its king for his "magnanimous and disinterested conduct." This treaty and this ratification "buried the hatchet" that had so long been active between the French and the English colonies in America. The latter regarded all Frenchmen as their friends, and proclaimed Louis XVI. the "protector of the rights of mankind."

Rawdon (LORD), FRANCIS, Marquis of Hastings, was born Dec. 9, 1754; died Nov. 28, 1826. He was a son of the Earl of Moira. He entered the army in 1771, and in 1775 embarked for America as a lieutenant of infantry. After the



FRANCIS RAWDON. (From an English print.)

battle of Bunker's Hill he became aid to Sir Henry Clinton, and was distinguished in several battles near New York in 1776. In 1778 he was made adjutant-general of the army under Clinton, and raised a corps called the Volunteers of Ireland. He was distinguished for bravery in the battle at Monmouth, and was afterwards, when Charleston fell before Clinton, placed in command of one of the divisions of the army to subjugate South Carolina. He bravely defended Camden against Greene, and relieved Fort Ninety-six from siege by that officer. Soon afterwards he went to Charleston, and sailed for England. While on a return voyage, he was captured by a French cruiser. On March 5, 1783, Rawdon was created a baron, and made aide-de-camp to the king, and in 1789 he succeeded to the title of his uncle, the Earl of Huntingdon. In 1793 he became Earl of Moira and a major-general, and the next year he served under the Duke of York in the Netherlands. In 1812 he was intrusted with the formation of a ministry, and received the Order of the Garter and the governor-generalship of India, which he held nine years. In 1824 he was made governor and commander-in-chief of Malta, but failing health compelled him to leave. He died on his voyage homeward.

Rawdon, RETREAT OF. After the battle at Hobkirk's Hill (which see) and the passage of

the Wateree by Greene the two armies were about equal in strength. Greene's was increasing, for patriots were gathering around his standard from every part. Perceiving this, Rawdon, for the safety of his posts in the lower country, set fire to Camden and retreated (May 10, 1781) to Nelson's Ferry, on the Santee. He had ordered the commander at Fort Ninety-six (Lieutenant-colonel Cruger) to abandon that post and join the garrison at Augusta; and also directed Maxwell to leave Fort Granby, near (present) Columbia, and retire to Orangeburg, on the North Edisto River. These orders were issued too late to be effective.

Rawlins, JOHN A., was born at Guilford, Ill., Feb. 13, 1831; died in Washington, D. C., Sept. 6, 1869. Until 1854 he was a farmer and charcoal-burner, but, studying law, he was admitted to the bar at Galena in 1855. He sympathized with the Secessionists until Sumter fell, when he gave his zealous support to his government, going on the staff of General Grant in September, 1861, as assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of captain. He remained on that general's staff throughout the war; was made brigadier-general in August, 1863; and major-general in March, 1865. President Grant called Rawlins to his cabinet in the spring of 1869 as Secretary of War, which position he held until a few days before his death.

Raymond, BATTLE OF. General W. T. Sherman (see *Haines's Bluff*) by General Grant. He marched down the western side of the Mississippi River, crossed at Hard Times, and on the following day (May 8, 1863) joined Grant on the Big Black River. Grant had intended to send down troops to assist Banks in an attack upon Port Hudson, but circumstances compelled him to move forward from Grand Gulf and Port Gibson. He made for the important railway that connects Jackson, the capital of Mississippi, with Vicksburg. His army moved in parallel lines on the eastern side of the river. These were led respectively by Generals McClelland and McPherson, and each was followed by portions of Sherman's corps. When, on the morning of April 12, the van of each column was approaching the railway, near Raymond, the capital of Hinds County, the advance of McPherson's corps, under Logan, was attacked by about 6000 Confederates under Generals Gregg and Walker. It was then about ten o'clock. Logan received the first blow and bore the brunt of the battle. Annoyed by Michigan guns, the Confederates dashed forward to capture them and were repulsed. McPherson ordered an advance upon their new position, and a very severe conflict ensued, in which the Nationals lost heavily. The Confederates maintained an unbroken front until Colonel Sturgis, with an Illinois regiment, charged with fixed bayonets and broke their line into fragments, driving the insurgents in wild disorder. They rallied and retreated in fair order through Raymond towards Jackson, cautiously followed by Logan. The National loss was 442,

of whom 69 were killed. The Confederate loss was 825, of whom 103 were killed.

Raynal, ABBÉ, FLIGHT OF, FROM FRANCE. The philosophic and political history of the two Indies, by the Abbé Raynal, appeared in Paris in 1781, with the name of the author on its title-page. It was an indictment of royalty, while it praised the people of the United States of America as models of heroism such as antiquity boasted of, and spoke of New England in particular as a land that knew how to be happy "without kings and without priests." He spoke of philosophy as wishing to see "all peoples happy," and said, "If the love of justice had decided the Court of Versailles to the alliance of a monarchy with a people defending its liberty, the first article of its treaty with the United States should have been that all oppressed peoples have the right to rise against their oppressors." Raynal was indicted, and fled through Brussels to Holland, leaving his books to be burned by the common hangman. He subsequently came to the United States. His book found a welcome in many a library in France, for the younger men, even among the nobility, shared its lofty sentiments. It became a text-book of the early French revolutionists.

Read, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Cecil County, Md., Sept. 18, 1733; died at New Castle, Del., Sept. 21, 1798. At the age of nineteen he was admitted to the bar, and began practice in 1754. He became Attorney-general of Delaware (see *Delaware, Colony and State of*) in 1763, and held the office until 1774. From 1774 to 1777 he was a member of the Continental Congress, and one of its first Naval Committee (1775). In 1777 he became Vice-President of Delaware, and afterwards acting President. He was the author of the first constitution of Delaware, and a delegate to the convention that framed the national Constitution. In 1782 he was appointed Judge of the Court of Appeals in admiralty cases. He was United States Senator from 1789 to 1793, and from 1793 until his death Chief-justice of Delaware.

Read, GEORGE CAMPBELL, was born in Ireland; died in Philadelphia, Aug. 22, 1862. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman in April, 1804. His gallantry was conspicuous in the battle between the *Constitution* and *Guerrière* (which see), and he was appointed to receive the surrendered sword of Captain Dacres. He was also in the action between the *United States* and *Macedonian* (which see). Read had been made lieutenant in 1810; in 1816 he was promoted to commander; and in 1825 to captain. At the time of his death he was Superintendent of the Philadelphia Naval Asylum. In July, 1862, he was made rear-admiral.

Reagan, JOHN H., was born in Sevier County, Tenn., Oct. 8, 1818. He held several local offices in Texas, and was Judge of the District Court in Texas, to which state he had emigrated after its independence. From 1857 to 1861 he was in Congress, and, joining in the secession movement, he was appointed Confederate Postmas-

ter-general. He was captured with Jefferson Davis and was sent to Fort Warren. In 1891 he represented Texas in the United States Senate.

Reams's Station, BATTLE AT. When Warren proceeded to strike the Weldon Road (which see), Hancock, who had been called from the north side of the James, followed close in his rear, and on Aug. 21, 1864, struck the railway north of Reams's Station and destroyed the track for several miles. He formed an intrenched camp at Reams's, and his cavalry kept up a vigilant scout in the direction of the Confederate army. On the 25th Hancock was struck by Hill. The latter was repulsed. Hill struck again, and was again repulsed with heavy loss. Hill then ordered Heth to carry the National works at all hazards, upon which a concentrated fire of artillery was opened. This was followed by a desperate charge, which broke the National line. Three National batteries were captured. A fierce struggle for the possession of the works and guns ensued. In this the Nationals were partly successful. The Nationals were finally defeated, and withdrew. Hancock had lost 2400 of his 8000 men and five guns. Of the men, 1700 were made prisoners. Hill's loss was not much less; and he, too, withdrew from Reams's Station.

Reaping-machines. Efforts to supersede the sickle and "cradle" in harvesting cereals were made early. Pliny speaks of reaping-machines—a sort of van on wheels, drawn by oxen—being used in Gaul in his day. A reaper was invented in England before 1785, and one was patented there in 1799. Rev. Patrick Bell, of Scotland, patented one which was used with success for many years. One was imported into this country by John B. Yates in 1834, but was soon lost sight of. It was composed of a series of blades operating like tailors' shears. A patent was granted to French & Hawkins, of New Jersey, in 1803 for a reaping-machine, but it did not succeed. In 1833 Mr. Hussey, of Cincinnati, obtained a patent for a reaper, which was successful from the first. In 1834 Mr. McCormick, of Virginia, obtained a patent for a reaper which he had used since 1831. Others made improvements, and in 1845 McCormick took out another patent, when there were no less than fifteen rivals in the field. At the World's Fair in London American reapers were first introduced to the notice of Europeans. At the International Exhibition at Paris in 1855 American reapers were brought into competition with others, each machine being allowed to cut an acre of standing oats near Paris. The American reaper did its work in 22 minutes, the English in 60, and an Algerian in 72. American reaping-machines are now used all over Europe where cereals abound. A machine for saving the wastage of grain in harvesting is now greatly needed.

Rebel Americans. Lord North had scruples concerning harsh American measures which the king did not possess, and, wearied with the dispute with the Americans, showed symptoms of a disposition to make concessions. The majority of the cabinet were as mad as the king, and

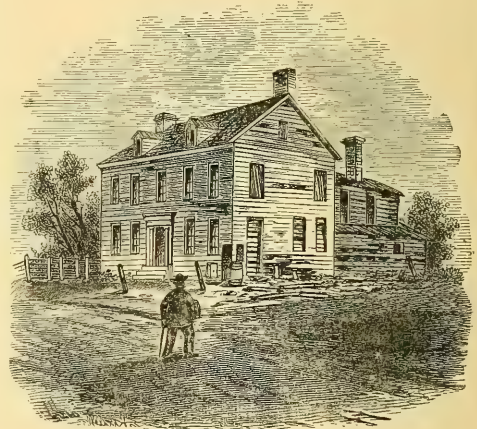
when they found North wavering they plotted to have him displaced to make room for a more thorough supporter of British authority. On Jan. 12, 1775, at a cabinet council, he found the current of opinion so much against him that, ambitious of place and power, he yielded. His colleagues declared there was nothing in the proceedings of Congress that afforded any basis for an honorable reconciliation. It was therefore resolved to break off all commerce with the Americans; to protect the loyalists in the colonies; and to declare all others to be traitors and rebels. The vote was designed only to divide the colonies. It united them and kindled a war.

Rebellion Planned in 1856. The formidable proportions of the Republican party at its organization in 1856 alarmed the friends of the slave system in the South, and plans were devised for open resistance to the government of the United States in the event of the election of the Republican candidate for the Presidency—John C. Frémont. In response to an invitation from Henry A. Wise (then Governor of Virginia), a convention of governors of slave-labor states was secretly held at Raleigh, N. C., of which Jefferson Davis (then Secretary of War in President Pierce's cabinet) was fully informed at the time. The object was to devise a scheme of rebellion at that time in case of the contingency just mentioned. Senator James M. Mason, author of the Fugitive Slave Law (which see), wrote to Jefferson Davis on the 30th of September, 1856, "I have a letter from Wise of the 27th, full of spirit. He says the governments of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Louisiana have already agreed to the rendezvous at Raleigh, and others will—this in your *most private ear*. He says, further, that he had officially requested you to exchange with Virginia, on fair terms of difference, percussion for flint muskets. I don't know the usage or power of the department in such cases, but if it can be done, even by liberal construction, I hope you will accede. Was there not an appropriation at the last session for converting flint into percussion arms? If so, would it not furnish good reason for extending such facilities to the states? Virginia, probably, has more arms than the other Southern States, and would divide in case of need. In a letter yesterday to a committee in South Carolina, I gave it as my judgment, in the event of Frémont's election, the South should not pause, but proceed at once to 'immediate, absolute, and eternal separation.' So I am a candidate for the first halter." The defeat of Frémont postponed the rebellion until the election of Lincoln. Wise afterwards boasted that, had Frémont been elected, he should have marched to Washington at the head of twenty thousand men, taken possession of the Capitol, and prevented the inauguration of the Republican President. (See *Ruling Class in the South*.)

Recall of British Seamen. On the failure of negotiations between the United States and Great Britain on the subject of impressments, measures were taken to call for the return of

all British seamen to the service of their native country, commanding them forthwith to leave the service of foreign nations, whether on board merchant vessels or in ships of war. A royal proclamation to this effect was issued Oct. 17, 1807. All commanders of British ships of war were authorized by the proclamation to seize and bring away from on board foreign merchant vessels all British mariners. A demand was also made for all British mariners serving on board foreign ships of war to leave that service and return to the royal navy immediately. This proclamation seemed to shut the door to further negotiations on the subject of impressments.

Reception of Harrison and Perry at Erie. After Harrison's victory at the Thames (which see), where Perry was his volunteer aid, the two commanders sailed to Erie in the *Ariel*, accompanied by Commodore Barclay, the vanquished English commander, who had been admitted to his parole. The American officers were received (Oct. 22, 1813) with the booming of cannons, the shouts of the people, and the kindly greetings of every loyal heart. They and the British commodore dined together at a tavern where Perry had his quarters before the battle, corner of



PERRY'S QUARTERS—APPEARANCE IN 1860.

Third and French Streets. The town was illuminated in the evening, and the streets were enlivened by a torchlight procession, bearing properly inscribed transparencies.

Reconciliation with America. There was a strong minority in the British Parliament who were anxious for reconciliation between Great Britain and her American colonies from the beginning of the dispute. In the House of Commons, Edmund Burke introduced a bill (Nov. 16, 1775) repealing all the offensive acts and granting an amnesty as to the past, thus waving the points in dispute. Burke supported the bill with one of his ablest speeches, but it was rejected by a vote of two to one. On the contrary, a bill was carried by the ministry (Dec. 21) prohibiting all trade with the thirteen colonies, and declaring their ships and goods,

and those of all persons trafficking with them, lawful prize. The act also authorized the impressment for service in the royal navy of the crews of all captured colonial vessels; also the appointment of commissioners by the crown, with authority to grant pardon and exemption from the penalties of the act to such colonies or individuals as might, by speedy submission, seem to merit that favor. So the door of honorable reconciliation was closed.

Records of the Federal Convention. The injunction of secrecy as to the proceedings of the Federal Convention in 1787 was never removed. At the final adjournment the journal, in accordance with a previous vote, was intrusted to the custody of Washington, by whom it was afterwards deposited in the Department of State. It was first printed, by order of Congress, in 1818. Robert Yates, one of the members from New York, took brief notes of the earlier debates. These were published in 1821, after Mr. Yates's death. Mr. Madison took more perfect notes of the whole convention, which were published in 1840; and a representation to the Legislature of Maryland, by Luther Martin, furnished nearly all the material for the history of the national Constitution.

Recruits for the Army. Early in 1814 the most serious business of Congress was to provide for recruiting the army. The enlistment of twelve-months men, it was found, stood in the way of more permanent engagements, and the fourteen regiments of that character then existing were to be replaced by men to serve five years. Nor were any volunteers to be retained except for a like period. Three additional rifle regiments were to be raised; two regiments of light dragoons were consolidated, and three regiments of artillery were reorganized into twelve battalions. Could the ranks be filled under this organization there would be an army of sixty thousand regulars. To fill these ranks the money bounty was raised to \$124—\$50 when mustered in and the remainder when discharged, the latter sum, in case of death, to go to the soldier's representatives. To anybody who should bring in a recruit, \$8 were allowed. In the debate on this subject Daniel Webster made his first speech in Congress, in which he declared that the difficulty of raising troops grew out of the unpopularity of the war, and not from political opposition to it. The enormous bounties offered proved that. And he advised giving over all ideas of invasion, and also all restrictive war waged against commerce by embargoes and non-importation acts. "If war must be continued, go to the ocean," he said, "and then, if the contention was seriously for maritime rights, the united wishes and exertions of the nation would go with the administration." Little was done towards increasing the force of the navy, excepting an appropriation of \$500,000 for the construction of a steam-frigate or floating battery, for which Fulton offered a plan, and the authorizing the purchase, for \$225,000, of the vessels captured on Lake Erie. At a cost of about \$2,000,000 in

bounties, fourteen thousand recruits were obtained, of whom the New England States furnished more than all the rest of the states put together.

Redemption of Continental Paper-currency. When the Continental Congress issued bills of credit, in the summer of 1775, to the amount of \$2,000,000, they pledged, by resolution and on the face of each bill issued, the faith of the several colonies for their redemption at a certain time. (See *Continental Paper-money*.) On the 29th of July (1775) they apportioned the amount required by this pledge among the several colonies to the amount of \$3,000,000, in the following ratio:

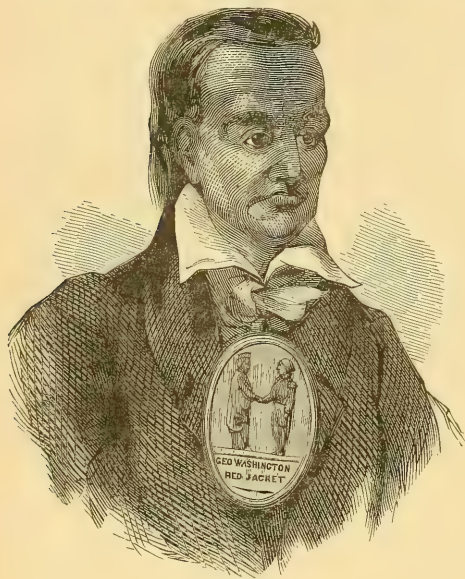
New Hampshire...	\$124,609½	Pennsylvania....	\$372,208½
Massachusetts....	434,244	Delaware.....	37,219½
Rhode Island.....	71,959½	Maryland.....	310,174½
Connecticut.....	248,139	Virginia.....	496,278
New York.....	248,139	North Carolina..	248,139
New Jersey.....	161,290½	South Carolina..	248,139
\$1,000,000			

Redemptioners. From the beginning of the English colonies in America the importation of indentured white servants was carried on. Sometimes immigrants came as such and were sold, for a term of years, to pay the expenses of their transportation. This arrangement was voluntarily entered into by the parties and was legitimate. The limits of the time of servitude were fixed, seldom exceeding seven years, except in cases of very young persons. In all the colonies were rigorous laws to prevent them from running away, and the statutes put them on the level with the slave for the time. This class of servants came to be known as "redemptioners" in distinction from slaves; and at the end of their terms of service they were merged into the mass of the white population without any special taint of servitude. Even so late as within the nineteenth century a law still remained in force in Connecticut by which debtors, unable to meet claims against them, might be sold into temporary servitude for the benefit of their creditors.

Redfield, WILLIAM C., was born at Middletown, Conn., March 26, 1789; died in New York city, Feb. 12, 1857. Engaging in steamboat navigation, he removed to New York in 1825. He thoroughly investigated the whole range of the subject of steam navigation, its adaptation to national defence, and methods of safety in its uses. He was the originator of the "safety barges," or "tow-boats," on the Hudson River, and first suggested (1828) the importance of a railway system between the Hudson River and the Mississippi. Mr. Redfield was a skilful meteorologist, and first put forth the circular theory of storms. He published sixty-two pamphlets during his life, of which forty were on the subject of meteorology.

Red-Jacket (So-go-ye-wat-ha), a Seneca chief, was born near the site of Buffalo about 1750. He was swift-footed, fluent-tongued, and always held great influence over his people. During the Revolution he fought for the British king with his eloquence in arousing his people, but seems not to have been very active

as a soldier on the war-path. Brant spoke of him as a coward and not always honest. He first appears conspicuous in history at the treaty at Fort Stanwix in 1784. It was on that oc-



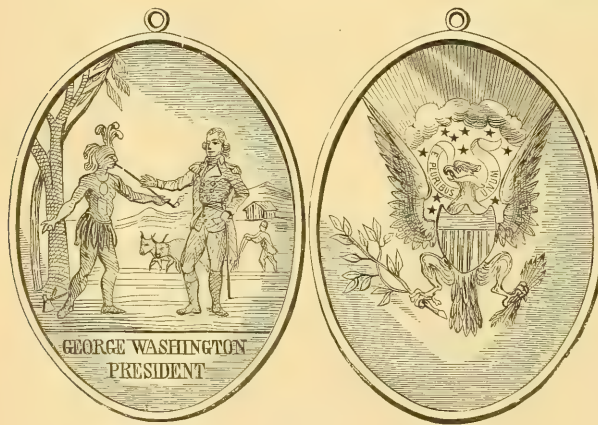
RED-JACKET.

casation that Red-Jacket's fame as an orator was established. In all the dealings with white people concerning the lands in western New York, Red-Jacket was always the defender of the rights of his people. His paganism never yielded to the influences of Christianity, and he was the most inveterate enemy of the missionaries sent to his nation. It was under his leadership that the Senecas became the allies of the Americans against the British in the War of 1812-15, and in the battle of Chippewa (which

six of the leading men among the Senecas. He died on the 20th of January, 1830, at the age of about eighty years. The name of Red-Jacket was given him from the circumstance that towards the close of the Revolution a British officer gave the young chief a richly embroidered scarlet jacket, which he wore with satisfaction. In 1792 President Washington, on the conclusion of a treaty of peace and amity between the United States and the Six Nations, gave Red-Jacket a medal of solid silver, with a heavy rim, the form of which, with the devices, is seen in the engraving. The medal is seven inches in length and five inches in breadth. I saw it in the possession of Brigadier-general Parker, of General Grant's staff, in 1867, when he was chief sachem of the Six Nations.

Red River Expedition. At the beginning of 1864 another attempt was made to repossess Texas by an invasion by way of the Red River and Shreveport. General Banks was directed to organize an expedition for that purpose at New Orleans, and General Sherman was ordered to send troops to aid him. Admiral Porter was also directed to place a fleet of gunboats on the Red River to assist in the enterprise, and General Steele, at Little Rock, Ark. (which see), was ordered to co-operate with the expedition. Banks's column, led by General Franklin, moved from Brashear City, La. (March 13, 1864), by way of Opelousas, and reached Alexandria, on the Red River, on the 26th. Detachments from Sherman's army, under General A. J. Smith, had already gone up the Red River on transports, captured Fort de Russy on the way, and taken possession of Alexandria (March 10). They were followed by Porter's fleet of gunboats. From that point Banks moved forward with his whole force, and on April 3 was at Natchitoches, near the river, eighty miles above Alexandria, by land. At that point Porter's vessels were embarrassed by low water, and his larger ones could proceed no farther than Grand Ecore. A

depot of supplies was established at Alexandria, with a wagon-train to transport them around the rapids there, if necessary. The Confederates had continually retreated before the Nationals as the latter advanced from Alexandria, frequently stopping to skirmish with the vanguard. From Grand Ecore Banks pushed on towards Shreveport, one hundred miles beyond Natchitoches, and Porter's lighter vessels proceeded up the river with a body of troops under General T. Kilby Smith. At that time the Confederates from Texas and Arkansas under Generals Taylor, Price, Green, and others were gathering in front of the Nationals to the number of about 25,000, with more than seventy cannons. So outnumbered, Banks would have been justified in proceeding no farther, but he and Smith, anxious to secure the object of the expedition, pressed forward. The Confederates



RED-JACKET'S MEDAL.

(see) he behaved well as a soldier. For many years he was the head of the Seneca nation. He became so intemperate late in life that he was deposed by an act, in writing, signed by twenty-

entury cannons. So outnumbered, Banks would have been justified in proceeding no farther, but he and Smith, anxious to secure the object of the expedition, pressed forward. The Confederates

fell back until they reached Sabine Cross Roads, fifty-four miles from Grand Ecore, where they made a stand. It was now evident that the further advance of the Nationals was to be obstinately contested. The Trans-Mississippi army, under E. Kirby Smith, was there 20,000 strong. A fierce battle occurred (April 8), which resulted in disaster to the Nationals. (See *Sabine Cross Roads, Battle at.*) The shattered columns of Franklin's advance fell back three miles, to Pleasant Grove, where they were received by the fine corps of General Emory, who was advancing, and who now formed a battle line to oppose the pursuers. There another severe battle was fought, which ended in victory for the Nationals. (See *Pleasant Grove, Battle at.*) Although victorious, Banks thought it prudent to continue his retreat to Pleasant Hill, fifteen miles farther in the rear, for the Confederates were within reach of reinforcements, while he was not certain that Smith, then moving forward, would arrive in time to aid him. He did arrive on the evening of the 8th. The Confederates, in strong force, had followed Banks, and another heavy battle was fought (April 9) at Pleasant Hill, which resulted in a complete victory for the Nationals. (See *Pleasant Hill, Battle at.*) Then, strengthened in numbers and encouraged by victory, Banks gave orders for an advance on Shreveport; but this was countermanded. In the meanwhile the gunboats, with T. Kilby Smith's troops, had proceeded as far as Loggy Bayou, when they were ordered back to Grand Ecore. In that descent they were exposed to the murderous fire of sharpshooters on the banks. With these the Nationals continually fought on the way. There was a very sharp engagement at Pleasant Hill Landing on the evening of the 12th. The Confederates were repulsed, and General Thomas Green, the Confederate commander, was killed. Meantime, Banks and all the land-troops had returned to Grand Ecore, for a council of officers had decided that it was more prudent to retreat than to advance. The army was now again upon the Red River. The water was falling. With difficulty the fleet passed the bar at Grand Ecore (April 17). From that point the army moved on the 21st, and encountered 8000 Confederates, on the 22d, with sixteen guns, under General Bee, strongly posted on Monet's Bluff, at Cane River Ferry. On the morning of the 23d the van of the Nationals drove the Confederates across the stream, and after a severe struggle during the day, General Birge, with a force of Nationals, drove the Confederates from the ferry, and the National army crossed. Its retreat to Alexandria was covered by the troops under T. Kilby Smith, who skirmished at several points on the way — severely at Clouterville, on the Cane River, for about three hours. The whole army arrived at Alexandria on April 27. At that place the water was so low that the gunboats could not pass down the rapids. It had been determined to abandon the expedition against Shreveport and return to the Mississippi. To get the fleet below the rapids was now urgent business. It was proposed to dam the

river above and send the fleet through a sluice in the manner of "running" logs by lumbermen. Porter did not believe in the feasibility of the project; but Lieutenant-colonel Bailey, of a Michigan regiment, performed the service successfully. The whole expedition then proceeded towards the Mississippi, where Porter resumed the service of patrolling that stream. The forces of Banks were placed under the charge of General E. R. S. Canby, on the Atchafalaya, and General A. J. Smith's troops returned to Mississippi. A strong confronting force of Confederates had kept Steele from co-operating with the expedition. He had moved from Little Rock with 8000 men, pushed back the Confederates, and on April 15 had captured the important post at Camden, on the Wachita River. But after a severe battle at Jenkinson's Ferry, on the Sabine River, he had abandoned Camden and returned to Little Rock. So ended the disastrous Red River campaign.

Reed, JAMES, was born at Woburn, Mass., in 1724; died at Fitchburg, Mass., Feb. 13, 1807. He served in the French and Indian War under Abercrombie and Amherst. In 1765 he settled in New Hampshire and was an original proprietor and founder of the town of Fitzwilliam. He commanded the Second New Hampshire Regiment at Cambridge in May, 1775, and fought with it at Bunker's (Breed's) Hill. Early in 1776 he joined the army in Canada, where he suffered from small-pox, by which he ultimately lost his sight. In August, 1776, he was made a brigadier-general, but was incapacitated for further service.

Reed, JOSEPH, was born at Trenton, N. J., Aug. 27, 1741; died in Philadelphia, March 5, 1785. He graduated at Princeton in 1757; studied law in London; began its practice at Trenton in 1765, and in 1767 became Secretary of the



JOSEPH REED.

Province of New Jersey. He was an active patriot, a member of the Committee of Correspondence, and, having settled in Philadelphia in 1770, was made president of the first Pennsylvania Convention in January, 1775. He was a delegate to the second Congress (May, 1775), and went with Washington to Cambridge, in July, as his secretary and aide-de-camp. He was ad-

jutant-general during the campaign of 1776, and was appointed Chief-justice of Pennsylvania and also brigadier-general, in 1777, but declined both offices. Reed was a volunteer in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, and in 1778, as a member of Congress, signed the Articles of Confederation. He was president of Pennsylvania from 1778 to 1781, and was chiefly instrumental in the detection of the ill-practices of General Arnold and in bringing him to trial. Mr. Reed aided in founding the University of Pennsylvania, and was an advocate for the gradual abolition of slavery. Charges of wavering in his support of the American cause created much bitter controversy a few years ago, but a recent accidental discovery by General Stryker, of New Jersey, proved the utter groundlessness of the accusation.

Reeder, ANDREW H., was born near Trenton, N. J., about 1808; died at Easton, Penn., July 5, 1864. He was a practitioner of the law at Easton, where he spent the most of his life. In 1854 he accepted the office of (first) Governor of Kansas from President Pierce, where he endeavored in vain to prevent the election frauds in that territory in 1855. He would not countenance the illegal proceedings of Missourians there, and (July, 1855) the President removed him from office. The anti-slavery people immediately elected him a delegate to Congress for Kansas; and afterwards, under the legal constitution, he was chosen United States Senator. Congress did not ratify that constitution, and he never took his seat. His patriotic course won for him the respect of all law-abiding citizens. He was one of the first to be appointed a brigadier-general at the outbreak of the Civil War, but declined the honor. Three of his sons served in the army.

Reformed Episcopal Church. In 1872 a schism occurred in the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, under the lead of the Right Rev. George David Cummins, D.D., assistant bishop of the diocese of Kentucky. He and several presbyters and laymen withdrew from the Church, believing that in some of its teachings there was a tendency towards erroneous doctrines and practices, such as—1. That the Church of Christ exists only in one order or form of ecclesiastical polity; 2. That Christian ministers are "priests" in another sense than that in which all believers are a "royal priesthood;" 3. That the Lord's table is an altar on which the oblation of the body and blood of Christ is offered anew to the Father; 4. That the presence of Christ in the Lord's supper is a presence in the elements of bread and wine, and, 5. That regeneration is inseparably connected with baptism. Rejecting these views, they formed a new Church organization, called the "Reformed Episcopal Church," and held a first general council in New York, Dec. 2, 1873, at which Bishop Cummins presided. He addressed the council, setting forth the causes which impelled to the movement, reviewing the history of the Church from 1785, and said: "We are not schismatic (no man can be schismatic who does

not deny the faith); we are not disorganizers; we are restorers of the old, repairers of the breaches, reformers." The council elected standing committees, adopted provisional rules, and chose the Rev. Charles Edward Cheney, D.D., missionary bishop for the Northwest. They also adopted a "Declaration of Principles," which were reaffirmed May 18, 1874, at which time a constitution and canons of the "Reformed Episcopal Church" were also adopted. The bishop of the diocese of Kentucky having been informed that Bishop Cummins had abandoned the communion of the Protestant Episcopal Church, gave him notice, on Nov. 22, 1873, that unless he should, within six months, make declaration that the statement was untrue, he should be deposed from the ministry of the church. Bishop Cummins did not respond, and on the 24th day of June, 1874, he was formally deposed by Bishop Smith, of Kentucky, the senior bishop of the church, with the consent of thirty-five bishops.

Refugee Loyalists. The last proceedings in the negotiation of a preliminary treaty of peace, in 1782, was in relation to the refugee American loyalists. The American Commissioners consented to a compromise. They agreed that there should be no future confiscations nor prosecutions of loyalists, that all pending prosecutions should be discontinued, and that Congress should recommend to the several states and their legislatures, on behalf of the refugees, amnesty and the restitution of their confiscated property.

Regency Bill (1765). In the early years of his reign, George III. had symptoms of insanity. In April, 1765, his illness was publicly announced, but its nature was kept a secret. The heir to the throne was then an infant only two years of age, and the subject of a regency in the event of the king's disability or death occupied the thoughts of the ministry for a time, to the exclusion of schemes for taxing the Americans. As soon as the king had sufficiently recovered, he gave orders to four of his ministers to prepare a bill for a regency. It was done; and by it the king was allowed the nomination of a regent, provided it should be restricted to the queen and royal family. The presentation of the bill by the Earl of Halifax to the House of Lords excited much debate in that body, especially on the question, "Who are the royal family?" The matter led to family heart-burnings and political complications and a change of ministry, and Pitt was brought again into the office of Premier of England. It did more—it made the stubborn young king submit to the ministry; and, in the pride of power, they perfected schemes for oppressing the American colonies. They had become a powerful oligarchy.

Regicides, THE. The judges who tried, condemned, and signed the death-warrant of Charles I. were called by the royalists "regicides." The same ship which brought to New England the news of the restoration of monarchy in Old England bore, also, Generals Edward Whalley and William Goffe, high officers in Cromwell's army. Many of the "regicides" were arrested

and executed. Whalley and his son-in-law (Goffe), with Colonel John Dixwell, another "regicide," fled to America to save their lives. Whalley was descended from an ancient family, and was a cousin of Cromwell and Hampden. He had been the custodian of the royal prisoner, and he and Goffe had signed the king's death-warrant. They arrived in Boston in July, 1660, and made their abode at Cambridge. They were speedily followed by a proclamation of Charles II. offering a liberal reward for their arrest. The king also sent officers to arrest them and take them back to England. Feeling insecure at Cambridge, the "regicides" fled to New Haven, where the Rev. Mr. Davenport and the citizens generally did what they could to protect them. Learning that their pursuers were near, they hid in caves, in clefts of rocks, in mills, and other obscure places, where their friends supplied their wants. Finally, in 1664, they went to Hadley, Mass., where they remained, in absolute seclusion, in the house of Rev. Mr. Russell, for about fifteen years. Dixwell was with Whalley and Goffe most of the time until they died—the former in 1678, and the latter in 1679—and were buried at New Haven, where the colonel lived the latter part of his life under an assumed name. He, too, died, and was buried at New Haven. In the burying-ground in the rear of the Central Church small stones, with brief inscriptions, mark the graves of the three "regicides."

Regulating Act. On the 6th of August, 1774, General Gage received a copy of the Regulating Act—an act for the subversion of the charter of Massachusetts—the principle of which was, the concentration of the executive power, including the courts of justice, in the hands of the royal governor. It took from Massachusetts, without notice and without a hearing, by the arbitrary will of Parliament and the king, rights and liberties which the people had enjoyed from the foundation of the colony, excepting in the reign of James II. It utterly uprooted the town-meeting, the dearest institution in the political scheme of Massachusetts. Surrounded by an army, and Boston sitting in grief, Gage prepared to put the Regulating Act into operation. The people of Massachusetts, in convention, decided that the act was unconstitutional, and firmly declared that all officers appointed under it, who should accept, would be considered "usurpers of power and enemies to the province," even though they bore the commission of the king. A provisional Congress was proposed, with large executive powers. Gage became alarmed, stayed his hand, and the Regulating Act became a nullity. Courts convened, but the judges were compelled to renounce their office under the new law. Jurors refused to serve under the new judges. The army was too small to enforce the new laws, and the people agreed, if Gage should send troops to Worcester to sustain the judges there, they should be resisted by twenty thousand men from Hampshire County and Connecticut. Gage's Council, summoned to meet at Salem in August, dared not appear, and the authority of the new government vanished.

Regulators in North Carolina. To feed the rapacity of rulers, the people of North Carolina were very heavily taxed; and, to comply with the extortions of public officers, they were burdened beyond endurance, particularly in the interior counties. They finally formed an association to resist this taxation and extortion, and, borrowing the name of Regulators from the South Carolinians (see *Regulators in South Carolina*), they soon became too formidable to be controlled by local magistrates. They assumed to control public affairs generally, and became actual insurgents, against whom Governor Tryon led a considerable force of volunteers from the seaboard. The opposing parties met and fought a sanguinary battle (May 16, 1771) near the Allemance Creek, in Allemance County, when nearly forty men were killed. The Regulators were beaten and dispersed, but not subdued, and many of them were among the most earnest soldiers in the war for independence. Indeed, the skirmish on the Allemance is regarded by some as the first battle in the war. Tryon marched back in triumph to New Berne, after hanging six of the Regulators for treason (June 19). These events caused fierce hatred of British rule in the region below the Roanoke.

Regulators in South Carolina. After the close of the Cherokee War, the western districts of South Carolina were rapidly settled by people of various nationalities, but mostly by Scotch-Irish, Germans, and immigrants from the Northern provinces. Among these was a lawless class, for the summary punishment of which the better sort of people associated themselves under the name of Regulators. This "vigilance committee," or "Lynch" law, was strongly protested against, for abuses followed its exercise. The people claimed the just right of trial by jury. Governor Montague sent a commissioner (1766) to investigate the matter, who arrested some of the Regulators and sent them to Charleston. Two parties were formed, and nearly came to blows. They were pacified by the establishment of district courts, but ill-feeling continued, and the opponents of the Regulators, taking sides with Parliament in the rising disputes, formed the basis of the Tory party in South Carolina.

Reid, SAMUEL CHESTER, was born at Norwich, Conn., August 25, 1783; died in New York city, Jan. 28, 1861. He went to sea when only eleven years of age, and was captured by a French privateer and kept a prisoner six months. Acting midshipman under Commodore Truxtun, he became enamored of the naval service, and when the War of 1812-15 broke out, he began privateering. He commanded the *General Armstrong* in 1814, and with her fought one of the most remarkable of recorded battles, at Fayal. (See *General Armstrong, The Privateer*.) Captain Reid was appointed sailing-master in the navy, and held that office till his death. He was also warden of the port of New York. Captain Reid was the inventor of the signal telegraph that communicated with Sandy Hook from the Narrows, and it was he who de-

signed the present form of the United States flag (which see).



SAMUEL CHESTER REID.

Reinforcement of Greene's Army (1781).

The invasion of Virginia by Phillips and Cornwallis did not have the intended effect of drawing troops from Greene in South Carolina immediately, but it did in the fall, while the siege of Yorktown was going on. Greene's troops of the Virginia line, who were levies for a limited period, left him, at the end of the term of their enlistments, in spite of his earnest remonstrances, and not a single Virginia soldier remained in his army in October. They had hastened home to assist in driving Cornwallis from the state. Washington desired, after the surrender of Cornwallis, to join Greene in an attack on Charleston, but De Grasse refused to co-operate, because he wished to return to the West Indies before the autumn gales should occur. After that surrender, General Wayne, with two thousand Pennsylvania regulars, marched southward to reinforce Greene.

Relations, COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN, REPORT OF. On Jan. 13, 1813, Mr. Calhoun, Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, made an able report, in which the subject of impressment was a conspicuous topic. A week after the declaration of war, the President proposed an immediate armistice, on conditions just and honorable to both nations. The British rejected it in terms of peculiar reproach and insult, and when the Orders in Council were repealed conditionally, the practice of impressment was defended. So matters stood when the report of the committee was made. After alluding to the above facts, the committee said: "The impressment of our seamen being deservedly considered a principal cause of the war, the war ought to be prosecuted until that cause is removed. To appeal to arms in defence of a right, and to lay them down without securing it, or a

satisfactory evidence of a good disposition in the opposite party to secure it, would be considered in no other light than a relinquishment of it." They spoke of the impressment of American seamen as "an evil which ought not, which cannot, be longer tolerated. Without dwelling on the sufferings of its victims," they continued, "or on the wide scene of distress which it spreads among their relatives through the country, the practice is in itself in the highest degree degrading to the United States as a nation. It is incompatible with their sovereignty; it is subversive of the main pillar of their independence. The forbearance of the United States under it has been mistaken for pusillanimity." To effect a change in the British policy respecting impressments, the committee recommended the passage of an act providing that, after the close of the war, the employment, in public or private vessels of the United States, of any persons except American citizens should be prohibited, this prohibition to extend only to the subjects or citizens of such states as should make reciprocal regulations. An act to that effect was passed, and became a law, March 3, 1813. The war party strongly opposed it, because it seemed like a humiliating concession. Only four days before that report was made, the Prince Regent of Great Britain, from the palace at Westminster, issued a manifesto, in which the practice of impressment was justified. (See *Manifesto of the Prince Regent.*) That document reached the United States about the time of the passage of the act above alluded to.

Relations with the Indians. From the very beginning the United States established unjust and most unfortunate relations with the Indians. After the peace with Great Britain, treaties had been negotiated with most of the barbarians who had taken part against the United States during the war—namely, with the Six Nations, at Fort Stanwix, Oct. 27, 1784; with the Wyandots, Delawares, Chippewas, and Ottawas, at Fort McIntosh, Jan. 21, 1785; and with the Cherokees at Hopewell, Nov. 28, 1785. Acting upon the erroneous supposition that, by the cession of Great Britain, the United States had acquired an absolute title to all the territory within their nominal limits, the American negotiators with the Indians, in all those treaties, had arbitrarily undertaken to assign boundaries to the Indian possessions, without giving them any consideration for the lands they were thus required to relinquish. This was a departure from the uniform usage of the colonies and the established practice of the British agents. It gave great dissatisfaction to the Indians, and led to an Indian war. (See *Harrison's Military Movements.*) Similar treatment of the Indians concerning the disposition of their lands, their reservations, etc., have kept alive the ill-feeling of the barbarians towards the government and people of the United States to this day. Treaties are forced upon them, and frequently violated.

Relief for Soldiers (1780). In the year 1780 the distress of the Continental army became very great on account of the want of clothing

and adequate means possessed by the Commissary Department to afford a supply. The generous sympathies of the women of Philadelphia were aroused, and they formed an association for the purpose of affording relief to the suffering troops. The wife of General Joseph Reed was placed at the head of the society. Mrs. Sarah Bache, daughter of Dr. Franklin, was a conspicuous actor in the generous effort. All classes became interested, and the result was a great success. All ranks of society seemed to have joined in the liberal effort, from Phyllis the colored woman, with her humble contribution, to the Marchioness de Lafayette, who contributed one hundred guineas in specie. This was given, in her name, by the marquis. The French minister, Luzerne, gave \$6000 in Continental money—equivalent to nearly \$100 in specie. Those who had no money to give plied the needle in the good cause, and in almost every house the good work went on. It was not stimulated by the excitements of a day—fancy fairs—but it was the outpouring of generous hearts. American women saw the necessity that asked for interposition, and they relieved it. The Marquis de Chastellux says Mrs. Bache took him into a room filled with finished work—a large quantity of shirts for the soldiers. "On each shirt was the name of the married or unmarried lady who made it, and they amounted to two thousand two hundred." The aggregate amount of contributions in the city and county of Philadelphia was estimated at \$7500 in specie—a large sum at that time. To this was added a princely donation by Robert Morris—the contents of a ship fully laden with military stores and clothing, which had unexpectedly arrived.

Relief for Soldiers (1814). The women of the city of New York, in 1814, formed an association for the relief of soldiers in the field, by providing them with garments and other necessities. The managers were Mrs. General Morgan Lewis, Mrs. William Few, Mrs. David Gelston, Mrs. Philip Livingston, Mrs. Colonel Laight, Mrs. Thomas Morris, Mrs. Marinus Willett, Mrs. William Ross, Mrs. Nathan Sanford, Mrs. Daniel Smith, Mrs. L. Bradish, Miss M. Bleecker, Miss H. Lewis, and Miss H. E. G. Bradish.

Relief of Fort Sumter Attempted. On the day on which Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated (March 4, 1861), a letter was received at the War Department from Major Anderson, dated Feb. 28, in which he expressed an opinion that reinforcements could not be thrown into Fort Sumter within the time specified for his relief, and rendered necessary by the limited supply of provisions, and with a view of holding possession of the same, except with "a force of not less than 2000 good and well-disciplined men." This letter was laid before the cabinet March 5. General Scott was called in. The letter was considered, and Scott concurred in the opinion of Anderson. No sufficient force was at hand under the control of the government, nor could they be raised and taken to Charleston harbor before Anderson's supplies would be exhausted. Mr. Lincoln, anx-

ious for peace, was in favor of abandoning the fort, as there seemed to be no power in the government to save it. Nearly every member of the cabinet agreed with him. Mr. G. V. Fox, who had been a lieutenant in the navy, and had already through Secretary Holt presented (Jan. 7, 1861) to President Buchanan a plan for provisioning and reinforcing Sumter, was sent for. The plan was to have supplies put up in portable packages; to have vessels appear with them and troops off Charleston bar in a large ocean steamer; to have three or four men-of-war as a protecting force; to have this vessel accompanied by three fast New York tug-boats, and, during a dark night, to send in supplies and troops in these tugs or in launches, as should seem best after arrival and examination. Fox convinced the President of the feasibility of this plan. The President believed, if there seemed even a small chance of success, that it would be better to attempt sending aid to Anderson whether it should succeed or not. He thought that to abandon the position, under the circumstances, would be ruinous. Fox was sent to visit Charleston harbor. With Captain Hartstene of the navy, who had joined the insurgents, he visited Fort Sumter, March 21, by permission of Governor Pickens, and ascertained that Anderson had supplies that would last him until April 15. On his return, Fox reported to the President that any attempt to reinforce Anderson must be made before April 15. The President yearned for peace. He sent for a professed Union man in the Virginia Convention then in session, and told him that if the Convention would adjourn, instead of staying in session menacing the government, he would immediately order the evacuation of Fort Sumter. Instead of showing a willingness to preserve peace, the professed Unionist said to the President, "The United States must instantly evacuate Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens, and give assurances that no attempts shall be made to collect revenues in Southern ports." This demand for the national government to recognize the League at Montgomery as a sovereign power decided Mr. Lincoln that all temporizing must end. He had said at Trenton, on his way to Washington, "It may be necessary to put the foot down firmly." He did so at once. Overruling the persistent objections of General Scott and other military authorities, he verbally authorized Mr. Fox to fit out an expedition according to his former plan for the relief of Fort Sumter. A written order to that effect was given to Fox April 4. In order that faith might be kept "as to Sumter," the President notified Governor Pickens that he was about to send a supply of provisions only to the garrison, and that if these provisions were allowed to enter, no more troops should be sent there. This must be done peaceably if possible; if not, by force, as the governor might choose. In spite of all official hinderances, Fox, with wonderful energy and skill, fitted out the expedition at New York, and sailed with it for Charleston harbor on the 9th in the steamship *Baltic* with 200 recruits. The entire relief squadron was composed of the United States ships *Pawnee*, *Powhatan*, *Pocahontas*, and *Harriet*

Lane, and three tugs. The *Powhatan* was the flag-ship of the expedition. While passing down New York Bay, the *Powhatan* was boarded by Lieutenant (afterwards Admiral) Porter, and by order of the President went directly to Fort Pickens, then, like Sumter, threatened by the insurgents. A terrible storm on the way deprived the expedition of all the tugs, and only the *Baltic*, *Pawnee*, and *Harriet Lane* arrived in a heavy storm off Charleston bar. Before the storm abated it was too late to relieve Fort Sumter. (See *Full of Fort Sumter*.) The judgment and energy displayed by Mr. Fox on this occasion caused him to be appointed Assistant Secretary of the Navy, and as such he performed important services during the war.

Relief of Santo Domingo. M. de Ternay, who superseded the Count de Moustier as French minister in the United States, at once applied to the government for money, arms, and ammunition for the relief of the island of Santo Domingo, then rent by civil discord. The influence of the Revolution in America had produced much commotion in France, and the first terrible throes of the French Revolution were felt in 1791. The vacillating and conflicting decrees of the French National Assembly on the subject of citizenship had given rise in Santo Domingo to a warm controversy as to the political rights of the free mulattoes. They were a class considerable in numbers and property, and the controversy was attended with some bloodshed. The slaves in the neighborhood of Cape Français, the northern district of the island, who were ten times more numerous than the white people and mulattoes united, had suddenly risen in insurrection, destroying all the sugar plantations on the rich plain of the cape and threatening the city with destruction. Fugitives from this terrible scene fled to the United States, and thus gave emphasis to Ternay's request. The supplies he asked for towards the suppression of this rebellion were readily granted by the United States, in accordance with the spirit of the treaties with France in 1778 (which see).

Religious Opinions, FREEDOM OF. The provisions of the first constitutions of the states betrayed a struggle between ancient bigotry and growing liberality. When the Revolution broke out, Congregationalism constituted the established religion in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Connecticut. The Church of England enjoyed a similar civil support in all the Southern colonies, and partially so in New York and New Jersey. Only in Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Delaware the equality of all Protestant sects was acknowledged, caused by the lasting impressions given by Roger Williams and William Penn. In the last two colonies this equality was extended to the Roman Catholic Church. The constitution of Massachusetts seemed to guarantee entire freedom of religious opinions and the equality of all sects, yet the Legislature was expressly authorized and implicitly required to provide for the support of ministers, and to compel attendance on their services—a clause against which the people of Boston protested

and struggled in vain. The Legislature was quick to avail itself of the constitutional requirement and permission. They passed laws subjecting to heavy penalties any who might question received notions as to the nature, attributes, and functions of the Deity, or the divine inspiration of any book of the Old or New Testament, reviving, in part, the old colonial laws against blasphemy. Similar laws remained in force in Connecticut (under the charter) and were re-enacted in New Hampshire. In those three states Congregationalism continued to enjoy the prerogatives of an Established Church, and to be supported by taxes from which it was not easy for dissenters to escape, nor possible except by contributing to the support of some other Church which they regularly attended. The ministers, once chosen, held their places for life, and had a legal claim for their stipulated salaries, unless dismissed for cause deemed sufficient by a council mutually chosen from among the ministers and members of the neighboring churches. A great majority of the members of the Church of England were loyalists during the Revolution, and the Church lost the establishment it had possessed in the Southern colonies. In South Carolina the second constitution declared the "Christian Protestant religion" to be the established religion of the state. All persons acknowledging one God and a future state of rewards and punishments were to be freely tolerated; and if in addition they held Christianity to be the true religion, and the Old and New Testaments to be inspired, they might form churches of their own entitled to be admitted as a part of the establishment. In Maryland a "general and equal tax" was authorized for the support of the Christian religion, but no Assembly ever exercised the power to lay such tax. The constitutions of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia expressly repudiated the compulsory system in religious matters, and in the constitution of Virginia no mention was made of the matter. By act, in 1785, all religious tests in Virginia were abrogated. This act was framed by the earnest efforts of Jefferson and Madison, seconded by the Baptists, Presbyterians, and other dissenters. It was to prevent an effort, favored by Washington, Patrick Henry, and others, to pass a law in conformity to the ecclesiastical system in New England, compelling all to contribute to the support of some minister. By the constitutions of New York, Delaware, and Maryland, priests or ministers of religion were disqualified from holding any political office whatever. In Georgia they could not be members of the Assembly. All gifts for pious uses were prohibited by the constitution of Maryland, except grants of land not exceeding two acres each, as sites for churches and church-yards. In several of the states religious tests were maintained. The old prejudices against the Roman Catholic Church could not be easily laid aside. In New Hampshire, New Jersey, North and South Carolina, and Georgia the chief officers of state were required to be Protestants. In Massachusetts and Maryland all officers must declare their belief

in the Christian religion; in South Carolina they must believe in a future state of punishments and rewards; in North Carolina and Pennsylvania they were required to acknowledge the inspiration of the Old and New Testaments, and in Delaware to believe in the doctrine of the Trinity. In 1784 Rhode Island repealed a law so repugnant to its charter, by which Roman Catholics were prohibited from becoming voters. The old colonial laws for the observance of Sunday as a day of rest continued in force in all the colonies. The national Constitution (Article VI., clause 3) declared that "no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States." At the first session of the First Congress, held March 4, 1789, many amendments to the Constitution were offered, and ten of them were adopted and ratified by the required number of state legislatures in December, 1791. The first amendment was as follows: "Congress shall pass no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." This was a direct blow at the clauses dictated by bigotry in several of the state constitutions, and was effectual in time.

Religious Societies. At the foundation of our Republic the chief religious societies were Baptists, Congregationalists, Dutch Reformed, Episcopalians, Methodists, Presbyterians, Lutherans, Roman Catholics, Moravians, and Friends. Since then other denominations have arisen, and there were in 1890 one hundred and forty religious denominations, besides numerous independent congregations. These bodies had an aggregate of more than 152,200 churches, 107,400 ministers, and a membership of over 22,231,500 communicants.

Remarkable Coincidence. On the 4th of July, 1826, Thomas Jefferson and John Adams died, almost at the same hour. They were both members of the committee that framed the Declaration of Independence; both signed it; both had been American ministers at European courts; both had been Vice-Presidents and Presidents of the United States, and both had lived to a great age. Adams died at Quincy, Mass., at the age of almost ninety-one years; Jefferson died at Monticello, Va., at the age of almost eighty-four years. They died exactly fifty years (almost to an hour) after they had cast their votes in favor of the Declaration of Independence.

Remonstrance of the Legislature of Pennsylvania on the State of the Army (1777). Howe had full possession of Philadelphia and of the Delaware below, and Pennsylvania was divided among its people and in its Legislature by political factions. General uneasiness prevailed; and when Washington with a small and wretchedly furnished army that crimsoned the snow on its march from bleeding bare feet sought refuge in winter-quarters at Valley Forge, the Pennsylvania Legislature adopted a remonstrance against that measure. To this cruel missive Washington replied, after censuring the quartermaster-general (Mifflin), a Pennsylvanian, for neglect of duty: "For the want of a two days'

supply of provisions, an opportunity scarcely ever offered of taking an advantage of the enemy that has not been either totally obstructed or greatly impeded. Men are confined in hospitals or in farmers' houses for want of shoes. We have this day [Dec. 23] no less than 2573 men in camp unfit for duty because they are barefooted and otherwise naked. Our whole strength in Continental troops amounts to no more than 8200 in camp fit for duty. Since the 4th inst., our numbers fit for duty, from hardships and exposures, have decreased nearly 2000 men. Numbers are still obliged to sit all night by fires. Gentlemen reprobate going into winter-quarters as much as if they thought the soldiers were made of sticks or stones. I can assure those gentlemen that it is a much easier and less distressing thing to draw remonstrances in a comfortable room by a good fireside than to occupy a cold, bleak hill, and sleep under frost and snow without clothes or blankets. However, although they seem to have little feeling for the naked and distressed soldiers, I feel superabundantly for them; and from my soul I pity those miseries which it is neither in my power to relieve or prevent."

Removal of the Seat of Government to Washington. This was effected in the summer of 1800. It seemed like transferring it to a wilderness. Only the north wing of the Capitol was finished, and that was fitted up to accommodate both Houses of Congress. The President's house was finished externally, but much had to be done on the inside. There was only one good tavern, and that was insufficient to accommodate half the Congressmen. There was only a path through an alder swamp along the line of Pennsylvania Avenue from the President's house to the Capitol. Mrs. Adams wrote concerning the President's house that it was superb in design, but then dreary beyond endurance. "I could content myself almost anywhere for three months," she said, "but, surrounded with forests, can you believe that wood is not to be had, because people cannot be found to cut and cart it! . . . We have, indeed, come into a new country." The public offices had hardly been established in the city when the War-office, a wooden structure, took fire and was burned with many valuable papers.

Rensselaerwyck, the seat of Patroon Van Rensselaer (see *Patroons*), equalled in population in 1638 the rest of the province of New Netherland. It did not include Fort Orange (Albany), which was under the direct control of the Dutch West Indian Company through the director at Fort Amsterdam. The government was vested in two commissaries, one of whom acted as president, and two councillors, assisted by a secretary, schout-fiscal, and marshal. The commissaries and councillors composed a court for the trial of all cases, civil and criminal, from which, however, an appeal lay to the director and council at Fort Amsterdam. The code was the Roman-Dutch law as administered in Holland. The population consisted principally of farmers, who emigrated at their own expense, other husband-

men sent out by the patroon to establish and cultivate boweries, or farms, on shares or by rent, and farm-servants indentured for a term of years. From the very foundation of the "Colonie," as it was called, there were disputes between the patroon and his tenants. (See *Anti-Rentism*.) For a long time there was a clashing of authority between the director of the Province and the commissary of the "Colonie."

Reorganization of Civil Government (1781). After much discussion, the Congress determined, early in 1781, to abandon the old system of carrying on the various departments of the government by boards and committees, and to put foreign affairs, war, marine, and finance under a single head in each. The first of these offices was filled (June, 1781) by Robert Morris, the chief financier of the nation, under the title of Superintendent of Finance. A foreign bureau was established equivalent to our present department of state, at the head of which was placed Robert R. Livingston, who was styled Secretary of Foreign Affairs. General Alexander McDougall was made Secretary of the Marine, and Richard Peters Secretary of War. Mr. Livingston had two under-secretaries—Louis R. Morris and Peter S. Duponceau—and two clerks. Rev. Mr. Tetard, of Philadelphia, was made translator of the department.

Reorganization of the Continental Army (1775). During the campaign which resulted in the loss of New York, a retreat before a superior force across New Jersey, and the encampment of the shattered fugitive American army on Pennsylvania soil, Washington had been in constant correspondence with the Congress on the subject of a reorganization of the troops in the field. He had represented in the strongest terms the wastefulness, as well as the dangerous uncertainty, of the system of short enlistments and militia drafts, and its total incompatibility with system, order, and discipline. Numbers had not been wanting. Already there had been 47,000 Continentals and 27,000 militia in the field, but this vast army presented a series of dissolving views. There was neither order nor discipline, and consequently there was dangerous weakness. "The government of the army," Washington wrote to Congress, to be effective, "must be a perfect despotism." To that the militia would not submit, and when they were with regulars, their insubordination was communicated to the latter, whose annual term of service expired almost before they had learned the duties of a soldier. In the Congress, in the state legislatures, and among the people there prevailed an abhorrence of a standing army, and there was a general disinclination to enlist for long periods. Yet the important fact was recognized, that to continue the war a standing army must be created. A committee of Congress, who had conferred with Washington on Harlem Heights, had matured a plan in accordance with his views, and it was adopted by Congress. All the scattered troops were to compose one grand army, to consist of eighty battalions of 750 men each, to be raised in the sev-

eral states in proportion to their assumed population and ability, as follows: Massachusetts and Virginia, each 15 battalions; Pennsylvania, 12; North Carolina, 9; Connecticut, 8; South Carolina, 6; New York and New Jersey, 4 each; New Hampshire and Maryland, 3 each; Rhode Island, 2; and Delaware and Georgia, 1 each. The men were to be enlisted for the war, and to be entitled at the end of their service to a land-bounty of 100 acres. Colonels were to have 500 acres, and inferior officers an intermediate quantity according to their rank. A bounty of twenty dollars was to be given to each recruit. A regiment raised by Colonel Hazen in Canada was to be kept up, to be recruited in any of the states, and hence known as "Congress's Own." It was soon found to be difficult to get recruits "for the war," and an option was allowed to recruit for three years and not receive any land-bounty. The states were to enlist their respective quotas, and to provide them with arms and clothing; but the expense of these operations, as well as the pay of the soldiers in the field, was to be finally a common charge. Colonels and all inferior officers were to be appointed by the respective states, but to be commissioned by Congress. National foundries and laboratories for the manufacture of arms and military stores were speedily set up at Carlisle, Penn., and Springfield, Mass. To promote enlistments, several of the states offered large additional bounties, but Washington and the Congress protested against the practice as injurious. The latter, however, offered eight dollars to every person who should obtain a recruit. Even this apparently large army, if promptly recruited, did not seem sufficient to Washington, and the Congress authorized him (Dec. 27) to enlist and officer an additional force. (See *Dictatorship Conferred on Washington*.)

Reorganization of the Union (1865). Several of the state governments had been paralyzed and disorganized by the terrible convulsions produced by the Civil War. A hoary and deep-seated social system had been overthrown, and in a number of the states business of every kind, public and private, had become deranged. It was necessary for the national government to put forth its powers for the reorganization of the Union politically, as a preliminary measure for its peaceful and healthful progress. There was nothing to *reconstruct*, for nothing had been *destroyed*. No state had been severed from the body of the Republic. At the end of the war each state, geographically and politically, remained as it was before, and only needed its vitality to be resuscitated to cause it to go on with vigor as an equal component of the Union. President Johnson took a preliminary step towards the reorganization by proclaiming (April 29, 1865) the removal of restrictions upon commercial intercourse among all the states. A month later (May 29) he issued a proclamation stating the terms by which the people of the disorganized states, with specified exceptions, might receive full amnesty and pardon, and be reinvested with the right to exercise the functions of citizenship supposed to have been de-

stroyed by participation in the insurrection. This was soon followed by the appointment by the President of provisional governors for the seven states which originally formed the league known as the "Confederate States of America" (which see). These governors he clothed with authority to assemble citizens in convention who had taken the amnesty oath, with power to reorganize state governments and secure the election of representatives in the national Congress. The President's plan was to restore to the states named their former position in the Union without any provision for securing to the emancipated slaves the right to the exercise of citizenship which an amendment to the national Constitution (see *Thirteenth Amendment, The*), then before the state legislatures for consideration, would entitle them to. The President's provisional governors were active in carrying out his plan of reorganization before the meeting of Congress, fearing that body might interfere with it. Meanwhile the requisite number of states ratified the Thirteenth Amendment. Late in June the order for a blockade of Southern ports was rescinded; most of the restrictions upon inter-state commerce were removed in August; state prisoners were paroled in October; and the first act of Congress after its meeting in December, 1865, was the repealing of the act authorizing the suspension of the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*. Five of the disorganized states had then ratified the Thirteenth Amendment, caused the formation of state constitutions, and elected representatives thereunder; and the President had directed the newly elected governors (some of whom had been active participants in the insurrection) to take the place of the provisional governors. These events had greatly disturbed the loyal people. It seemed evident that the President, in violation of his solemn pledges to the freedmen and the nation, was preparing to place the public affairs of the United States under the control of those who had sought to destroy the Union. Within six months after his accidental elevation to the presidential chair he was at open war with the party whose suffrages had given him his high honors. He had usurped powers which the Constitution conferred exclusively upon Congress. That body clearly perceived the usurpation, and their first business of moment was to take up the subject of reorganization. On the first day of the session (Dec. 4, 1865) Congress appointed what was called a "Reconstruction Committee." It should have been called a *Reorganization Committee*. It was composed of nine members of the House and six of the Senate. Their duties were to "inquire into the condition of the states which formed the so-called Confederate States of America, and report whether they, or any of them, were entitled to be represented in Congress." It was resolved that until such report should be made, representatives from those states should not take seats in Congress. This was a virtual condemnation of the President's unlawful acts. The angry chief magistrate resented it, and denounced by name members of Congress who op-

posed his will. He uniformly vetoed acts passed by Congress, but his vetoes were impotent for mischief, for the bills were passed over them by very large majorities. His conduct so disgusted his cabinet ministers that they all resigned in March, 1866, excepting the Secretary of War (Mr. Stanton), who retained his position at that critical time for the public good. Congress pressed forward the work of reorganization in spite of the President's factious opposition. Late in July Tennessee was reorganized, and took its place in the councils of the nation. The President's high-handed acts finally caused his impeachment, when, after a trial, he was acquitted by one vote. He was succeeded in office by General Grant, March 4, 1869. Finally, the disorganized states, having complied with the requirements of Congress, the Union was fully restored in May, 1872. On the 23d of that month every seat in Congress was filled for the first time since the winter of 1860-61 (a period of more than eleven years), when members from several of the slave-labor states abandoned them. (See *Civil Rights Bill*; *Freedmen's Bureau*; *Tenure of Office Act*.)

Representative Government, FIRST, IN MASSACHUSETTS. The government of Massachusetts colony, in its popular branch, was purely democratic until 1634. The freemen, dissatisfied by the passage of obnoxious laws by the magistrates and clergy, sent a delegation, composed of two representatives from each town, to request a sight of the charter. Its inspection satisfied them that to the freemen, and not to the magistrates, belonged the legislative power. They asked the governor's opinion. He replied that the freemen were now too many (not over three hundred) to meet as a legislature, and also gave an opinion that the "commons" were not yet furnished with a body of men fit to make laws. He proposed that a certain number of freemen should be appointed yearly, not to make laws, but to prefer grievances to the Court of Assistants, whose consent might also be required to all assessments of money or grants of lands. They insisted upon less restricted power; and when the General Court, composed of freemen, met, that body claimed for itself all the powers which the charter clearly granted them. The magistrates were compelled to yield; and it was arranged that while all the freemen should assemble annually for the choice of officers, they should be represented by delegates elected by the people in the other three sessions of the court (see *Massachusetts, First Royal Charter for*), to "deal on their behalf in the public affairs of the commonwealth," and for that purpose "to have devised to them the full voice and power of all the said freemen." By this political revolution representative government was first established in Massachusetts. The first representative Legislature, composed of three delegates from each of the eight principal plantations, met with the magistrates in May, 1634. This was the second government of the kind established in America.

Representative Government in New York. Its germs were planted in New Netherland, when,

in 1641, Governor Kieft summoned all the masters and heads of families to meet at Fort Amsterdam to bear with him the responsibility of making an unrighteous war on the Indians. (See *Kieft, William*.) When they met, Kieft submitted the question whether a murder lately committed by a savage on a Hollander, for a murder committed by a Hollander on a savage many years before, ought not to be avenged; and, in case the Indians would not give up the murderer, whether it would not be just to destroy the whole village to which he belonged? The people chose twelve of their number to represent them. These were Jacques Bertyn, Maryn Adriaensen, Jan Jansen Dam, Hendrick Jansen, David Pietersen de Vries, Jacob Stoffelsen, Abram Molenaar, Frederick Lubbertsen, Jochem Pietersen Kuyter, Gerrit Dircksen, George Rapelje, and Abraham Planck—all Hollanders. The action of the twelve was contrary to Kieft's wishes, and he afterwards dissolved this first representative assembly and forbade the assembling of another. An appalling crisis in 1643 caused Kieft to call for popular counsellors, and the people chose eight men to represent them. This second representative assembly consisted of Jochem Pietersen Kuyter, Jan Jansen Dam, Barent Dircksen, Abraham Pietersen, Isaac Allerton (a Puritan who came over in the *Mayflower*, and was then a merchant in New Amsterdam), Thomas Hall (another Englishman), Gerrit Wolfertsen, and Cornelius Meylyn, the patroon of Staten Island. On the arrival of Stuyvesant as governor of New Netherland, he organized a council of nine men, who in a degree represented the people. A circumstance now favored the growth of republicanism in the colony. The finances were in such a low state that taxation was absolutely necessary. The principle that "taxation without representation is tyranny" had prevailed in Holland since 1477. Stuyvesant was compelled to respect it, for he feared the States-General; so he called a convention of citizens (1647), and directed them to choose eighteen of their best men from whom he might select nine as representatives of the tax-payers. He hedged this representative assembly as tightly as possible with restrictions. The first nine were to choose their successors, so that he need not go to the people again. They nourished the prolific seed of democracy then planted. Stuyvesant tried to stifle its growth; persecution promoted it. Settlers from New England were now many among the Dutch, and imbibed their republican sentiments. Finally, late in the autumn of 1653, nineteen delegates, who represented eight villages or communities, assembled at the City Hall in New Amsterdam, without the governor's consent, to take measures for the public good. They demanded that "no new laws shall be enacted but with the consent of the people, that none shall be appointed to office but with the approbation of the people, and that obscure and obsolete laws shall never be revived." Stuyvesant, angered by what he called their impertinence, ordered them to disperse on pain of punishment, saying: "We derive our authority from

God and the Company, not from a few ignorant subjects." The deputies paid very little attention to the wishes or commands of the irate governor, who was an honest despot. When they adjourned they invited the governor to a collation, but he would not sanction their proceedings by his presence. They bluntly told him there would be another convention soon, and he might prevent it if he could. He stormed, but prudently yielded to the demands of the people for another convention, and issued a call. The delegates met (Dec. 10, 1653) in New Amsterdam. Of the eight districts represented, four were Dutch and four English. Of the nineteen delegates, ten were Dutch and nine English. Baxter, English secretary of the colony, led the English delegates. He drew up a remonstrance against the tyrannous rule of the governor. Stuyvesant met the severe document with his usual pluck, denouncing it and the assembly, every member of which signed it; and until the end of his administration (1664) he was at "swords' points" with the representatives of the people, who more and more acquired legislative functions under Dutch and English rule until the beginning of the last century, when the Assembly was the most powerful branch of the colonial government.

Reprisal. In 1646, while Captain Dobson, in a vessel of eighty tons fitted out at Boston, was trading with the natives at Cape Sable, N. S., D'Aulnay, the French governor, sent twenty men from Port Royal, who captured the vessel and took it to the latter port, where ship and cargo were confiscated and the men sent home. Vessel and cargo were valued at \$5000. (See *La Tour in Acadia*.)

Reprisal, LETTERS OF, in national law, the authorization of the capture of property belonging to the subjects of a foreign power in satisfaction of losses sustained by a citizen of the capturing state. (See *Letter of Marque and Reprisal*.)

Reprisal, THE PRIVATEER. The ship that carried Franklin to France, having replenished in the port of Nantes, cruised off the French coast and captured several prizes from the English. The American privateers were permitted to enter French ports in cases of extreme emergency, and there to receive supplies only sufficient for a voyage to their own ports; but the *Reprisal* continued to cruise off the French coast after leaving port, and captured the English royal packet between Falmouth and Lisbon. With this and five other prizes, she entered the harbor of L'Orient, the captain saying he intended to send them to America. Stormont, the English ambassador at Paris, hurried to Vergennes to demand that the captain, with his crews, cargoes, and ships, should be given up. "You have come too late," said the minister; "orders have already been sent that the American ship and her prizes must immediately put to sea." The *Reprisal* continued to cruise in European waters until captured in the summer of 1777.

Republican Army, THE, abandoned Canada in 1776. General John Thomas was sent to take the command of the patriot troops in Can-

ada. He arrived at Quebec May 1, 1776, and found nineteen hundred soldiers, one half of whom were sick with small-pox and other diseases. Some of them were also clamorous for a discharge, for their term of enlistment had expired. He was about to retreat up the St. Lawrence, when reinforcements for Carleton arrived, and the garrison of Quebec sallied out and attacked the Americans, who in their weakness fled far up the river to the mouth of the Sorel. There General Thomas died of the small-pox (June 2), when the command devolved on General Sullivan. After meeting with disaster at Three Rivers, the latter was compelled to fly up the Sorel before an approaching force under Burgoyne, and he pressed on by Chambly to St. John. Arnold, at Montreal, seeing approaching danger, had abandoned that city and joined Sullivan at Chambly; and on the 17th of June all the American troops in Canada were at that post. They were in a most pitiable plight. Nearly one half of them were sick; all were half-clad, and were scantily fed with salted meat and hard bread. The force was too weak to make a stand at St. John against the slowly pursuing army of Burgoyne, and they continued their flight to Crown Point in open boats, without awnings, exposing the sick to the fiery sun and drenching rain. Terrible were their sufferings at Crown Point. Every spot and every thing seemed infected with disease. For a short time the troops were poorly housed, half-naked, and inadequately fed, their daily rations being raw salted pork, hard bread, and unbaked flour. During two months the Northern Army lost, by sickness and desertion, full five thousand men, and five thousand were left, and were at Crown Point in June, 1778. So ended, in disaster, this remarkable invasion.

Republican Government First Proposed.

After the proclamation of King George III. (which see) in 1775, Joseph Hawley, one of the staunch patriots of New England, wrote from Watertown to Samuel Adams in Congress: "The eyes of all the continent are on your body to see whether you act with firmness and intrepidity—with the spirit and despatch which our situation calls for. It is time for your body to fix on periodical annual elections—nay, to form into a parliament of two houses." This was the first proposition for the establishment of an independent national government for the colonies.

Republican Party, MODERN, BIRTH OF THE.

The place of the birth of the Republican party, like that of Homer, is claimed by several communities. It is a matter of date to be settled. Michigan claims that it was at a state convention assembled at Jackson July 6, 1854, a call for which was signed by more than ten thousand persons. The "platform" of the convention was drawn up by Hon. Jacob M. Howard (afterwards United States Senator), in which the extension of slavery was opposed and its abolition in the District of Columbia agitated. The name of "Republican" was adopted by the convention as that of the opposition party.

Conventions that took a similar course were held as follows: Ohio, Wisconsin, and Vermont, July 13, and Massachusetts, July 19, 1854.

Republican Party, THE, IN 1856. For some time previous to the canvass for a new President of the United States in 1856 there were very apparent signs of the formation of a new party. The anti-slavery element in all political parties began more than a year before to crystallize into a party opposed to the further extension of slavery into the territories of the Union. It rapidly gathered force and bulk as the election approached. It assumed giant proportions in the fall of 1856, and was called the "Republican party." That party had nominated John C. Frémont, of California, for President. He was defeated by James Buchanan; but the party still increased in power, and in 1860 elected its candidate—Abraham Lincoln. It continued to be the dominant party in the councils of the nation until during the administration of President Hayes, who was elected in 1876.

Republicans. The Anti-Federalists (see *Federalists*) formed the basis of the Republican party after Jefferson entered the cabinet of President Washington. During the discussion on the national Constitution before it was adopted the difference of opinion became more and more decidedly marked, until, at the time when the ratification was consummated, the views of the supporters and opposers of the Constitution, called Federalists and Anti-Federalists, gradually crystallized into strongly opposing creeds. Jefferson came from France to take his seat in the cabinet, filled with the radical sentiments of the best of the French revolutionists, who had begun the work which afterwards assumed the horrid aspect of revolution and the Reign of Terror. He came home glowing with the animus of French democracy, and was shocked by the apparent indifference of Washington, Hamilton, Adams, and others to the claims of the struggling French people to the sympathy of the Americans. He sympathized with the ultra-republicans of France, and was an enthusiastic admirer of a nation of enthusiasts. His suspicious nature caused him to suspect those who differed with him in his political views as enemies of republicanism; and he had scarcely taken his seat in Washington's cabinet before he declared his belief that some of his colleagues held monarchical views, and that there was a party in the United States secretly and openly in favor of the overthrow of the Republic. He did not hesitate to designate Hamilton as a leader among them, and Washington was soon alarmed and mortified to find that he had personal and political enemies in his cabinet. These two men soon became the acknowledged leaders of opposing parties in the nation—Federalists and Anti-Federalists—Hamilton of the first, Jefferson of the second. As more dignified, the latter party took the title of Republicans, or Democrats. They called their opponents the "British party." The latter retorted by calling the Republicans the "French party."

In the presidential contest in 1800 the Republicans defeated the Federalists, and, after a struggle for about twenty years for political supremacy, the Federal party disappeared. *Fenno's Gazette* was considered Hamilton's organ, and an opposition journal, called the *National Gazette*, was started, with Philip Freneau, a poet and translating-clerk in the office of Mr. Jefferson, at its head. The Republican members of Congress were mostly from the Southern States, and the Federalists from the Northern and Eastern.

Requisition on the States for Troops (1861). Simultaneously with the President's proclamation for troops (April 15, 1861), the Secretary of War (Simon Cameron) issued a telegraphic despatch to the governors of all the states of the Union, excepting those in which ordinances of secession had been adopted (see *Secession Ordinances*), requesting each of them to cause to be immediately detailed from the militia of his state a designated quota, as follows, the number of regiments indicated by the numerals:

Maine.....	1	Pennsylvania..	16	Missouri.....	4
New Hampshire..	1	Delaware.....	1	Ohio.....	13
Vermont.....	1	Tennessee.....	2	Indiana.....	6
Massachusetts..	2	Maryland.....	4	Illinois.....	6
Rhode Island...	1	Virginia.....	3	Michigan.....	1
Connecticut.....	1	North Carolina.	2	Iowa.....	1
New York.....	17	Kentucky.....	4	Minnesota.....	1
New Jersey.....	6	Arkansas.....	1	Wisconsin.....	1

Resaca, BATTLE OF (1864). General Sherman, instead of attacking General Johnston at Dalton (see *Sherman's Campaign in Georgia*), flanked him and caused him to leave Dalton and take post at Resaca, on the Oostenaula River, where the railway between Chattanooga and Atlanta crosses that stream. In so doing, General Thomas had quite a smart engagement at Buzzard's Roost Gap on May 7. Meanwhile the Army of the Ohio (Schofield) pressed heavily on Johnston's right, and the Army of the Tennessee (McPherson) appeared suddenly before the Confederate works at Resaca. These works were so strong that McPherson fell back to Snake Creek Valley to await the arrival of the main army. On May 11 the whole army was marching westward of Rocky-face Ridge for Snake Creek Gap and Resaca. Johnston, closely pursued by Howard, had taken position behind a line of intrenchments at Resaca. From the Gap, McPherson, preceded by Kilpatrick's cavalry, pushed towards the same place. The latter was wounded in a skirmish. McPherson drove in the Confederate pickets, and took post on a ridge of bald hills, with his right on the Oostenaula River and his left abreast the village. Very soon the Confederate intrenchments were confronted by other National troops. On the 14th Sherman ordered a pontoon-bridge to be laid across the Oostenaula at Lay's Ferry, and directed Sweeny's division to cross and threaten Calhoun, farther south. At the same time Garrard's cavalry moved towards Rome. Meanwhile Sherman was severely pressing Johnston at all points, and there was a general battle at Resaca during the afternoon and evening of May 15, in which Thomas, Hooker, and Schofield took a principal part. Hooker drove the

Confederates from several strong positions and captured four guns and many prisoners. That night Johnston abandoned Resaca, fled across the Oostenaula, firing the bridges behind him, and leaving as spoils a 4-gun battery and a considerable amount of stores. The Nationals, after taking possession of Resaca, pushed on in pursuit. After briefly resting at two or three places, Johnston took a strong position at Allatoona Pass.

Resaca de la Palma (Dry River of Palms), BATTLE OF. At two o'clock on the morning of May 9, 1846, the little army of General Taylor, which had fought the Mexicans the day before at Palo Alto (which see), were awakened from their slumbers on the battle-field to resume their march for Fort Brown. The cautious leader prepared for attack on the way, for the smitten foe had rallied. He saw no traces of them until towards evening, when, as the Americans emerged from a dense thicket, the Mexicans were discovered strongly posted in battle order in a broad ravine about four feet deep and two hundred feet wide, the dry bed of a series of pools, skirted with palmetto-trees, and called "Resaca de la Palma." Within that natural trench the Mexicans had planted a battery that swept the road over which the Americans were approaching. Taylor pressed forward, and, after some severe skirmishing, in which a part of his army was engaged, he ordered Captain May, leader of dragoons, to charge upon the battery. Rising in his stirrups, May called out to his troops, "Remember your regiment! Men, follow!" and, dashing forward in the face of a shower of balls from the battery, he made his powerful black horse leap the parapet. He was followed by a few of his men, whose steeds made the fearful leap. They killed the gunners, and General La Vega, who was about to apply a match to one of the pieces, and 100 men were made prisoners by the troops and borne in triumph within the American lines. The battle grew fiercer every moment. The chaparral, an almost impenetrable thicket near, was swarming with Mexicans and blazing with the fire of their muskets. Finally, after a fearful struggle, the camp and headquarters of General Arista were captured and the Mexicans completely routed. Arista fled, a solitary fugitive, and escaped across the Rio Grande. So sudden had been his discomfiture that his plate and correspondence, with arms, equipments, and ammunition for several thousand men, besides 2000 horses, fell into the hands of the victors. La Vega and some other captive officers were sent to New Orleans on parole. The Mexicans having been reinforced during the night of the 8th, it was estimated that they had 7000 men on the battle-field; the Americans less than 2000. The former lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about 1000; the latter, 110. The Mexican army was broken up. (See *Mexico, War with*.)

Resignation of Civil Officers in South Carolina. When South Carolina was proclaimed a "sovereign independent nation" by its governor, its civil officers resigned their places under

the government of the United States. Judge McGrath, of the United States District Court at Charleston, said to the grand-jurors in his court, "For the last time, I have, as a judge of the United States, administered the laws of the United States within the limits of South Carolina. So far as I am concerned, the temple of justice raised under the Constitution of the United States is now closed." Then, with solemn gravity, he laid aside his gown and retired. At the same time the United States District-attorney, the Collector of the Port of Charleston, and the National Sub-treasurer resigned, and were followed by all the civil officers of the state. Similar action was taken by the civil officers in other states where conventions had passed ordinances of secession. Those of South Carolina were in such haste to get out of the Union that their resignations took place on Nov. 7, 1860, several weeks before the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession was adopted.

Resistance to Search. On June 25, 1798, Congress passed an act authorizing all merchant vessels to defend themselves against any search, seizure, or restraint on the part of any vessel under French colors; and to subdue and capture as good prize any vessel attempting such search or seizure; and to retake any vessel seized by the French, with benefit of salvage.

Resolution for Independence. The resolution for independence offered in Congress on June 7, 1776, was taken up for consideration on July 2. The mover (Richard Henry Lee) had been called home on account of the illness of his wife, and was not present. John Adams, who had seconded it, was present, and made an unprepared, sudden, and impetuous speech in favor of the resolution. John Dickinson had prepared a speech not so much in opposition as vindictory of himself. It was elaborate, able, and complete as embodying arguments against independence. His colleague—James Wilson—could no longer agree with him. The authority of the conference of committees (see *Pennsylvania for Independence*) swayed his action, for it was the voice of the people. Others spoke, mostly in favor of the resolution, but no record of the names of the speakers or of the speeches was made. The resolution for independence was sustained by nine colonies. The South Carolina delegates voted unanimously against it; so, also, did a majority of those of Pennsylvania. Delaware was divided. Just before Congress adjourned a letter from Washington reached that body, conveying the news that forty-five ships had arrived at Sandy Hook, laden with troops, and more were expected in a day or two. The determination of the vote had, upon the request of Edward Rutledge, of South Carolina, been postponed until the next day. On the morning of the 2d there were fifty members in Congress. Caesar Rodney had arrived from Delaware, and, by the absence of some of the Pennsylvania delegates, the vote of that colony was secured. When, on that day, the vote on the resolution for independence was taken, twelve of the thirteen colonies recorded

the votes of their delegates for it. New York was ready to make the vote unanimous, but her delegates had to wait until the 9th for positive instructions. The great event towards which the thoughts of a continent had been for months turned had been consummated. "The greatest question," wrote John Adams, "which ever was debated in America was decided; and a greater, perhaps, never was nor ever will be decided among men. . . . The 2d day of July, 1776, will be the most memorable epoch in the history of America—to be celebrated by succeeding generations as the great anniversary festival, commemorated as the day of deliverance by solemn acts of devotion to God Almighty from one end of the continent to the other from this time forward forevermore." The 2d, and not the 4th, of July, it has been thought, should be the date of the great national anniversary. The resolution for independence was adopted on the 2d; the reasons, only, for the resolution were declared on the 4th. But that declaration asserted the principles upon which the nation was founded, and the 4th is, therefore, the real birthday of the nation.

Resolutions of '98. The famous "Kentucky Resolutions" and "Virginia Resolutions" of 1798 afforded ground for the doctrine of state supremacy down to the breaking-out of the Civil War in 1861. The organization of a provisional army to fight France, and the passage of the Alien and Sedition Laws of the summer of 1798, brought forward into prominence bold men, leaders in communities, who were ready to support secession and nullification schemes. Among these was John Taylor, of Caroline, a Virginia statesman, who boldly put forth his advanced views. Mr. Jefferson finally sympathized with him, and at a conference held at Monticello, towards the close of October, 1798, between the latter and George and Wilson C. Nicholas, they determined to engage Kentucky to join Virginia in an "energetic protestation against the constitutionality of those laws." Mr. Jefferson was urged to sketch resolutions accordingly, which W. C. Nicholas, then a resident of Kentucky, agreed to present to the Legislature. Having obtained the solemn assurance of the Nicholas brothers that it should not be known from whence the resolutions came, Jefferson drafted them. The first declared that the national Constitution is a compact between the states, as states, by which is created a general government for special purposes, each state reserving to itself the residuary mass of power and right, and "that, as in other cases of compact between parties having no common judge, each party has an equal right to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress." Then followed five resolutions practically applying to three acts of Congress—one to punish counterfeiters of bills of the United States Bank, and one to the Alien and Sedition Laws. For various reasons assigned, these acts were pronounced "not law, but altogether void, and of no force." Another asserted the right of the states to judge of infractions and their remedy, not merely as matter of opinion, but official-

ly and constitutionally, as parties of the compact, and as the foundation of important legislation. The seventh resolution postponed "to a time of greater tranquillity" the "revisal and correction" of sundry other acts of Congress alleged to have been founded upon an unconstitutional interpretation of the right to impose taxes and excise, and to provide for the common defence. The eighth resolution directed the appointment of a committee of correspondence, to communicate the resolutions to the several states, and to inform them that the State of Kentucky, with all her esteem for her "co-states" and for the Union, was determined "to submit to undelegated, and, consequently, unlimited powers, in no man or body of men on earth; that in the case of an abuse of the delegated powers, the members of the general government being chosen by the people, a change by the people would be the constitutional remedy; but when powers are assumed which have not been delegated, a nullification of the act is the right remedy; and that every state has a natural right, in cases not within the compact, to nullify, of their own authority, all assumptions of power by others within their limits." The resolution authorized and instructed the Committee of Correspondence to call upon the "co-states," "to concur in declaring those acts void and of no force, and each to take measures of its own for providing that neither these acts, nor any other of the general government, not plainly and intentionally authorized by the Constitution, shall be exercised within their respective territories." The first resolution teaches the doctrine that the Constitution, instead of being a form of government, as it purports to be, is simply a compact or treaty; and, secondly, that the parties to it are not, as the Constitution itself expressly declares, "the people of the United States," but only the states as political corporations. The logical effect of this doctrine, practically, would be to destroy the Union, and relegate it to the barren desert of the Articles of Confederation, or anarchy under the name of government. These resolutions—the last two modified by Nicholas—passed the Kentucky Legislature (Nov. 14, 1798) with only two or three dissenting votes. These nullification doctrines were echoed by the Virginia Legislature (Dec. 24) in a series of resolutions drafted by Madison, and offered by John Taylor, of Caroline, who, a few months before, had suggested the idea of a separate confederacy, to be composed of Virginia and North Carolina. Madison's resolutions were more general in their terms, and allowed latitude in their interpretation. They were passed, after a warm debate, by a vote of one hundred to sixty-three in the House of Delegates, and fourteen to three in the Senate. They were sent to the other states, accompanied by an address, drawn, probably, by Madison, to which an answer was soon put forth, signed by fifty-eight of the minority. Neither the Senators nor Representatives in Congress from Kentucky ventured to lay the nullifying resolutions before their respective Houses; nor did the resolutions of Kentucky or Virginia find favor with the other legislatures. They served

as a basis of action by the Nullifiers of South Carolina (1832) and the Secessionists of 1860–61.

Resources and Payments of the National Government, from its origin, March 4, 1789, down to the close of the fiscal year (June 30) 1861, when the enormous expenses of the Civil War had begun, were as follows:

Customs revenue	\$1,575,152,579 92
Land, proceeds of sales of	175,817,961 00
Taxes and other receipts	95,305,322 56
Total ordinary revenue	1,846,275,863 48
Total ordinary expenditures	1,453,790,786 00
Total excess of revenue	392,485,077 48

By this statement it will be seen that by far the greater portion of all the expenses of the government during its existence from March 4, 1789, to June 30, 1861, including war expenses, purchase of territories, indemnity to Mexico, taxes, etc., were discharged by the customs revenues.

Responses to the President's Call for Troops (1861). The President's proclamation for troops, and the requisition of the Secretary of War, issued April 15, 1861, were received with universal favor and unbounded enthusiasm in the free-labor states, while in all the slave-labor states included in the call, excepting two, they were treated by the authorities with words of scorn and defiance. The exceptions were Delaware and Maryland. In the other states disloyal governors held the reins of power. "I have only to say," replied Governor Letcher, of Virginia, "that the militia of this state will not be furnished to the powers at Washington for any such use or purpose as they have in view. Your object is to subjugate the Southern States, and a requisition made upon me for such an object—in my judgment not within the province of the Constitution or the Act of 1795—will not be complied with. You have chosen to inaugurate civil war, and, having done so, we will meet it in a spirit as determined as the administration has exhibited towards the South." Governor Ellis, of North Carolina, answered: "Your despatch is received, and, if genuine—which its extraordinary character leads me to doubt—I have to say, in reply, that I regard the levy of troops made by the administration for the purpose of subjugating the states of the South as a violation of the Constitution and a usurpation of power. I can be no party to this wicked violation of the laws of my country and to this war upon the liberties of a free people. You can get no troops from North Carolina." Governor Magoffin, of Kentucky, replied: "Your despatch is received. I say, emphatically, that Kentucky will furnish no troops for the wicked purpose of subduing her sister Southern States." Governor Harris, of Tennessee, said: "Tennessee will not furnish a single man for coercion, but fifty thousand, if necessary, for the defence of our rights or those of our Southern brethren." Governor Rector, of Arkansas, replied: "In answer to your requisition for troops from Arkansas to subjugate the Southern States, I have to say that none will be furnished. The demand is only adding insult to injury. The people of this commonwealth are freemen, not slaves, and will defend, to the last extremity, their honor,

their lives, and their property against Northern mendacity and usurpation." Governor Jackson, of Missouri, responded: "There can be, I apprehend, no doubt that these men are intended to make war upon the seceded states. Your requisition, in my judgment, is illegal, unconstitutional, and revolutionary in its objects, inhuman and diabolical, and cannot be complied with. Not one man will the State of Missouri furnish to carry on such an unholy crusade." There is such a coincidence of language and sentiment in all these answers, that it seems evident that they were inspired by the head of the "Confederacy" at Montgomery. Governor Hicks, of Maryland, hastened to assure the people that no troops would be sent from that state unless it might be to defend the national capital, and told them that they would, in a short time, "have the opportunity afforded them, in a special election for members of the Congress of the United States, to express their devotion to the Union or their desire to see it broken up." Governor Burton, of Delaware, made no response until the 26th, when he informed the President that he had no authority to comply with his request; at the same time he recommended the formation of volunteer companies, not for the preservation of the Union, but for the protection of the citizens and property of the state. This would give the governor the control of a large body of militia, to be used as he might think best.

Responses to Washington's Farewell Address. The respect and reverence of the great mass of the people for Washington was not diminished by the violent party zeal manifested against him. Nearly all the State Legislatures, when they met, expressed the confidence and affection of the people, and several of them ordered his Address to be placed at length on their journals. Nearly all, including Virginia, passed resolutions unanimously expressing their respect for the President's person, their high sense of his exalted services, and their regret at his approaching retirement from office.

Restraining Acts. Alarmed by the proceedings of the Continental Congress, late in 1774, and the movements in New England, the British ministry, early in 1775, took vigorous measures to assert its power in coercing the English-American colonies into submission. Lord North, the premier, introduced into Parliament a bill to restrain the trade and commerce of the New England provinces to Great Britain, Ireland, and the British West Indies, and to prohibit them from carrying on any fishery on the banks of Newfoundland and other places, under certain conditions and for a limited time. The bill was adopted by a large majority. Soon afterwards, on being assured that the rest of the colonies upheld the New-Englanders in their rebellious proceedings, a second bill was passed, similar to the first, for restraining all the other provinces, excepting three, in their trade and commerce. The three exempted colonies, regarding the exception as a bribe to induce them to oppose the measures of the other colonies, spurned the prof-

fered favor, and submitted to the restraints imposed upon their neighbors. The excepted colonies were New York, Delaware, and North Carolina. The ministers were disappointed in their calculations on the moderation of New York, for at that time its Assembly were preparing to assert the rights of the colony in the matter of taxation.

Resumption of Specie Payments (1879). On Jan. 7, 1875, Congress passed a bill fixing the time for the government and banks of the United States to resume specie payment at Jan. 1, 1879. The resumption took place on that day with great ease, the United States Treasury and the banks of the country generally receiving more gold on deposit than they paid out for circulation. With that resumption began a rapid improvement in the business affairs of the country. It marked the end of the commercial depression consequent upon the revulsion and panic of 1873. The prophecies of evil to the country made by unwise men utterly failed of fulfillment.

Resumption, PREPARING FOR. Late in July, 1876, Congress passed an act as an initial step towards the resumption of specie payments, authorizing the issue from the United States Mint of \$10,000,000 of silver coin, to take the place of the same amount of fractional paper-currency. The consequence was, that within a year nearly every vestige of the fractional paper-currency disappeared from circulation, and silver coin became exceedingly plentiful.

Retaliation and L'Insurgente. Lieutenant Bainbridge, in the *Retaliation*, was cruising off Guadeloupe, W. I., late in 1798, when he fell in with a French squadron, which he took to be British vessels. When he discovered his mistake it was too late to avoid trouble, and two French frigates (*Volontaire* and *L'Insurgente*) attacked and captured the *Retaliation*. The *Insurgente* was one of the swiftest vessels on the ocean. She immediately made chase after two American ships. Bainbridge was a prisoner on the *Volontaire*. "What are the armaments of the two vessels?" asked the French commander, as he and Bainbridge were watching the *Insurgente* gaining on the Americans. He quickly replied, "Twenty-eight 12's and twenty 9's." This was double the force, and startled the commander, who was senior captain of the *Insurgente*. He immediately signalled his vessel to give up the chase, and the Americans escaped. Bainbridge's deceptive reply cost him only a few curses. The *Retaliation* was the first vessel captured during the war.

Retreat from Long Island (1776). During the passing events of the battle on Long Island (which see), Washington did not sleep for forty-eight hours. When it was ended, Howe, instead of instantly attacking the American camp at Brooklyn, into which the fugitives had gathered, prepared for a regular siege. He might easily have captured the American army and its munitions of war on the morning of the 28th. The attempt was not made. Rain fell copiously. General Mifflin came with a thousand troops

for Washington from the north end of Manhattan Island, but even with these the Americans were too weak to cope with the British, and Washington determined to attempt a retreat. Boats were procured from various points, and in these, managed by General Glover's brigade of Massachusetts fishermen, the American army crossed the East River, in detachments, on the night of Aug. 29-30, shrouded in a dense fog. The movement was unsuspected by the British leaders on land and water until it was too late to pursue. A Tory woman living near the ferry sent her negro servant to inform the British of the retreat. He encountered a German sentinel, who could not understand a word he said, and would not let him pass. Before six o'clock (Aug. 30, 1776) nine thousand American soldiers, with their baggage and munitions of war, excepting some heavy artillery, had crossed the East River from Long Island to Manhattan, or New York, Island. When Howe perceived this, he "swore a big oath," took possession of the deserted camp, moved his army eastward, its advance being at Flushing, and prepared to seize the city of New York with the American troops in it.

Retrocession of Louisiana to France.

While the negotiations of the Treaty of Amiens, in 1802, were in progress, a rumor went abroad that Spain, by secret treaty, had retroceded, or would retrocede, to France all of Louisiana in her possession, and possibly Florida, and thus give to that now rising, ambitious, and aggressive power the entire control of the navigation of the Mississippi River. This rumor gave the government and people of the United States much uneasiness, for France might, by this possession, exercise more influence over the political affairs of the Republic than ever before. The American ministers in London, Paris, and Madrid were to endeavor to defeat the measure. It was too late. The act of cession was accompanied by a secret treaty, and led to the purchase of Louisiana from France soon afterwards. Jefferson at once perceived the necessity of such a purchase, because of the danger to be feared from the occupation by the French of the mouths of the Mississippi. "There is on the globe," he said, "one single spot, the possessor of which is our natural and habitual enemy. It is New Orleans—through which the produce of three eighths of our territory must pass to market; and by its fertility, it [the valley of the Mississippi] will, ere long, yield more than half of our whole produce, and contain more than half of our inhabitants. France, placing herself in that door, assumes to us the attitude of defiance."

Revenue Officers Extraordinary. In 1764 the increase of smuggling had become so prejudicial to the British revenue that the government made a regulation requiring the commanders of vessels stationed on the coasts of England, and even those ships destined for the English-American colonies, to perform the functions of revenue officers, and to conform themselves to the rules established for the protection of the customs. The oppressions practised under this law called forth loud complaints in all

the colonies. In the execution of it naval commanders seized and confiscated the cargoes prohibited and those that were not, indiscriminately. The law soon destroyed a lucrative and honest commerce between the English, Spanish, and French colonies. When the English colonies felt the disastrous effects of the law, they resolved not to purchase, in future, any English stuffs with which they had been accustomed to clothe themselves, and, as far as possible, to use only domestic manufactures. So faithfully was this resolution adhered to in Boston that the consumption of British merchandise was diminished, in the year 1764, more than \$50,000.

Revenue System. The all-important subject of a public revenue to replenish the empty treasury of the United States was acted upon by the First Congress, before the inauguration of Washington. On April 8, 1789, Mr. Madison offered a resolution for laying specific duties on imported rum and other spirituous liquors, wines, tea, coffee, sugar, molasses, and pepper, the amount being left blank; and imposing *ad valorem* duties on all other articles imported, and a tonnage duty on all vessels, with a discrimination in favor of all vessels owned wholly in the United States, and an additional discrimination between foreign vessels, favorable to those countries having commercial treaties with the United States. The debates on this question revealed much information concerning the industries of the Americans; and the tariff which grew out of it still lies at the bottom of our existing revenue system. At that time, however, the idea of levying duties for the protection of American industry was not put forth; it was simply for revenue. The question of the ability of the United States to coerce foreign nations by means of commercial restrictions, as in the case of non-importation agreements (which see), before the Revolution, was earnestly discussed at this time.

Revenue to the Crown in Virginia. In March, 1662, the royalist Legislature of Virginia, for the purpose of giving a liberal salary to the king's officers, established a perpetual revenue by a permanent impost on all exported tobacco, and so these officers were made independent of the Legislature of the colony for their pay. They depended on the colony neither for their appointment nor their salary, and the country was governed by obsequious creatures of the crown.

Revere, PAUL, a leading patriot in the war for independence, was born in Boston, Jan. 1, 1735; died there, May 10, 1818. He was descended from the Huguenots, and was educated in his father's trade of goldsmith. In the French and Indian War he was at Fort Edward, on the Upper Hudson, as a lieutenant of artillery (1756), and on his return he established himself as a goldsmith, and, without instruction, became a copper-plate engraver. He was one of four engravers in America when the Revolutionary War broke out. He had engraved, in 1766, a print emblematic of the repeal of the Stamp Act, and in 1767, another called "The Seventeen

Rescindere." (See *Rescindere*.) He published a print of the Boston Massacre, in 1770, and from that time he became one of the most active opponents of the acts of Parliament. Revere engraved the plates, made the press, and printed the bills of credit, or paper-money, of Massachusetts, issued in 1775; he also engraved the plates for the "Continental money." He had been sent by the Sons of Liberty, of Boston, to confer with their brethren in New York and Philadelphia. Early in 1775 the Provincial Congress sent him to Philadelphia to learn the art of making powder, and on his return he set up a mill. The President of the Congress (Joseph Warren) chose Revere as one of his trusted messengers to warn the people of Lexington and Concord of the expedition sent thither by Gage (April 18, 1775), and to tell Adams and Hancock of their danger. (See *Adams and Hancock*.) He was made a prisoner while on his way from Lexington towards Concord, but was soon released. He served in the military corps for the defence of his state, and after the war he cast church-bells and cannons; and he founded the copper-works at Canton, Mass., now carried on by the Revere Copper Company.

Revocation of British "Orders" and French "Decrees" sought. In March, 1810, information reached the President that the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, in a letter to Minister Armstrong, had said that if England would revoke her blockade against France, the latter would revoke her Berlin Decree (which see). Minister Pinkney, in London, approached the British minister on the subject, and, to aid in the peaceful negotiations, Congress repealed the non-intercourse and non-importation laws on May 1, 1810. For these they substituted a law excluding both British and French armed vessels from the waters of the United States. The law provided that, in case either Great Britain or France should revoke or so modify their acts before the 3d of March, 1811, as not to violate the neutral commerce of the United States, and if the other nation should not, within three months thereafter, in like manner revoke or modify its edicts, the provisions of the non-intercourse and non-importation acts should, at the expiration of the three months, be revived against the nation so neglecting or refusing to comply. The French minister thereupon, on the 5th of August following, officially declared that the Berlin and Milan decrees had been revoked, and would be inoperative after Nov. 1, it being understood that, in consequence of that revocation, the English should revoke the Orders in Council. Having faith in these declarations, the President issued a proclamation on Nov. 2, announcing this revocation of the French decrees and declaring the discontinuance, on the part of the United States, of all commercial restrictions in relation to France. But the French were playing false, and England suspected it, for she had many reasons for doubting Gallie faith. So had the Americans, but still they were willing to trust France once again. They were deceived; the decrees were not revoked, and a later one, issued at Rambouillet, was only sus-

pended. The English refused to rescind on the faith of only a letter by the French minister; and this attempt on the part of Americans to secure peace and justice was futile.

Revocation of the Orders in Council. The British Orders in Council, issued in 1807 and 1810, to meet the effects of the French decrees (Berlin and Milan, which see), had remained in force, and bore heavily upon American commerce until after the declaration of war in 1812. Joel Barlow, who had been appointed American ambassador to France in 1811, had urged the French government to revoke the decrees as to the Americans. This was done (April 28, 1811), and a decree was issued directing that, in consideration of the resistance of the United States to the Orders in Council, the Berlin and Milan decrees were to be considered as not having existed, as to American vessels, since Nov. 1, 1810. Barlow forwarded this decree to Russell, American minister at the British court. It arrived there just in time to second the efforts of the British manufacturers, who were pressing the government for a revocation of the Orders in Council. A new ministry, lately seated, being in danger of a desertion of a portion of their supporters, yielded, and on June 23, 1812, they revoked the orders of 1807 and 1810, with a proviso, however, for their renewal in case the United States government, after due notice, should still persist in its non-importation and other hostile acts. Efforts were immediately made by both governments for a settlement of existing difficulties, but failed. The British minister (Lord Castlereagh) declined to make any stipulation, formal or informal, concerning impressments. The war finally proceeded on the matter of impressments alone.

Revolt in the City of Mexico (1520). Cortez departed from the city of Mexico to oppose Narvaez (which see), leaving one hundred and forty Spanish soldiers and the Tlascalalan allies, under Alvarado, to hold the city. The latter, fearing an attack from the Mexicans, determined to strike them with terror. While the Mexicans were dancing at a festival in honor of their gods, Alvarado and his soldiers fell upon them and a sharp battle ensued. Cortez returned, when his baughty deportment towards the royal captive and his people so irritated the Mexicans that they attacked the Spaniards in their quarters and in the street. The next morning the whole Spanish force marched out and were met by a multitude of Mexicans; the former were beaten back to their quarters (June, 1520), after a desperate battle. Again the Spaniards sallied out, and fought their way to the summit of a teocalli temple, where an engagement ensued which lasted three hours, and forty-six Spaniards were left dead on the spot. Cortez managed to set the temple on fire. The hostility of the Mexicans was now fiercer than ever, and when, at the bidding of Cortez, Montezuma attempted, by words, to appease them, they assailed him with arrows and other missiles, from which he was protected by the Spanish shields. At length he was hit, and died a

few days afterwards. Alarmed by the intensity of the revolt, the Spaniards fled from the city in the night, pursued by the enraged Mexicans, with whom they and their allies fought a desperate battle near the confines of Tlascalala. The Spaniards there obtained a decisive victory. Unexpectedly receiving supplies of arms and men, Cortez marched back towards the city of Mexico and took possession (Dec. 31, 1520) of Tezcuco, the next largest city in the empire. There he prepared for a final conquest of Mexico.

Revolt of New Jersey Troops. On the 18th of January, 1781, a portion of the New Jersey line, stationed at Pompton, followed the example of the Pennsylvanians, at Morristown, in refusing to serve longer unless their reasonable demands on Congress were attended to. Washington, fearing the revolt, if so mildly dealt with as it had been by Wayne, would become fatally infectious and cause the army to melt away, took harsher measures to suppress it. He sent General Robert Howe, with five hundred men, to restore order at Pompton. They surrounded the camp and compelled the troops to parade without arms. Two of the ringleaders were tried, condemned, and immediately executed, when the remainder quietly submitted. These events had a salutary effect, for they aroused the Congress and the people to the necessity of more efficient measures for the support of the army, their only reliance in the struggle. Taxes were more cheerfully paid; sectional jealousies were quelled; a special agent (John Laurens) sent abroad to obtain loans was quite successful, and a national bank was established in Philadelphia and put in charge of Robert Morris, the Superintendent of the Treasury.

Revolt of the Pennsylvania Line (1781). As the year 1780 drew to a close there were warm disputes in the Pennsylvania regiments as to the terms on which the men had been enlisted. The officers maintained that at least a quarter part of the soldiers had enlisted for three years and the war. This seems to have been the fact; but the soldiers, distressed and disgusted for want of pay and clothing, and seeing the large bounties paid to those who re-enlisted, declared that the enlistment was for three years or the war. As the three years had now expired, they demanded their discharges. It was refused, and on Jan. 1, 1781, the whole line, thirteen hundred in number, broke out into open revolt. An officer attempting to restrain them was killed and several others were wounded. Under the leadership of a board of sergeants the men marched towards Princeton, with the avowed purpose of going to Philadelphia to demand of the Congress a fulfilment of their many promises. General Wayne was in command of these troops, and was much beloved by them. By threats and persuasions he tried to bring them back to duty until their real grievances should be redressed. They would not listen to him; and when he cocked his pistol, in a menacing manner, they presented their bayonets to his breast, saying, "We respect and love you; you have often led us into the field of battle; but we are

no longer under your command; we warn you to be on your guard; if you fire your pistol, or attempt to enforce your commands, we shall put you instantly to death." Wayne appealed to their patriotism; they pointed to the broken promises of the Congress. He reminded them of the strength their conduct would give to the enemy; they pointed to their tattered garments and emaciated forms. They avowed their willingness to support the cause of independence—for freedom was dear to their hearts—if adequate provision could be made for their comfort; and they boldly reiterated their determination to march to Philadelphia, at all hazards, to demand from Congress a redress of their grievances. Finding he could not move them, Wayne determined to accompany them to Philadelphia. At Princeton they presented the general with a written list of their demands. These demands appeared so reasonable that he had them laid before Congress. That body appointed a committee to confer with the insurgents. The result was a compliance with their demands, and the disbanding of a large part of the Pennsylvania line, whose places were filled by new recruits. (See *Patriotism of Mutinous Soldiers.*)

Revolution in Boston (1688). Before the news of the revolution in England which placed William and Mary on the throne had arrived at Boston, a daring one was effected in New England. The colonists had borne the tyranny of Andros about three years. Their patience was now exhausted. A rumor was started that the governor's guards were about to massacre some of the leading people of Boston. The people flew to arms, and on the 18th of April, when the rumor had gone out of the town, the people flocked in with guns and other weapons to the assistance of their brethren. They did not wait for the governor's troops to move, but instantly seized Andros, such of his council as had been most active in oppressing them, with other prisoners to the number of about fifty, confined them, and reinstated the old magistrates. The rumor of the massacre found readier belief because of a military order which was given out on the reception of the declaration of the Prince of Orange in England. The order charged all officers and people to be in readiness to hinder the landing of the troops which the prince might send to New England. The people first imprisoned Captain George, of the *Rose* frigate, and some hours afterwards Sir Edmund Andros was taken at the fort on Fort Hill, around which 1500 people had assembled. The people took the castle on Castle Island the next day. The sails of the frigate were brought on shore. A Council of Safety was chosen, with Simon Bradstreet as president, and on May 2 the council recommended that an assembly composed of delegations from the several towns in the colony should meet on the 9th of the same month. Sixty-six persons met, and having confirmed the new government, another convention of representatives was called to meet in Boston on the 22d. On that day fifty-four towns were represented, when it was determined "to resume the government according to charter rights." The governor

(Bradstreet) and magistrates chosen in 1686 resumed the government (May 24, 1688) under the old charter, and on the 29th King William and Queen Mary were proclaimed in Boston with great ceremony. (See *English Revolution, The*, and *Andros, Sir Edmund*.)

Revolution in Maryland. In 1684 Lord Baltimore went to England, leaving the Province of Maryland under the nominal government of his infant son, administered by several deputies. He acquiesced in the result of the revolution in England in 1688 which placed William and Mary on the throne, but because of his tardiness in proclaiming them in his province a restless spirit named Coode, a man of low morals and blasphemous in speech, excited the people by the cry of "A Popish Plot!" He started a report that the local magistrates in Maryland and the Roman Catholics had leagued with the Indians for the destruction of the Protestants. The old feud burned intensely. The Protestants formed an armed association. Led by Coode, they marched to St. Mary, in May, took possession of the records, and assumed the functions of a provisional government in 1689. In August they met in convention and sent to the new sovereigns absurd charges against Lord Baltimore, requesting them to depose him by making Maryland a royal province, and taking it under the protection of the crown. The sovereigns complied with the request of the convention, and Coode was commanded to administer the government in the name of the king. He ruled with the spirit of a petty tyrant, and so disgusted the whole people that in 1692 he was displaced by Sir Lionel Copley. The new governor abolished religious toleration and established the order of the Church of England as the supreme religious establishment of the colony, to be supported by a tax on the whole colony. This was the first Church establishment in Maryland sustained by law and fed by general taxation. Lord Baltimore never recovered his proprietary rights. They were restored to a young scion of his house in 1715.

Revolution Organized in Washington (1860-61). The harmony of action in the seceded states which first adopted ordinances of secession seemed marvellous. It was explained in a communication published in the *National Intelligencer*, written by a "distinguished citizen of the South, who formerly represented his state in the popular branch of Congress," and was then temporarily residing in Washington. He said a caucus of the senators of seven cotton-producing states (naming them) had been held on the preceding Saturday night, in that city, at which it was resolved, in effect, to assume to themselves political power at the South, and to control all political and military operations for the time; that they telegraphed directions to complete the seizures of forts, arsenals, custom-houses, and all other public property, and advised conventions then in session, or soon to assemble, to pass ordinances for immediate secession. They agreed that it would be proper for the representatives of "seceded states" to re-

main in Congress, in order to prevent the adoption of measures by the national government for its own security. They also advised, ordered, or directed the assembling of a convention at Montgomery, Ala., on Feb. 15. "This can," said the writer, "of course, only be done by the revolutionary conventions usurping the power of the people, and sending delegates over whom they will lose all control in the establishment of a provisional government, which is the plan of the dictators." This was actually done within thirty days afterwards. They resolved, he said, to use every means in their power to force the legislatures of Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Arkansas, Texas, Virginia, and Maryland into the adoption of revolutionary measures. They had already possessed themselves of the telegraph, the press, and wide control of the postmasters in the South; and they relied upon a general defection of the Southern-born members of the army and navy. "The spectacle here presented," said the writer, "is startling to contemplate. Senators, intrusted with the representative sovereignty of states, and sworn to support the Constitution of the United States, while yet acting as the privy-councillors of the President, and anxiously looked to by their constituents to effect some practical plan of adjustment, deliberately conceive a conspiracy for the overthrow of the government through the military organizations, the dangerous secret order of the Knights of the Golden Circle [which see], committees of safety, Southern leagues, and other agencies at their command. They have instituted as thorough a military and civil despotism as ever cursed a maddened country." The senators engaged in this revolutionary scheme, it was asserted, were Benjamin Fitzpatrick and Clement C. Clay, Jr., of Alabama; R. W. Johnson and William K. Sebastian, of Arkansas; Robert Toombs and Alfred Iverson, of Georgia; Judah P. Benjamin and John Slidell, of Louisiana; Jefferson Davis and Albert G. Brown, of Mississippi; John Hemphill and Louis T. Wigfall, of Texas, and David L. Yulee and Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida. On the morning after the caucus a telegraphic report, confirmatory of the above communication, was sent to the *Charleston Mercury*, and published in that journal Jan. 7, 1861. A committee consisting of Davis, Slidell, and Mallory were appointed to carry out the scheme approved by the caucus. A part of the plan was "to make Senator Hunter, of Virginia, provisional president of the projected Confederacy, and Jefferson Davis commander-in-chief of the army of defence."

Reynolds, JOHN FULTON, was born at Lancaster, Penn., in 1820; killed at Gettysburg, July 1, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1841; served in the war against Mexico, and against the Indians in Oregon in 1856. In May, 1861, he was lieutenant-colonel of volunteers, and was made brigadier-general in August. He was active in western Virginia during the summer and autumn, and in the Peninsular campaign of 1862. Made prisoner at Glendale (which see), he was soon released, and was in command of the First Army Corps in the battle of Fredericksburg, hav-

ing been made major-general of volunteers in November, 1862. With 8000 men, comprising the right wing of Meade's army, he brought on the battle of Gettysburg and was slain.

Reynolds, JOSEPH JONES, was born in Kentucky, and graduated at West Point in 1843, where he was assistant professor from 1846 to 1855. He entered the service in the Civil War as colonel of Indiana volunteers, and was made a brigadier-general in May, 1861. He was at first active in western Virginia, and then in the Army of the Cumberland, 1862-63. He was Rosecrans's chief-of-staff in the battle of Chickamauga, and in the summer of 1864 commanded the Nineteenth Corps, and organized a force for the capture of forts Morgan and Gaines, near Mobile. Late in 1864 he was placed in command of the Department of Arkansas, where he remained until April, 1866. In March, 1867, he was breveted major-general in the United States army, and in December, 1870, was transferred to the Third Cavalry.

Rhett, ROBERT BARNWELL, was born at Beaufort, S. C., Dec. 24, 1800. He was a son of James and Mariana Smith. He adopted the name of Rhett in 1837. Receiving a liberal education, he chose the law as a profession. In 1826 he was a member of the South Carolina Legislature, and was attorney-general of the state in 1832, acting at that time with the most ultra wing of the Nullification or State Supremacy party. From 1838 to 1849 he was a member of Congress, and United States Senator in 1850-51. It is said that he was the first man who advocated on the floor of Congress the dissolution of the Union. Rhett took a leading part in the secession movements in 1860-61, and was chairman of the committee in the convention at Montgomery by whom the constitution of "The Confederate States of America" was reported. He owned the *Charleston Mercury*, of which his son was the editor. He died in 1876.

Rhett's Prophecy. Robert Barnwell Rhett, who has been called the "Father of South Carolina Secession," was a most vehement speaker in favor of disunion in 1860. His son was the editor of the organ of the disunionists—the *Charleston Mercury*. He led the radical politicians of his state. In a speech in Institute Hall, Charleston (Nov. 12, 1860), he declared that the Union was already dissolved, and that the sovereign State of South Carolina would thereafter enjoy peace and prosperity. Alluding to the people of the North, he said: "Swollen with insolence and steeped in ignorance, selfishness, and fanaticism, they will never understand their dependence on the South until the Union is dissolved and they are left, naked, to their own resources. Then, and not till then, will they realize what a blessing the Almighty conferred upon them when he placed them in union with the South; and they will curse, in the bitterness of penitence and suffering, the dark day on which they compelled us to dissolve it with them. Upon a dissolution of the Union, their whole system of commerce and manufactures will be paralyzed or overthrown; their

banks will suspend specie payments; their real estate and stocks will fall in price, and confusion and distress will pervade the North. Bread processions will walk the streets of the great cities; mobs will break into their palaces, and society will then be resolved into its original chaos." He said there would be great difficulty in limiting the Southern Confederacy, so eager would many of the free-labor states be to join it. Such was the vision and the prophecy of a leading statesman of South Carolina, on whom the people leaned for wisdom.

Rhode Island an Independent Republic. On May 4, 1776, the Legislature of Rhode Island passed an act releasing the inhabitants of that colony from allegiance to Great Britain. It was carried in the Upper House by unanimous vote, and in the House of Deputies with only six dissenting voices out of sixty. This act was tantamount to a declaration of independence and the establishment of a self-constituted republic.

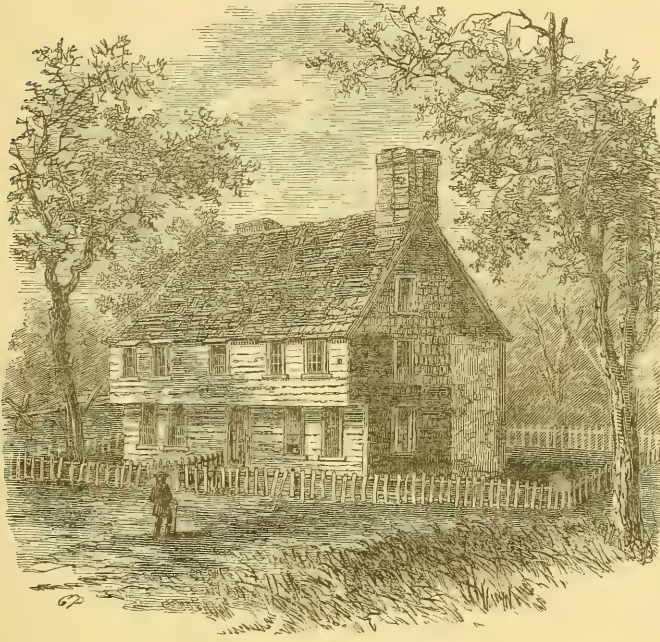
Rhode Island, COLONY OF, one of the original thirteen states of the Union, is supposed to have been the theatre of the attempt to plant a settlement in America by the Northmen at the beginning of the eleventh century. (See *Northmen in America*.) It is believed to be the "Vineland" mentioned by them. It is supposed that Verazani entered Narraganset Bay, and had an interview with the natives there in 1524. Block, the Dutch navigator, explored it in 1614 (see *New York, Colony of*), and the Dutch traders afterwards, seeing the marshy estuaries red with cranberries, called it Roode Eylandt—"red island," corrupted to Rhode Island. The Dutch carried on a profitable fur-trade with the Indians there, and even as far east as Buzzard's Bay, and they claimed a monopoly of the traffic to the latter point. The Pilgrims at Plymouth became annoyed by the New-Netherlanders when they claimed jurisdiction as far east as Narraganset Bay, and westward from a line of longitude from that bay to Canada. (See *Dutch, The, at New Plymouth*.) That claim was made at about the time when Roger Williams, a Welsh Puritan minister, who was educated in England and was pastor of a church at Salem, in New England, was banished from the colony of Massachusetts, fled to the head of Narraganset Bay, and there, with a few followers, planted the seed of the commonwealth of Rhode Island in 1636. (See *Williams, Roger*.) The spot where Williams began a settlement he called Providence, in acknowledgment of the goodness of God towards him. The government he there established was a pure democracy, and in accordance with his tolerant views of the rights of conscience. Every settler then and afterwards was required to sign an agreement to give active or passive obedience to all ordinances that should be made by a majority of the inhabitants—heads of families—for the public good. For some time the government was administered by means of town-meetings. In 1638 William Coddington and others, driven from Massachusetts by persecution, bought of the Indians the island of Aquiday or Aquitneck (Rhode Island), and made settlements

on the site of Newport and Portsmouth. A third settlement was formed at Warwick, on the mainland, in 1643, by a party of whom John Greene and Samuel Gorton were leaders. The same year Williams went to England, and in 1644 brought back a charter which united the settlements at Providence and on Rhode Island under one government, called the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. Then the commonwealth of Rhode Island was established, though the new

England Confederacy (1643–1686), but it always bore a share of the burden of defending the New England provinces. (See *New England Confederacy*.) Its history is identified with that of New England in general from the commencement of King William's War, for that colony took an active part in the struggle between Great Britain and France for empire in America, furnishing troops and seamen. The colony had fifty privateer vessels at sea in 1756, manned by

1500 seamen, which cruised along the American shores and among the West India Islands. The people of Rhode Island were conspicuous for their patriotism in the stirring events preliminary to the breaking-out of the old war for independence, and were very active during that war. The first commander-in-chief of the Continental Navy was a native of Rhode Island (Esek Hopkins), and the first naval squadron sent against the enemy at the beginning of the Revolution sailed from Providence. Rhode Island assumed the functions of an independent state under the charter given by Charles II.

Rhode Island, FIRST GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF, consisting of the collective freemen of the several plantations of the colony, met at Portsmouth May 19, 1646, established a code of laws,



RESIDENCE OF GOVERNOR CODDINGTON.

government did not go into operation until 1647, when the first General Assembly, composed of the collective freemen of the several plantations, met at Portsmouth (May 19) and established a code of laws for carrying on civil government. The legislative power was vested in a court of commissioners consisting of six persons chosen by each of the four towns—Providence, Newport, Portsmouth, and Warwick. The charter was confirmed by Cromwell (1655), and a new one was obtained from Charles II. (1663), under which the commonwealth of Rhode Island was governed one hundred and eighty years. In the war with King Philip (1676) the inhabitants of Rhode Island suffered fearfully. Towns and farm-houses were burned and the people murdered. Providence was laid in ashes. The decisive battle that ended the war was fought on Rhode Island soil. (See *King Philip's War*.) When Sir Edmund Andros, made governor of New England (see *Andros, Sir Edmund*), was instructed to take away the colonial charters (1687), he seized that of Rhode Island, but it was returned on the accession of William and Mary (1689), and the people readopted the seal—an anchor for a device and “Hope” for a motto. Rhode Island was excluded from the New

and erected an institution of civil government. The legislative power was vested in a court of commissioners consisting of six persons chosen by each of the four towns of Providence, Portsmouth, Newport, and Warwick. The acts were to be in force unless repealed by a vote of a majority of the freemen of the colony, to be collected at their several town-meetings appointed for the purpose. The executive power was vested in a president and four assistants, chosen from the freemen by their several towns, and constituting the Supreme Court for the administration of justice. Every township forming within itself a corporation, elected a council of six for the management of its peculiar affairs, and the Town Court had the trial of small cases subject to an appeal to the court of the president and associates. (See *Rhode Island, Colony of*.)

Rhode Island, INDEPENDENCE PROCLAIMED IN. The Declaration of Independence was announced successively at Newport, East Greenwich, and Providence. At the latter place it was read to the assembled people from the balcony of a tavern, and was greeted with loud huzzas for “free trade with all the world, American manufactures, and the diffusion of liberty o’er and o’er the globe!”

Rhode Island Loyalists Suppressed. The exposed condition of Rhode Island and the presence of a British squadron in Narraganset Bay encouraged the active loyalists of that province and made the timid passive, and the authorities there were constrained to take vigorous measures to suppress the Tories. General Charles Lee was sent to Newport to confer with the Legislature about casting up fortifications there. He called before him the chief persons of the disaffected inhabitants, and compelled them to take "a tremendous oath" to support the authority of Congress. Soon afterwards the Assembly passed an act (Nov. 6, 1775) subjecting to death and confiscation of property all who should hold communication with or assist the British ships. A stated supply, however, had to be allowed these vessels to insure Newport from destruction.

Rhode Island Plantations Founded. In 1638 John Clark and others, of Boston, went to Providence in search of an asylum where they might find liberty of conscience. By the advice of Roger Williams they purchased the island on the east side of Narraganset Bay of the Indians, and soon afterwards the Indians agreed to move on receiving ten coats and twenty hoes. The adventurers (eighteen in number) incorporated themselves into a body politic (March 7), and chose William Coddington to be their chief magistrate. (See *Rhode Island, Colony of.*)

Rhode Island Slaves in the Army. Early in 1778 there was an urgent call for drafts from the militia of each state. General Varnum, of Rhode Island, proposed the emancipation of the able-bodied slaves there on condition of their enlisting in the army for the war. Washington approved the scheme, and it was adopted. Every able-bodied slave in Rhode Island received by law liberty to enlist. On passing muster he became free, and was entitled to all the wages and encouragements given by Congress to any soldier. The state made some compensation to their masters.

Rhode Island, STATE OF. When the various colonies were forming new state constitutions (1776-79), Rhode Island went forward in its independent course under its old charter from Charles II.; and it was the last of the thirteen states to ratify the national Constitution, its assent not being given until May 29, 1790, or more than a year after the national government went into operation. Under the charter of Charles II. the lower house of the Legislature consisted of six deputies from Newport, four each from Providence, Portsmouth, and Warwick, and two from each of the other towns. The right of suffrage was restricted to owners of a freehold worth \$134, or renting for \$7 a year, and to their eldest sons. These restrictions, as they became more and more obnoxious, finally produced open discontent. The inequality of representation was the chief cause of complaint. It appeared that in 1840, when Newport had only 8333 inhabitants, it was entitled to six representatives; while Providence, then containing 23,171 inhabitants, had only

four representatives. Attempts to obtain reform by the action of the Legislature having failed, "suffrage associations" were formed in various parts of the state late in 1840 and early in 1841. They assembled in mass convention at Providence July 5, 1841, and authorized their state committee to call a convention to frame a constitution. That convention assembled at Providence Oct. 4, and framed a constitution.



STATE SEAL OF RHODE ISLAND.

which was submitted to the people Dec. 27, 28, and 29, when it was claimed that a vote equal to a majority of the adult male citizens of the state was given for its adoption. It was also claimed that a majority of those entitled to vote under the charter had voted in favor of the constitution. Under this constitution state officers were chosen April 18, 1842, with Thomas W. Dorr as governor. The new government attempted to organize at Providence on May 3. They were resisted by what was called the legal state government, chosen under the charter, at the head of which was Governor Samuel W. King. On the 18th a portion of the "Suffrage party" assembled under arms at Providence and attempted to seize the arsenal, but retired on the approach of Governor King with a military force. On June 25 they again assembled, several hundred strong, at Chepachet, ten miles from Providence, but they again dispersed on the approach of state troops. Governor Dorr was arrested, tried for high-treason, convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but was released in 1847, under a general act of amnesty. (See *Dorr, Thomas W.*) Meanwhile the Legislature (Feb. 6, 1841) called a convention to frame a new constitution. In February, 1842, the convention agreed upon a constitution, which was submitted to the people in March and rejected. Another constitution was framed by another convention, which was ratified by the people almost unanimously, and went into effect in May, 1843. In 1861 a controversy between Rhode Island and Massachusetts about boundary, which began in colonial times, was settled by mutual concessions, the former ceding to the latter that portion of the township of Tiverton containing the village of Fall River in exchange for the town of Pawtucket and a part of Seekonk, now known as East Providence. Rhode Island was among the earliest of the states to respond to the President's call for troops (which see), and during the Civil

War that little state, with a population of only 175,000, furnished to the national army 23,711 soldiers. Population in 1890, 345,506.

Rhode Island, THE BRITISH TAKE POSSESSION OF. On Dec. 26, 1776, the squadron of Sir Peter Parker, bearing between eight and ten thousand men, British and Hessians, commanded by General Clinton and Earl Percy, entered Narraganset Bay. The troops landed and took possession of the island of Rhode Island. Two American frigates and some privateers, in the harbor of Newport, fled up the bay to Providence, whence they escaped to sea, eluding the vigilance of the blockading squadron. The British soldiers were billeted on the inhabitants, and a system of general plunder of the people was organized. This was an important acquisition for the British.

Ribault, JEAN, was born at Dieppe, France, and died in Florida in 1565. He first appears in history as commander of Coligni's expedition to America in 1562. Returning for supplies, he was detained by civil war until the spring of 1565, when Coligni sent him with five ships to Florida, where he succeeded Landonnière as commander-in-chief. He had just arrived, when five Spanish vessels appeared, under Don Pedro Menendez de Aviles, whose name and object were demanded. "I am Menendez," he said, and declared he was sent to destroy all Protestants he could find. Ribault had been advised of the expedition of Menendez before his departure from France. Just as he was departing from Dieppe he was handed a letter from Coligni, in which the admiral had written a postscript, saying, "While closing this letter I have received certain advice that Don Pedro Menendez is about to depart from Spain to the coast of Florida. You will take care not to suffer him to encroach upon us, any more than he would that we should encroach upon him." The cables of the French fleet were instantly cut, and they went to sea, followed by the Spanish squadron, which, failing to overtake the fugitives, returned to the shore farther south. Ribault returned to the St. John, when, contrary to the advice of Laudonnière, he determined to try to drive the Spaniards away from the coast. When he reached the open sea he was struck by a fierce tempest that wrecked his vessels not far from Cape Canaveral, on the central coast of Florida. With his 150 men, Ribault started by land for Fort Carolina (built on the St. John by the Frenchmen), ignorant of the fact that its garrison had been destroyed. Ribault divided his force of full 500 men, about 200 of them taking the advance in the march, the remainder, with Ribault, following soon afterwards. The latter were betrayed by a sailor, and fell into the hands of Menendez, who put them all to death excepting a dozen who professed to be Roman Catholics. (See *Huguenots in America*.)

Ribault's Followers, MASSACRE OF. Ribault (which see) was wrecked on the coast of Florida, intelligence of which event was carried by Indians to Menendez. The latter sought the

Frenchmen with fifty soldiers. Ribault had divided his force. Menendez found one party, told them who he was, and that Fort Carolina, which they were seeking, was destroyed, with the inmates. They pleaded for mercy. He asked, "Are you Catholics or Lutherans?" They answered, "We are all of the reformed religion." He told them he was ordered to exterminate all of that faith. They offered him fifty thousand ducats if he would spare their lives. "Give up your arms and place yourselves under my mercy," he said. A small stream divided the Frenchmen from the Spaniards. Menendez ordered the former to be brought over in companies of ten. Out of sight of their companions left behind, they were bound with their hands behind them. When all were gathered in this plight they were marched to a spot a short distance off, when they were again asked, "Are you Catholics or Lutherans?" A dozen who professed to be Catholics, and four others who were mechanics, useful to the Spaniards, were led aside. The remainder, helpless, were butchered without mercy. Very soon after this treacherous massacre Ribault, with the rest of his followers, reached the spot where their companions had been betrayed a few hours before. Menendez hurried back, and by the same treacherous method disarmed Ribault and his friends. Ribault was shown the pile of unburied corpses of his men. A ransom of one hundred thousand ducats was offered for the lives of Ribault and his friends. As before, they were betrayed, and Ribault and all but six or eight of his companions were murdered. "They were put to the sword," Menendez wrote to his king, "judging this to be expedient for the service of God our Lord and of your majesty."

Rice Introduced into Carolina. In 1695 a brigantine from Madagascar came to anchor off Sullivan's Island, in Charleston harbor. The governor went on board the ship by invitation of the captain, and received from the latter a bag of rice-seed, with information of the methods of its cultivation in Eastern countries, and of its suitableness for food. The governor divided the grain among his friends, who made experiments with it in different soils. From this small beginning arose the cultivation of this staple of South Carolina and Georgia.

Richardson, ISRAEL B., was born at Burlington, Vt., in 1819; died at Sharpsburg, Md., Nov. 3, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1841; served in the Seminole War and in the war against Mexico; and became colonel of Michigan volunteers when the Civil War broke out. He took a prominent part in the battle at Blackburn's Ford (which see) and Bull's Run, at both of which he commanded a brigade. He was made a brigadier-general, and in the Peninsular campaign he commanded a division in Sumner's corps. On July 4, 1862, he was made major-general. He was in the battle of South Mountain (which see), and in the battle of Antietam (which see) he received a wound, of which he died.

Richmond (Ky.), BATTLE AT. General E. Kirby Smith led the van in Bragg's invasion of Kentucky (which see). He entered the state from East Tennessee, and was making his way rapidly towards the "Blue Grass" region; when he was met by a force organized by General Lew. Wallace, but then commanded by General M. D. Manson. It was part of a force under the direction of General William Nelson. Manson's troops were mostly raw. A collision occurred when approaching Richmond and not far from Rogersville (Aug. 30, 1862). A severe battle was fought for three hours, when Manson was driven back. At this juncture Nelson arrived and took command. Half an hour later his troops were utterly routed and scattered in all directions. Nelson was wounded. Manson resumed command, but the day was lost. Smith's cavalry had gained the rear of the Nationals, and stood in the way of their wild flight. Manson and his men were made prisoners. The estimated loss was about equal, that of the Nationals having been about five thousand killed, wounded, and prisoners.

Richmond, BURNING OF (1865). The night when the Confederate government fled from Richmond was a fearful one for the inhabitants of that city. All day after the receipt of Lee's despatch—"My lines are broken in three places; Richmond must be evacuated to-night"—the people were kept in the most painful suspense by the reticence of the government, then making preparations to fly for personal safety. That body employed every vehicle for this use, and the people who prepared to leave the city found it difficult to get any conveyance. For these as much as \$100 in gold was given for service from a dwelling to the railway-station. It was revealed to the people early in the evening that the Confederate Congress had ordered all the cotton, tobacco, and other property which the owners could not carry away, and which was stored in four great warehouses, to be burned to prevent it falling into the hands of the Nationals. There was a fresh breeze from the south, and the burning of these warehouses would imperil the whole city. General Ewell, in command there, vainly remonstrated against the execution of the order. A committee of the Common Council went to Jefferson Davis before he left to remonstrate against it, to which he replied that their statement that the burning of the warehouses would endanger the city was "a cowardly pretext on the part of the citizens, trumped up to endeavor to save their property for the Yankees." A similar answer was given at the War Department. The humane Ewell was compelled to obey, for the order from the War Department was imperative. The City Council took the precaution, for the public safety, to order the destruction of all liquors that might be accessible to lawless men. This was done, and by midnight hundreds of barrels of spirituous liquors were flowing in the gutters, where stragglers from the retreating army and rough citizens gathered it in vessels, and so produced the calamity the authorities endeavored to avert. The torch was ap-

plied, and at daybreak the warehouses were in flames. The city was already on fire in several places. The intoxicated soldiers, joined with many of the dangerous class of both sexes, formed a marauding mob of fearful proportions, who broke open and pillaged stores and committed excesses of every kind. From midnight until dawn the city was a pandemonium. The roaring mob released the prisoners from the jail and burned it. They set fire to the arsenal, and tried to destroy the Tredegar Iron-works. Conflagrations spread rapidly, for the fire department was powerless, and by the middle of the forenoon (April 3) a greater portion of the principal business part of Richmond was a blazing furnace. Between midnight and dawn the Confederate troops made their way across the bridges to the south side of the James. At three o'clock the magazine near the almshouse was fired and blown up with a concussion that shook the city to its foundations. It was followed by the explosion of the Confederate "ram" *Virginia*, below the city. When, at seven o'clock in the morning, the troops were all across the river, the bridges were burned behind them. A number of other vessels in the river were destroyed. The bursting of shells in the arsenal when the fire reached them added to the horrors of the scene. At noon about seven hundred buildings in the business part of the city, including a Presbyterian church, were in ruins. While Richmond was in flames National troops under Weitzel entered the city, and, by great exertions, subdued the fire and saved Richmond from utter destruction. Many million dollars' worth of property had been annihilated. The city was surrendered by the civil authorities. (See *Richmond, Surrender of*.)

Richmond, FIRST SKIRMISHES BEFORE (1862). The first collisions between the two great armies on the borders of the Chickahominy River occurred on May 23 and 24, 1862—one near New Bridge, not far from Cool Arbor, between Michigan cavalry and a Louisiana regiment, when thirty-seven of the latter were captured. The other was at and near Mechanicsville, seven or eight miles from Richmond, where a part of McClellan's right wing was advancing towards the Chickahominy. There was a sharp skirmish at Ellison's Mill (May 23), a mile from Mechanicsville. To this place the Confederates fell back, and the next morning were driven across the Chickahominy. On the same morning General McClellan issued a stirring order for an immediate advance on Richmond; but the over-cautious commander hesitated to move until the golden opportunity had passed. President Lincoln telegraphed to the general, "I think the time is near when you must either attack Richmond or give up the job and come to the defence of Washington."

Richmond, GRANT'S AND LEE'S RACE FOR. The National and Confederate armies had three times run a race for Washington. After the battle at Spottsylvania Court-house, they entered upon a race for Richmond, then the Confederate capital. Grant determined to transfer

his army to the south side of the James River, cut off the chief sources of supply for the Confederate army from the south, and attempt the capture of Richmond from that direction. He disencumbered his army of about twenty thousand sick and wounded, who were sent to the hospitals at Washington and elsewhere, and

march southward parallel with Hancock. Warren followed Hancock, and Ewell followed Longstreet's troops. On May 21 the race was fairly begun, the Confederates having the more direct or shorter route. Lee outstripped his antagonist, and when the Nationals approached the South Anna River the Confederates were already



FORTIFICATIONS AROUND RICHMOND.

with twenty-five thousand veteran recruits, amply supplied, and thirty thousand volunteers for one hundred days joining his army, he began another flank movement on the night of May 20-21, 1864, Hancock's corps leading. Lee had kept a vigilant watch of the movements of the Nationals, and sent Longstreet's corps to

strongly posted there on the south side of the river, where Lee had evidently determined to make a stand. Grant proceeded to attempt to dislodge him. In attempts to force passages across the stream, very sharp engagements ensued. Having partly crossed the North Anna, the Army of the Potomac was in great peril.

Its two strong wings were on one side of the stream, and its weak centre on the other. Perceiving this peril, Grant secretly recrossed the river with his troops, and resumed his march on Richmond by a flank movement far to the eastward of the Confederate army. The flanking column was led by Sheridan, with two divisions of cavalry. On the 28th the whole army was south of the Pamunkey, and in communication with its new base at the White House (which see). This movement compelled Lee to abandon his strong position at the North Anna, but, having a shorter route, he was in another good position before the Nationals crossed the Pamunkey. He was at a point where he could cover the railways and highways leading to Richmond. The Nationals were now within fifteen miles of Richmond. Their only direct pathway to that capital was across the Chickahominy. There was much skirmishing, and Grant was satisfied that he would be compelled to force the passage of the Chickahominy on Lee's flank, and he prepared for that movement by sending Sheridan to seize a point near Cool Arbor, where roads leading into Richmond diverged. After a fight with Fitzhugh Lee's cavalry, it was secured, and on the same night (May 30) Wright's corps pressed forward to the same point. A large body of troops, under General W. F. Smith, called from the Army of the James, were approaching Cool Arbor at the same time. These took position on Wright's right wing. There a terrible battle occurred (June 1, 1864), in which both armies suffered immense loss. (See *Cool Arbor, Battle of*.) It was now perceived that the fortifications around Richmond were too formidable to warrant a direct attack upon them with a hope of success, so Grant proceeded to throw his army across to the south side of the James River, and to operate against the Confederate capital on the right of that stream. It was near the middle of June before the whole National force had crossed the Chickahominy and moved to the James by way of Charles City Court-house. There they crossed the river in boats and over pontoon-bridges; and on June 16th, when the entire army was on the south side, General Grant made his headquarters at City Point, at the junction of the Appomattox and the James. A portion of the Army of the James, under General Butler, had made an unsuccessful attempt to capture Petersburg, where the Confederates had constructed strong works. Before them the Army of the Potomac appeared on the evening of June 16th, and in that vicinity the two armies struggled for the mastery until April the next year, or about ten months.

Richmond, SURRENDER OF. General Godfrey Weitzel had been left, with a portion of the Army of the James, on the north side of that river, to menace Richmond, and he kept up a continual show of great numbers, which had deceived Longstreet, standing in defence of the Confederate capital. At past midnight (April 3, 1865) a great light in Richmond, the sound of explosions, and other events, revealed to Weitzel the fact that the Confederates were evacuating the city. At daylight he put Draper's ne-

gro brigade in motion towards Richmond. The place of every terra-torpedo in front of the Confederate works was marked by a small flag, for the safety of their own men, and in their hasty departure they forgot to remove them. Cannons on the deserted works were left unharmed. Early in the morning the whole of Weitzel's force were in the suburbs of the town. A demand was made for its surrender, and at seven o'clock Joseph Mayo, the mayor, handed the keys of the public buildings to the messenger of the summons. Weitzel and his staff rode in at eight o'clock, at the head of Ripley's brigade of negro troops, when Lieutenant J. Livingston Deppey, of Weitzel's staff, ascended to the roof of the Virginia State-house with a national flag, and, with the assistance of Captain Langdon, Weitzel's chief of artillery, unfurled it over that building, and in its Senate-chamber the office of headquarters was established. Weitzel occupied the sumptuously furnished dwelling of Jefferson Davis, and General Shepley was appointed military governor. The troops were set at work to extinguish the flames.

Richmond Theatre Burned. On the night of Dec. 6, 1811, the theatre in Richmond, Va., was crowded by an audience of about six hundred persons. When the curtain rose on the second part of a pantomime, the orchestra was in full chorus, and a performer had come before the foot-lights, sparks were seen falling on the back part of the stage. A cry of *Fire!* was instantly raised, and the whole audience was seized with panic. All fled from their seats and crowded towards the doors. Cries and shrieks filled the house. Many persons were trodden under foot; the stairways were blocked; and several persons were thrown back from the windows whence they had attempted to escape. Yet many did leap from the windows of the first story and were saved, and some from the second story. Within ten minutes after the discovery of the fire the building was all in flames. Nearly seventy persons perished in the fire, and many afterwards died in consequence of injuries received. The *élite* of Richmond society were in the building, and many of them perished. Among the victims were George W. Smith, lately entered upon his duties as Governor of Virginia, and Abraham B. Venable, President of the Bank of Virginia. By order of the City Council of Richmond, the remains of those who perished in the flames were gathered, and on Sunday, Dec. 30, they were interred in the centre of the spot where the "pit" stood. On the site of the theatre the Episcopalians built a church edifice, called the Monumental Church, because directly in front of it stands a modest monument inscribed with the names of those who perished in the fire.

Richmond, WASHINGTON'S STATUE AT. The Legislature of Virginia employed Houdon (which see) to make a statue of Washington. Charles Wilson Peale was employed to paint a full-length portrait of the patriot, life-size, and exact measurements of his person were made. The latter were sent to the sculptor; but he preferred to see

the original, and came to America. He spent some time at Mount Vernon, and after making a plaster cast from Washington's face, he modelled the remainder of the head and bust from life, and returned to Paris. Gouverneur Morris, in Paris in 1789, stood for the figure of Washington, and Houdon executed a fine statue in marble, which still adorns the rotunda of the Capitol at Richmond. The original model of the bust is at Mount Vernon, on the Potomac.

Rich Mountain, BATTLE OF. The insurgents attempted to permanently occupy the country south of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway in Virginia. They were placed under the command of R. S. Garnett, a meritorious soldier, who was in the war with Mexico, and was brevetted for gallantry at Buena Vista (which see). He made his headquarters at Beverly, in Randolph County, and prepared to prevent the National troops from pushing through the mountain-gaps into the Shenandoah valley. The roads through these gaps were fortified. At the same time ex-Governor H. A. Wise, with the commission of a brigadier, was organizing a brigade in the Great Kanawha valley, beyond the Greenbrier Mountains, to hold in subjection the loyal inhabitants in that fertile region. He was ordered to cross the intervening mountains, and co-operate with Garnett. General McClellan took command of his troops in Western Virginia, at Grafton, towards the close of May (1861), and the entire force of Ohio, Indiana, and Virginia troops under his control numbered full 20,000 men. With these he advanced against the insurgents. He sent General J. D. Cox with a detachment to keep Wise in check, while with his main body, about 10,000 strong, he moved to attack Garnett at Laurel Hill, near Beverly. At the same time a detachment 4000 strong, under General Morris, moved towards Beverly by way of Philippi, while another body, led by General Hill was sent to West Union, to prevent the escape of the insurgents by that way over the Alleghany Mountains, to join Johnston at Winchester. Garnett was then strongly intrenched at Laurel Hill, with about 8000 Virginians, Georgians, Tennesseans, and Carolinians. To this camp Morris nearly penetrated, but not to attack it—only to make feints to divert Garnett while McClellan should gain his rear. There was almost daily heavy skirmishing, chiefly by Colonels Dumont and Milroy, on the part of the Nationals. So industrious and bold had been the scouts, that when McClellan appeared they gave him full information of the region and the insurgents. During a few days, so daring had been the conduct of the Nationals that they were regarded almost with awe by the insurgents. They called the Ninth Indiana—whose exploits were particularly notable—"Swamp Devils." While on the road towards Beverly, McClellan ascertained that about 1500 insurgents, under Colonel John Pegram, were occupying a heavily intrenched position in the rear of Garnett, in the Rich Mountain Gap, and commanding the road over the mountain to Staunton, the chief highway to southern Virginia. Pegram boasted that his position could not be

turned; but it was turned by Ohio and Indiana regiments and some cavalry, all under the command of Colonel Rosecrans, accompanied by Colonel Lander, who was with Dumont at Philippi (which see). They made a détour (July 11, 1861), in a heavy rain-storm, over most perilous ways among the mountains for about eight miles, and at noon were on the summit of Rich Mountain, high above Pegram's camp, and a mile from it. Rosecrans thought his movement was unknown to the insurgents. Pegram was informed of it, and sent out 900 men, with two cannons, up the mountain-road, to meet the Nationals, and just as they struck the Staunton road the latter were fiercely assailed. Rosecrans was without cannons. He sent forward his skirmishers; and while these were engaged in fighting, his main body was concealed. Finally Pegram's men came out from their works and charged across the road, when the Indians sprang to their feet, fired, and, with a wild shout, sprang upon the foe with fixed bayonets. A sharp conflict ensued, when the insurgents gave way, and fled in great confusion down the declivities of the mountain to Pegram's camp. The battle lasted about an hour and a half. The number of Union troops engaged was about 1800, and those of the insurgents half that number. The Nationals lost 18 killed and about 40 wounded; the insurgents, 140 killed and a large number wounded and made prisoners. Their entire loss was about 400. For his gallantry on this occasion, Rosecrans was made a brigadier-general. Garnett was a prey to the Nationals. In light marching order he pushed on towards Beverly, hoping to escape over the mountains towards Staunton. He was too late, for McClellan moved rapidly to Beverly. Garnett then turned back, and, taking a road through a gap at Leedsville, plunged into the wild mountain regions of the Cheat Range, taking with him only one cannon. His reserves at Beverly fled over the mountains. Meanwhile Rosecrans had entered Pegram's deserted camp, while the latter, dispirited and weary, with about six hundred followers, was trying to escape. He surrendered to McClellan July 14. As soon as McClellan discovered that Garnett had fled, he ordered a hot pursuit. Forces under General Morris and Captain H. W. Benham started eagerly after the fugitives, who had about twelve hours the start of them. The fugitives, in order to escape, left everything but their arms and ammunition behind them. They discovered the rear-guard of Garnett's force on the 13th, and finally overtook them. After a running fight for about four miles, Garnett crossed a branch of the Cheat River at a place known as Carrick's Ford, where the banks were high and steep. There Garnett made a stand, after crossing the stream, and Colonel Steedman, with a part of the Ohio Fourteenth, received a volley of musket-balls and shot from a single cannon. (See *Carricksford, Battle at*.)

Ricketts, JAMES BREWERTON, was born in New York city, and graduated at West Point in 1839. He served in the war against Mexico, and when the Civil War began he was placed in

command of the First Battery of rifled guns. He distinguished himself in the battle of Bull's Run, where he was severely wounded, taken prisoner, and confined eight months in Richmond, when he was exchanged. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers; was in the battle of Groveton (which see), or second battle of Bull's Run, in which he commanded a division of the Army of Virginia, and was wounded; and in the battle of Antietam he commanded General Hooker's corps after that officer was wounded. He was engaged in the campaign against Richmond from March until July, 1864, and in the Shenandoah campaign from July until October, 1864. General Ricketts retired from the army, as major-general, in 1867, and died in 1887.

Ridgefield, SKIRMISH AT. (See *Danbury, Destruction of.*)

Riedesel (Baron), **FREDERICK ADOLPH**, was born at Lauterbach, Rhinehesse, June 3, 1738; died at Brunswick, Jan. 6, 1800. Leaving the College of Marburg, he entered the English army as ensign, and served in the Seven Years' War under Prince Ferdinand. In 1760 he became captain of the Hessian Hussars, and was made lieutenant-colonel of the Black Hussars in 1762, adjutant-general of the Brunswick army in 1767, colonel of carabineers in 1772, and early in 1776 a major-general, with the command of a division of four thousand Brunswickers, hired by the British court to fight British subjects in America. (See *German Mercenaries.*) Riedesel arrived at Quebec June 1, 1776; aided in the capture of Ticonderoga (July 6), and in dispersing the American troops at Hubbardton, and was made a prisoner with Burgoyne; was exchanged in the fall of 1780; returned home in August, 1783, and in 1787 was made lieutenant-general, in command of troops serving in Holland. He became commander-in-chief of the military of Brunswick. His *Memoirs, Letters, and Journals in America*, edited by Max Von Eelking, were translated by William L. Stone. His wife, Fredericka Charlotte Louisa, accompanied him to America, and wrote charming letters and a journal, which were published in Boston in 1799, of which a new translation was recently made by Mr. Stone. She was a daughter of the Prussian minister, Massow. She died in Berlin, March 29, 1808, aged forty-two years.

Rifled Cannons and Conical Balls. Ichabod Price, who died in New York city in March, 1862, at the age of eighty-one years, was a sergeant of a New York State artillery corps, as a volunteer, in the War of 1812. He suggested to the War Department both rifled cannons and conical balls, which now perform destructive work at long distances; but he was not listened to. President Madison was so well satisfied of the genius of the sergeant that he was commissioned a lieutenant in the regular army of the United States.

Riflemen in 1775. Among the companies which joined the American camp at Cambridge, in the summer of 1775, were some riflemen—the "sharpshooters" of that period—from Mary-

land, Virginia, and western Pennsylvania, who had been enlisted under the orders of Congress. The most conspicuous leaders among them were Daniel Morgan and Otho H. Williams.

Rights of Americans to Independence. Francis Hutcheson, a very eminent British writer on ethics, who died in 1747, clearly perceived the coming independence of the English-American colonies. "When," he inquired, "have colonies a right to be released from the dominion of the parent state?" He answered his own question, saying, "Whenever they are so increased in numbers and strength as to be sufficient by themselves for all the good ends of a political union." At the beginning of the French and Indian War the American colonies were in that happy condition, and the proposition for a colonial union, made in convention at Albany, in 1754 (see *Albany, Fourth Colonial Convention at*), excited the apprehension that independence was the primary aim of the Americans. Governor Shirley tried to allay the apprehension by declaring that the various governments of the colonies had such different constitutions that it would be impossible for them to confederate in an attempt to throw off the British yoke. "At all events," he said, "they could not maintain such an independency without a strong naval force, which it must forever be in the power of Great Britain to hinder them from having."

Rights of Man. In 1791 Thomas Paine published the first part of his famous reply to Edmund Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution*. It was issued in England, and had an immense sale. It was translated into French, and won for the author a seat in the French National Assembly. Jefferson, then Secretary of State in Washington's administration, had come from France filled with the radical ideas of the French Revolutionists, and thought he saw, in the coolness of the President and others, a sign of decaying republicanism in America. The essays of Adams, entitled *Discourses on Davila*, disgusted him, and he believed that Adams, Hamilton, Jay, and others were plotting for the establishment of a monarchy in the United States. To thwart these fancied designs, and to inculcate the doctrines of the French Revolution, Jefferson hastily printed in America, and circulated, Paine's *Rights of Man*, which had just been received from England. It was originally dedicated "to the President of the United States." It inculcated principles consonant with the feelings and opinions of the great body of the American people. The author sent fifty copies to Washington, who distributed them among his friends, but his official position admonished him to be prudently silent about the work, for it bore hard upon the British government. The American edition, issued from a Philadelphia press, contained a commendatory note from Mr. Jefferson, which had been privately written, and not intended for publication. In it he had aimed some severe observations against the author of the *Discourses on Davila*. This created much bitterness of feeling. Warm discussions arose. John Quincy Adams, son of the Vice-President, wrote a

series of articles in reply to the *Rights of Man*, over the signature of "Publico." They were published in the *Boston Centinel*, and reprinted in pamphlet form, with the name of John Adams on the title-page, as it was supposed they were written by him. Several writers answered them. "A host of champions entered the arena immediately in your defence," Jefferson wrote to Paine. The *Rights of Man* is the ablest paper that ever came from the brain and hand of Paine.

"Rights of the British Colonies Asserted and Proved." This was the title of a powerfully written pamphlet in opposition to the scheme of the British ministry for taxing the English-American colonists. It was written by James Otis, of Boston, and produced a profound sensation in America and in Great Britain. Its boldness, its logic, its eloquence, combined to make it a sort of oriflamme for the patriots. In it Mr. Otis, while he contended for the charter privileges of the colonists, did not admit that the loss of their charters would deprive them of their rights. He said: "Two or three innocent colony charters have been threatened with destruction one hundred and forty years past. . . . A set of men in America, without honor or love for their country, have been long grasping at powers which they think unattainable while these charters stand in the way. But they will meet with insurmountable obstacles to their project for enslaving the British colonies, should those arising from provincial charters be removed. . . . Our forefathers were soon worn away in the toils of hard labor on their little plantations and in war with the savages. They thought they were earning a sure inheritance for their posterity. Could they imagine it would ever be thought just to deprive them or theirs of these charter privileges? Should this ever be the case, there are, thank God, natural, inherent, and inseparable rights, as men and citizens, that would remain after the so-much-wished-for catastrophe, and which, whatever became of charters, can never be abolished, *de jure* or *de facto*, till the general conflagration."

Ringgold, BATTLE OF. The Confederates retreated from Missionaries' Ridge (which see) towards Ringgold, destroying the bridges behind them. Early the next morning (Nov. 26, 1863) Sherman, Palmer, and Hooker were sent in pursuit. Both Sherman and Palmer struck a rear-guard of the fugitives late on the same day, and the latter had captured three guns from them. At Greysville Sherman halted and sent Howard to destroy a large section of the railway which connected Dalton with Cleveland, and thus severed the communication between Bragg and Burnside. Hooker, meanwhile, had pushed on to Ringgold, Osterhaus leading, Geary following, and Cruft in the rear, making numerous prisoners of stragglers. At a deep gorge General Cleburne (the "Stonewall Jackson" of the West), covering Bragg's retreat, made a stand, with guns well posted. Hooker's guns had not yet come up, and his impatient troops were permitted to attack the Confederates with small-arms only. A severe struggle

ensued, and in the afternoon, when some of Hooker's guns were in position and the Confederates were flanked, the latter retreated. The Nationals lost 432 men, of whom sixty-five were killed. The Confederates left 133 killed and wounded on the field.

Ringgold, CADWALADER, was born in Maryland in 1802; died in New York city, April 29, 1867. He entered the United States navy as midshipman in 1819, and was made captain in 1856. At the breaking-out of the Civil War he was ordered to the command of the *Sabine* and engaged in blockading Southern ports and in operations against some of them. He retired from the service a rear-admiral in December, 1864.

Riot in Boston (1768). The commissioners of customs had arrived in Boston in May, 1768 (see *Commissioners of Customs*), and began their duties with diligence. The sloop *Liberty*, belonging to John Hancock, arrived in Boston harbor June 10 with a cargo of wine from Madeira. It had been determined by leading merchants and citizens to resist these custom-house officers as illegal tax-gatherers, and when the tide-waiter, as usual, went on board the *Liberty*, on her arrival, just at sunset, to await the landing of dutiable goods on the dock, he was politely received and invited into the cabin to drink punch. At about nine o'clock he was confined below, while the wine was landed without entering it at the custom-house or observing any other formula. Then the tide-waiter was sent on shore. In the morning the commissioners of customs ordered the seizure of the sloop, and Harrison, the collector, and Hallowell, the comptroller, were directed to perform the duty. The vessel was duly marked, cut from her moorings, and placed under the guns of the *Romney*, a British ship-of-war, in the harbor. The people were greatly excited by this act, and the assembled citizens soon became a mob. A large party of the lower class, headed by Malcolm, a bold smuggler, pelted Harrison with stones, attacked the office of the commissioners, and, dragging a custom-house boat through the streets, burned it upon the Common. The frightened commissioners fled for safety on board the *Romney*, and thence to Castle William, in the harbor. The Sons of Liberty, at a meeting at Faneuil Hall (June 13), prepared a petition, asking the governor to remove the war-ship from the harbor. The Council condemned the mob, but the Assembly took no notice of the matter.

Riot in Philadelphia (1779). The rapid depreciation of the Continental paper-money and the continued rise in prices, which some chose to ascribe to monopoly and extortion, finally produced a riot at the seat of the general government. A committee of citizens of Philadelphia had attempted to regulate the prices of leading articles of consumption, to which Robert Morris and other prominent merchants refused to conform. Among the non-conformists was James Wilson, a signer of the Declaration of Independence. He had already become obnoxious by his defence of the accused Quakers.

He now took an active part against so regulating trade. He was denounced as a defender of the Tories, and it was proposed to seize him and others and to banish them to New York. The threatened persons, with their friends (among whom was General Mifflin), assembled (Oct. 4, 1779) at Wilson's house. A mob approached, with drums beating, and dragging two pieces of cannon. They opened a fire of musketry on the house. One of the inmates was killed and two wounded. The mob was about to force open the barred doors, when the President of Pennsylvania (Joseph Reed) arrived, soon followed by some of the city cavalry. The latter attacked the mob, when a man and boy were killed and several were severely wounded. It was several days before order was restored.

Riots in Boston (1765). Symptoms of violent ferment in the public mind appeared in several places before the arrival of the stamps in America. In Boston was a great elm, under which the "Sons of Liberty" held meetings, and it was known as "Liberty Tree." On its branches the effigies of leaders among the supporters of the British ministers were hung. The house of Secretary Oliver, who had been appointed stamp-distributor, was attacked by a mob (Aug. 15, 1765), who broke his windows and furniture, pulled down a small building which they supposed he was about to use as a stamp-office, and frightened him into speedy resignation. At that time Jonathan Mahew, an eloquent and patriotic preacher in Boston, declared against the Stamp Act from the pulpit, from the text, "I would they were even cut off which trouble you." The riots were renewed on Monday evening after this sermon was preached. The house of Story, registrar of the admiralty, was attacked (Aug. 26) and the public records and his private papers were destroyed; the house of the comptroller of customs was plundered; and the rioters, maddened by spirituous liquors, proceeded to the mansion of Lieutenant-governor Hutchinson, on North Square, carried everything out of it, and burned the contents in the public square. Among his furniture and papers perished many valuable manuscripts relating to the history of Massachusetts, which he had been thirty years collecting, and which could not be replaced. The better part of the community expressed their abhorrence of the acts, yet the rioters went unpunished, an indication that they had powerful sympathizers. Indemnification for losses by the officers of the crown was demanded by the British government and agreed to by Massachusetts. Hutchinson received \$12,000; Oliver, \$645; Story, \$255; Hallowell, \$1446.

Riots in New York (1765). Opposition to the Stamp Act assumed the form of riot in New York city late in October, 1765. A general meeting of citizens was held on the evening of Oct. 31, when two hundred merchants signed their names to resolutions condemnatory of the act. A committee of correspondence was appointed, and measures were taken to compel

James McEvers, who had been made stamp-distributor for New York, to resign. Alarmed by the aspect of the public temper, he had placed the stamps he had received in the hands of acting governor Colden, who resided within Fort George, protected by a strong garrison under General Gage. Colden had strengthened the fort and replenished the magazine. The people construed this act as a menace, and were highly exasperated. Armed ships were in the harbor, and troops were prepared to enslave them. But the people did not hesitate to assemble in great numbers before the fort (Nov. 1) and demand the delivery of the stamps to their appointed leader. A refusal was answered by defiant shouts, and the populace assumed the character of a mob. They hung Governor Colden in effigy in "the Fields" (now City Hall Park), marched back to the fort, dragged his fine coach to the open space in front of it, tore down the wooden fence around Bowling Green, and, after making a pile of the wood, cast the coach and effigy upon it, and set fire to the whole. The mob then proceeded to the beautiful residence of Major James, of the Royal Artillery, a little way out of town, where they destroyed his fine library, works of art, and furniture, and desolated his choice garden. Isaac Sears and other leaders of the assembled citizens tried to restrain them, but could not. After parading the streets with the Stamp Act, printed upon large sheets and raised upon poles, headed "England's Folly and America's Ruin," they quietly dispersed. The governor gave up the stamps (Nov. 5) to the mayor and the corporation of the city of New York, and they were deposited in the City Hall. The losers by the riots were indemnified by the Colonial Assembly.

Ripley, ELEAZAR WHELOCK, was born at Hanover, N. H., April 15, 1782; died at West Feliciana, La., March 2, 1839. He was a nephew of President Wheelock, of Dartmouth College. He studied and practised law at Portland; was in the Legislature of Massachusetts, and was chosen speaker of the Assembly in 1812. He was also State Senator. In March, 1813, he was appointed colonel of the Twenty-first Infantry. He was active on the Northern frontier until appointed brigadier-general in the spring of 1814, when he took part in the events on the Niagara frontier. For his services during that campaign he received from Congress the brevet of major-general and a gold medal. General Ripley left the army in 1820; practised law in Louisiana; was a member of the State Senate, and in 1835 was a member of Congress, which position he held at the time of his death. He was wounded in the battle at York, and in the sortie at Fort Erie (which see) he was shot through the neck.

Ripley, GEORGE, LL.D., was born at Greenfield, Mass., Oct. 3, 1802; died in New York, July 4, 1880. He was an able writer and a most industrious man of letters, having edited, translated, and written numerous works on a great variety of subjects, and gained a wide reputation as a scholar, editor, and journalist. Mr.

Ripley graduated at Harvard University in 1823, and Cambridge Divinity School in 1826. He became pastor of the Thirteenth Congregational (Unitarian) Church in Boston. He was prominent in the Brook Farm enterprise at Roxbury, where an experiment of practical socialism was tried. In 1840-41 he was associate editor with Ralph Waldo Emerson and Margaret Fuller of the *Dial*, the organ of the New England Transcendentalists; and with Charles A. Dana, Parke Godwin, and J. S. Dwight, of the *Harbinger*, an advocate of socialism as propounded by Fourier. From 1849 until his death Mr. Ripley was the literary editor of the *New York Tribune*. In conjunction with C. A. Dana, Dr. Ripley edited Appleton's *New American Cyclopedia*, sixteen volumes, completed in 1863, and a new and illustrated edition, completed in 1876.

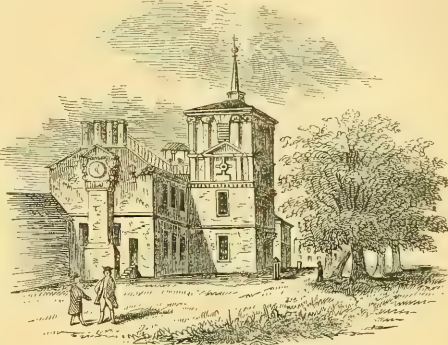
Rittenhouse, DAVID, LL.D., was born near Germantown, Penn., April 8, 1732; died in Philadelphia, June 26, 1796. He was of German descent. His great-grandfather, a German, established at Germantown, in 1690, the first paper-mill in America. Accidentally falling in with instruments and mathematical books of a de-



DAVID RITTENHOUSE.

ceased uncle while working on his father's farm, he had mastered Newton's *Principia* and independently discovered the methods of fluxions before he was nineteen years of age. He early became a skilful mechanic, and, at the age of twenty-three, he planned and constructed an orrery, which was purchased by the college at Princeton. He afterwards constructed a larger and more perfect one for the University of Pennsylvania. In 1763 he was employed in determining "Mason and Dixon's Line" (which see), and afterwards fixed other state boundaries. In 1769 the American Philosophical Society appointed him to observe the transit of Venus at Philadelphia. He erected a temporary observatory for the purpose on the Walnut-street front of the State-house (now in Independence Square), from the platform of which, it is said, John Nixon read the Declaration of Independence on the 8th of July, 1776, to a vast multitude of people gathered from the city and the surrounding country. It is said that the emotion of Rittenhouse was so great at the apparent contact at

the time of the transit that he fainted. In Philadelphia Rittenhouse continued his manufacture of clocks and mathematical instruments several years. From 1777 to 1779 he was treasurer of Pennsylvania; succeeded Franklin (1791) as



WALNUT-STREET FRONT OF THE STATE-HOUSE IN 1776.
(From an old Print of the Period.)

president of the American Philosophical Society, and was director of the United States Mint from 1792 to 1795. He was a member of the Academy of Arts and Sciences of Boston.

Rival Colonies, THE EXTENT AND POPULATION OF. At the important epoch of the beginning of the French and Indian War (which see), the extent of the territorial possessions of England and France in America was well defined on maps published by Evans and Mitchell—that of the latter (a new edition) in 1754. The British North American colonies stretched coastwise along the Atlantic about one thousand miles, but inland their extent was very limited. New France, as the French settlers called their claimed territory in America, extended over a vastly wider space, from Cape Breton, in a sort of crescent, to the mouth of the Mississippi River, but the population was mainly collected on the St. Lawrence, between Quebec and Montreal. The English colonies in America at that time had a population of 1,485,634, of whom 292,738 were negroes. The French were scarcely 100,000 in number, but were strong in Indian allies, who, stretching along the whole interior frontier of the English colonies, and disgusted with constant encroachments upon their territories, as well as ill-treatment by the English, were always ripe and ready for cruel warfare.

Rives, WILLIAM CABELL, was born in Nelson County, Va., May 4, 1793; died near Charlottesville, Va., April 26, 1868. He was educated at Hampden-Sidney and William and Mary colleges; studied law under the direction of Jefferson; was a member of the State Constitutional Convention in 1816; of the State Legislature from 1817 to 1819 and 1822, and member of Congress from 1823 to 1829. Mr. Rives was minister at the French court from 1829 to 1832, and United States Senator from 1832 until 1845. He was again minister to France from 1849 to 1853. He sympathized with the secession movements in 1860-61, and in February, 1861, was a member

of the Peace Congress (which see). After Virginia had joined the Confederacy, he became a member of the Confederate Congress.

Rivington, JAMES, was born in London about 1724; died in New York in July, 1802. He was engaged in bookselling in London, and failing, came to America in 1760, and established a bookstore in Philadelphia the same year. In 1761 he



JAMES RIVINGTON.

opened one near the foot of Wall Street, New York, where his *New York Gazetteer*, a weekly newspaper, was established in April, 1773. It was soon devoted to the royal cause, and his trenchant paragraphs against the "rebels" made him detested by the Whigs. To sarcasm he added good-natured ridicule. Isaac Sears, a leader of the Sons of Liberty, was so irritated by him that, with a company of light-horsemen from Connecticut, he destroyed Rivington's printing establishment in November, 1775, after which the latter went to England. Appointed king's printer at New York, he returned late in 1776 with new printing materials, and in 1777 resumed the publication of his paper under the title of *Rivington's New York Loyal Gazette*. Late in the year he changed it to *Royal Gazette*. Shrewd and unscrupulous, after the defeat of Cornwallis (1781) he perceived the hopelessness of the royal cause and endeavored to make his peace with the Whigs by secretly sending information to Washington concerning public affairs in the city. This treason was practised until the evacuation of the city by the British. When the loyalists fled and the American army entered the city (1783), Rivington remained unharmed, to the astonishment of those not in the secret. He changed the title of his paper to *Rivington's New York Gazette and Universal Advertiser*. But his business declined, as he had lost the confidence of both Whigs and Tories, and he lived in comparative poverty until the seventy-eighth year of his age.

Rivington's Printing-office, DESTRUCTION OF. The unstinted abuse of the Whigs and their cause lavished upon them by Rivington in his *New York Gazetteer*, irritated them beyond endurance. Isaac Sears, a leader of the Sons of Liberty, was a particular target for his keen shafts of wit and vulgar abuse. Fired by personal insult and patriotic zeal, Sears came from

Connecticut, where he had been consulting Whigs upon public matters, and at noonday (Nov. 23, 1775), followed by about one hundred light-horsemen, entered the city, proceeded to Rivington's publishing establishment at the foot of Wall Street, placed a guard with fixed bayonets around it, put all his type into bags, destroyed his press and other apparatus, and, in the same order as they came, left the city amid the shouts of the populace and to the tune of "Yankee Doodle," carrying away his type, of which bullets were afterwards made. Rivington then went to England, but returned after the British took possession of New York, with new printing materials, as "king's printer."

Roanoke Island was discovered by Amidas and Barlow (see *Raleigh, Sir Walter*) in July, 1584, and taken possession of in the name of Queen Elizabeth. These navigators spent several weeks in explorations of that island and Pamlico and Albemarle sounds; and in trafficking with the natives. "The people," wrote the mariners, "were most gentle, loving, and faithful, void of all guile and treason, and such as lived after the manner of the Golden Age." They were hospitably entertained by the mother of Wingina, King of Roanoke, who was absent. When they left they took with them Manteo and Wanchese, two dusky lords of the woods from the neighboring main. Raleigh sent a squadron under Sir Richard Grenville in 1585 to Roanoke Island (see *Grenville, Sir Richard*), who took back the native chiefs. Grenville sent Manteo to the mainland to announce the coming of the English, and for eight days Sir Richard explored the country in search of precious metals, and by his conduct made the natives his enemies. Ralph Lane, who went with Grenville as governor of the country, was delighted with it, as being one of the most fertile regions he had ever beheld; but he contented himself with searching for gold. (See *Lane, Sir Ralph*.) His colony, half starved, and afraid of the offended Indians, deserted Roanoke Island in one of Drake's ships. Other attempts to settle there failed. (See *Grenville, Sir Richard*, and *Dare, Virginia*.) In the Civil War in America (1861-65), Roanoke Island became historically conspicuous. (See *Roanoke Island, Capture of*.)

Roanoke Island, CAPTURE OF. Early in 1862 an expedition was fitted out at Hampton Roads for operations against Roanoke Island, on the North Carolina coast. It was composed of over one hundred war-vessels and transports, commanded by Commodore L. M. Goldsborough, and bearing 16,000 land-troops under General Ambrose E. Burnside, of Rhode Island. The armament left the Roads on Sunday, Jan. 11, 1862, with its destination unknown excepting to certain officers. The land-force was divided into three brigades, commanded respectively by Generals J. G. Foster, J. L. Reno, and J. G. Parke. The fleet was divided into two columns for action, intrusted respectively to the care of Commanders S. F. Hazard and S. C. Rowan. Its destination was Pamlico Sound, through Hatteras Inlet, and its chief object was the capture of

Roanoke Island, which the Confederates had strongly fortified with batteries which commanded the sounds on each side of it. There was also a fortified camp that extended across a narrow part of the island. These fortifications were garrisoned by North Carolina troops under Colonel H. M. Shaw, and mounted forty guns. Above the island, in Croatan Sound, was a Confederate flotilla of small gunboats, commanded by Lieutenant W. F. Lynch, late of the United States Navy. Goldsborough drew up his fleet in Croatan Sound and opened a bombardment (Feb. 7, 1862) upon the works on Roanoke Island. Four of his transports, one gunboat, and a floating battery had been smitten by a storm off Hatteras before entering the still waters of the inlet and wrecked. Goldsborough had moved his gunboats towards the island to open fire in columns, the first being led by the *Stars and Stripes*, Lieutenant Werden; the second by the *Louisiana*, Commander A. Murray; and the third by the *Hetzel*, Lieutenant H. R. Davenport. The *Southfield* was the flag-ship. The first attack was upon Fort Bartow, on Pork Point, towards the northern end of the island, and in twenty-one minutes a general engagement took place between the gunboats and the batteries in Croatan Sound, in which the little flotilla participated. These vessels disposed of, Goldsborough concentrated his fire on Fort Bartow, three-fourths of a mile distant. Burnside's headquarters were on the *S. R. Spaulding*. As Fort Bartow began to give way the transports were brought up, and at midnight, while a cold storm of wind and rain was sweeping over land and water, about 11,000 troops were landed, many of them wading ashore. These were New England, New York, and New Jersey troops. They were without shelter. At dawn, led by General Foster, they moved to attack the line of intrenchments that spanned the island. The Confederates, much inferior in numbers, made a gallant defence, going from redoubt to redoubt as one after another fell into the hands of the Nationals. They made a vigorous stand in a well-situated redoubt that was approached by a causeway. There was to be the last struggle in defence of the line. At the head of Hawkins's Zouaves, Major Kimball, a veteran of the war with Mexico, undertook to take it by storm. Colonel Hawkins was then leading a flank movement with a part of his command. Seeing the major pushing forward, the colonel joined him, when the whole battalion shouted, "Zou! Zou! Zou!" and pressed to the redoubt. The Confederates fled and were pursued about six miles, when they surrendered, and Roanoke Island passed into the possession of the National forces. The Confederate flotilla fled up Albemarle Sound, pursued by National gunboats under Commander Rowan. Near Elizabeth, not far from the Dismal Swamp, Rowan attacked the flotilla and some land-batteries, driving the Confederates from both, while Lynch and his followers retired into the interior. Then the United States flag was placed upon a shore-battery, and this was the first portion of the North Carolina mainland that was repossessed by the government. The

loss of Roanoke Island was a severe one for the Confederates. The National loss in the capture of the island was about 50 killed and 222 wounded. That of the Confederates was 23 killed, 58 wounded, and 62 missing.

Roberts, BENJAMIN STONE, was born at Manchester, Vt., in 1811; graduated at West Point in 1835, and entered the dragoons. He resigned in 1839 and engaged in engineering, and in 1841 was assistant geologist of the State of New York. In 1842 he went to Russia to assist Colonel Whistler in building railroads there. Returning, he was admitted to the bar and began its practice in Iowa in 1843, and when the war with Mexico broke out he re-entered the army as first-lieutenant of mounted rifles, and served under General Lane. In 1861 he was major of the Third Cavalry on duty in New Mexico, and afterwards being in command of the Southern District, under General Canby, he defended Fort Craig against Texan forces under Sibley. (See *Valverde*.) He was ordered to Washington, made brigadier-general (July 16, 1862), and was assigned to duty in the Army of Virginia (which see) under Pope, as chief of cavalry. He commanded a division of the Nineteenth Corps in Louisiana in the summer of 1864, and from October, 1864, to Jan. 24, 1865, was chief of cavalry in the Department of the Gulf. In the summer of 1865 he was in command in West Tennessee.

Robertson, JAMES, a British general, was born in Fifeshire, Scotland; died in England, March 4, 1788. He was deputy-quartermaster under General Abercrombie in 1758, was at the capture of Louisburg, and accompanied Amherst to Lake Champlain in 1759. He took part in the expedition against Martinique in 1762, and was afterwards stationed in New York. At Boston in 1775 he was made major-general (Jan. 1, 1776), and at the evacuation of that city he shared in the plunder. (See *Evacuation of Boston*.) He was in the battle of Long Island (which see); was military governor of New York until his return to England, and, coming back, was commissioned military governor of the city of New York in May, 1779, and remained such until April, 1783, when he again returned to England.

Robertson, JAMES, who has justly been called the Father of Tennessee, was born in Brunswick County, Va., June 28, 1742. He emigrated to the rich regions beyond the mountains about the year 1760, and on the banks of the Watauga, a branch of the Tennessee, he made a settlement and lived there several years. He was often called upon to contest for life with the savages of the forest. In 1776 he was chosen to command a fort built near the mouth of the Watauga. In 1779 Captain Robertson was at the head of a party emigrating to the still richer country of the Cumberland, and upon Christmas-eve of that year they arrived upon the spot where Nashville now stands. Others joined them, and in the following summer they numbered about two hundred. A settlement was established, and Robertson founded the city of Nashville. The Cherokee Indians attempted to destroy the settlement, but, through the skill and energy of

Robertson and a few companions, that calamity was averted. They built a log fort on the high bank of the Cumberland, and in that the settlers were defended against full seven hundred Indi-

which my bed affords shall be given you, provided, always, that I shall retain a part of the same." He was then seventy-one, and she sixty-three years of age. She went to him, and was at his side when he died at his post in the Indian country the year following. His death occurred on the 1st of September, 1814, and on the 2d his remains were buried at the Agency. In 1825 they were removed to Nashville, and, in the presence of a large concourse of citizens, were reinterred in the cemetery there. A plain tomb covers the spot. The remains of his wife rest by his side, and the observer may there read the following inscriptions: "General James Robertson, the founder of Nashville, was born in Virginia, 28th June, 1742. Died 1st September, 1814." "Charlotte R., wife of James Robertson, was born in North Carolina, 2d January, 1751. Died 11th June, 1843." Their son, Dr. Felix Robertson, who was born in the fort, and the first white child whose birth was in West Tennessee, died at Nashville in 1864.

Roberval in Canada. In prosecution of his design of planting a colony in Canada (see *Cartier, Jacques*), Roberval finally sailed from France with three ships and two hundred persons, and in the harbor of St. Johns, N. E., met Cartier, who was on his return to Europe. He commended the country of Canada to Roberval as rich and fruitful. The latter commanded Cartier to return to the St. Lawrence with him, but the navigator eluded the viceroy in the night and sailed for France. Roberval sailed up the St. Lawrence some distance above the site of Quebec, built a fort, and remained there through the winter (1542-43). In the spring he explored the country above, but appears to have abandoned the enterprise soon afterwards. The colony was broken up, and for half a century the French made no further attempts to colonize Canada. In 1549 Roberval, accompanied by his brothers and a numerous train of adventurers, embarked again for the River St. Lawrence, but they were never heard of afterwards.

Robinson, BEVERLY, loyalist, was born in Virginia in 1734; died at Thornbury, England, in



JAMES ROBERTSON.

ans in 1781. The settlement was erected into a county of North Carolina, and Robertson was its first representative in the State Legislature. In 1790 the "Territory South of the Ohio River" was formed, and Washington appointed Robertson brigadier-general and commander of the militia in it. In that capacity he was very active in defence of the settlements against the savages. At the same time he practised the most exact justice towards the Indians, and when these children of the forest were no longer hostile, his kindness towards the oppressed among them made him very popular. At length, when the emissaries, white and red, from the British in the North began to sow the seeds of discontent among them at the breaking-out of the war in 1812, the government wisely appointed General Robertson agent to the Chickasaw tribe. He was ever watchful of the national interest. As early as March, 1813, he wrote, "The Chickasaws are in a high strain for war against the enemies of the country. They have declared war against all passing Creeks who attempt to go through their nation. They have declared, if the United States will take a campaign against the Creeks [because of some murders committed by them near the mouth of the Ohio], that they are ready to give them aid." A little later he suggested the employment of companies of Chickasaws and Choctaws to defend the frontiers and to protect travellers, and he was seconded by Pitchlyn, an active and faithful Indian. During the war General Robertson remained at his post among the Indians, and invited his aged wife to share his privations by quaintly saying to her by a messenger, "If you shall come this way, the very best chance for rest and sleep

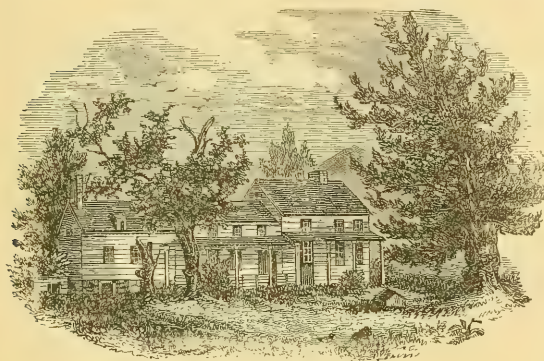


BEVERLY ROBINSON.

1792. He was a major under Wolfe at Quebec, and afterwards married a daughter of Frederick

Phillipse, owner of the Phillipse Manor, on the Hudson. He opposed the measures of the British government up to the Declaration of Independence, when he took sides with that government; moved his family into the city of New York; raised the "Loyal American Regiment," of which he was colonel, and was concerned in some degree as a sort of go-between with the treason of Arnold, who occupied Robinson's country-house, opposite West Point, at the time

Robinson, JOHN, was born in England in 1575; died at Leyden, Holland, March 1, 1625. He was educated at Cambridge, and in 1602 became pastor of a dissenting congregation at Norwich. The church was persecuted, and in 1607 the members attempted to leave England and seek an asylum in Holland, but were prevented by officers of the law, who kept the whole company under arrest for some time. In 1608 most of them made their escape in small parties and joined each other at Amsterdam. The next year they went to Leyden, where they organized a church, and remained eleven years. In 1617 another removal was contemplated, and the pastor favored emigration to America. Agents went to England and made arrangements for such emigration, and late in 1620 a portion of the Leyden congregation, under the spiritual leadership of Elder William Brewster, reached the New England coast. (See *Brewster, William*.) Robinson intended to follow with the remainder of the congregation, but he died before the consent of the English merchants who controlled the enterprise could be obtained. (See *Pilgrims*.) Not long afterwards the remainder of his congregation and his two sons followed the passengers in the *Mayflower*. Mr. Robinson was an acute controversialist. In 1613 he had a controversy on "Free-will" with Episcopius's successor, a professor in the University of Leyden; his published works make, with a memoir, three volumes.



THE ROBINSON HOUSE.

of that transaction. At the end of the war Robinson went to England with a portion of his family, and his property was confiscated. His house, from which Arnold fled on the discovery of his treason, has been preserved in much the same condition as it was at that time (1780). It is a frame building, and stands back from the river about half a mile, upon a fertile plateau at the western foot of the lofty hills on which redoubts were planted by the Americans during the Revolution.

Robinson, EDWARD, D.D., LL.D., a Biblical scholar, was born at Southington, Conn., April 10, 1794; died in New York, Jan. 27, 1863. He graduated at Hamilton College in 1816, and married a daughter of Samuel Kirkland, the missionary, who died in 1819. He became an assistant instructor in Andover Theological Seminary. Four years (1826-30) he travelled in Europe, where he married Thérèse, daughter of Professor Jakob, of Halle, a woman of fine literary attainments. From 1830 to 1833 he was Professor of Sacred Literature and Librarian at Andover, and from 1837 until his death he was Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary in New York city. Professor Robinson visited Palestine in 1838, and, with Rev. Eli Smith, made a minute survey of it, an account of which was published in Halle, London, and Boston in 1841. He made a second visit in 1852, the result of which was published in 1856. Doctor Robinson's researches in Palestine are regarded by Biblical scholars as of the first importance. At the time of his death he was engaged upon a physical and historical geography of the Holy Land. He was an active member of geographical, oriental, and ethnological societies, and was the author or translator of Greek and Hebrew lexicons.

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Robinson, JOHN CLEVELAND, was born at Binghamton, N. Y., April 10, 1817. He took a partial course of study at West Point, leaving it to study law. He served in the war against Mexico, and at the beginning of the Civil War was in command at Fort McHenry, Baltimore. As brigadier-general he took command of a division in Heintzelman's corps in the battle before Richmond in 1862. He was also in the principal battles in Virginia and Pennsylvania in 1863, and retired as major-general in 1869.

Robinson, SIR FREDERICK PHILLIPSE, son of Beverly, the Loyalist, was born in the Hudson Highlands in September, 1763; died at Brighton, England, Jan. 1, 1852. In 1777, though only fourteen years of age, he was made ensign of his father's regiment of American loyalists. He was wounded and made prisoner at the capture of Stony Point. He left the United States with his father in 1783, and served in the West Indies, Spain, and Canada, rising to the rank of full general in 1841. He commanded a brigade at the battle of Vittoria, Spain; was wounded at the siege of St. Sebastian; and at the close of the Peninsular War went to Canada as commander-in-chief of the forces there, and was engaged in the events of the War of 1812-15. General Robinson was Governor of Upper Canada in 1815-16, and in the former year was knighted. He received the Grand Cross in 1838.

Rochambeau, JEAN BAPTISTE DONATIEN DE

VIMEUR, Count de, was born at Vendôme, France, July 1, 1725; died in May, 1807. He entered the army at the age of sixteen years, and in 1745 he became aid to Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans. He afterwards commanded a regiment, and was



COUNT DE ROCHAMBEAU.

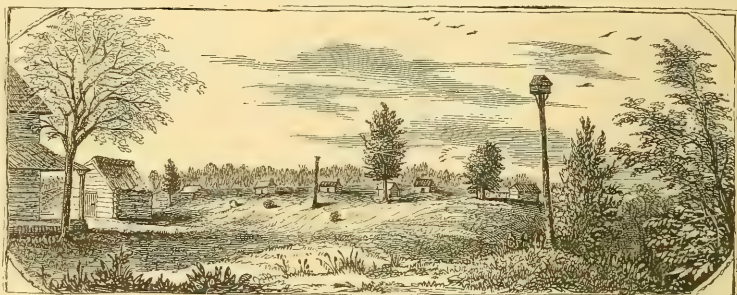
wounded at the battle of Lafeldt. He was distinguished in several battles, especially at Minden. When it was resolved by the French monarch to send a military force to America, Rochambeau was created a lieutenant-general and placed in command of it. He arrived at Newport, R. I., in July, 1780, and joined the American army under Washington, on the Hudson, a few miles above New York. He led his army to the Virginia peninsula, and assisted in the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown Oct. 19, 1781, when he was presented with one of the captured cannons. In 1783 he received the decoration of Saint Esprit, and in 1791 was made a marshal of France. Early in 1792 he was placed in command of the Army of the North, and narrowly escaped the guillotine when the Jacobins wielded supreme power in Paris. Bonaparte (First Consul) gave him a pension in 1804, and the Cross of Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor. His *Memoirs* were published in two volumes in 1809.

Roche, MARQUIS DE LA, Lord of Roberval, a wealthy French nobleman, commissioned by Henry IV., gathered a company from the prisons of France, and in the spring of 1598 sailed for the Western Continent to make conquests and a settlement. He landed forty of his convict followers on Sable Island, in the Atlantic Ocean, ninety miles southeast from Nova Scotia, and then proceeded to the latter region, where De Monts arrived soon afterwards. (See *De Monts, Sieur*.) After exploring that country, De la Roche returned to France without attempting to make a settlement, leaving the forty men on Sable Island. There they remained seven

years, when the king, hearing of their fate, sent Chetodel, De la Roche's pilot, to take them away. But only twelve were left alive, who were clad in seal-skins. They were taken to France, and were pardoned by the king, who gave each of them fifty crowns.

Rockingham Ministry, THE. Lord North resigned the Premiership of England on March 28, 1782, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Rockingham as Prime-minister. The avowed principle of Rockingham and his colleagues was to acknowledge the independence of the United States and treat with them accordingly. Lord Shelburne still hoped for a reconciliation and the restoration of the American colonies as a part of the British empire. John Adams was at the Hague, negotiating a treaty of commerce, and overtures were made to him, as well as to Franklin at Paris, to ascertain whether the United States would not agree to a separate peace, and to something less than entire independence. With this object, the ministry appointed Sir Guy Carleton to supersede General Clinton in command of the British army in America, and commissioned him, along with Admiral Digby, to treat for peace. Their powers to treat were made known to Congress, but that body declined to negotiate, except in conjunction with France, in fulfilment of the agreement of the Treaty of Alliance (which see) at Paris. While these matters were under consideration Lord Rockingham died (July 1, 1782), and was succeeded by Shelburne.

Rocky Mount, SKIRMISH AT (1780). When Gates was marching on Camden (see *Sanders's Creek, Battle at*), Colonel Thomas Sumter first appeared in power on the borders of the Catawba River. He had gathered a considerable force, and on July 30 he left Major Davie's camp, crossed to the right bank of the Catawba, and proceeded cautiously but swiftly to attack a British post at Rocky Mount. The British



VIEW AT ROCKY MOUNT.

commander, warned of his approach by a Tory, was prepared. A sharp skirmish ensued, and Sumter was repulsed. The site of this battle is near the right bank of the Catawba River. The view in the picture is in a northeasterly direction, looking towards Lancaster district.

Rodgers, JOHN, was born in Harford County, Md., in 1771; died in Philadelphia, Aug. 1, 1838. He entered the navy as lieutenant in 1798, and was executive officer of the frigate *Constellation*,

Commodore Truxtun, which captured *L'Insurgente* (which see). He did good service in the Mediterranean from 1802 to 1806, commanding the squadron of Commodore Barron in 1804. In



JOHN RODGERS.

the spring of 1811 he was in command of the *President*, and in May had a combat with the *Little Belt*. (See *President and Little Belt*.) His services during the War of 1812-15 were very important (see *Rogers's Long Cruise*), and from 1815 to 1824 he was President of the Board of Naval Commissioners, acting as Secretary of the Navy a while in the latter part of 1823. On his return from a cruise in the Mediterranean (1824-27) he was again in the Board of Naval Commissioners, which position he relinquished in 1837.—His son, Rear-admiral JOHN RODGERS, was born in Maryland, Aug. 8, 1811, and entered the navy in 1828. He was made captain in July, 1862. He commanded the *Hancock* in an exploring expedition to the North Pacific and China Seas (1853-56), and in 1862 he superintended the construction of iron-clad gunboats on the Western waters. He commanded an expedition of gunboats up the James River in 1862; and in June, 1863, in the "monitor" *Weehawken*, he captured the powerful Confederate "ram" *Atlanta* in Wassaw Sound. In the "monitor" *Monadnoc*, he made the passage around Cape Horn to San Francisco in 1867; and in 1871 he captured the Corean forts, with the Asiatic fleet. He died May 4, 1880.

Rodgers's Long Cruise (1813). While Commodore Porter was on his extended cruise in the Pacific Ocean (see *Essex, Cruise of the*), Commodore Rodgers was on a long cruise in the North Atlantic in his favorite frigate, the *President*, 44 guns. He left Boston on April 27, 1813, in company with the *Congress*, 38, and, after a cruise of one hundred and forty-eight days, arrived at Newport, R. I., having captured eleven

merchant vessels and the British armed schooner *Highflyer*. Rodgers sailed northeastward, in the direction of the southern edge of the Gulf Stream, until May 8, when the *President* and *Congress* separated, near the Azores. For weeks Rodgers was singularly unsuccessful, not meeting with a vessel of any kind. When his presence in British waters became known, it produced great excitement among the English shipping. Many cruisers were sent out to capture or destroy the *President*. Rodgers's supplies finally began to fail in the Northern seas, and he put into North Bergen, Norway, for the purpose of replenishment. In this, too, he was disappointed. An alarming scarcity of food prevailed all over the country, and he could only get water. He cruised about in those high latitudes, hoping to fall in with a fleet of English merchantmen that were to sail from Archangel; but, instead of these, he suddenly fell in with two British ships-of-war. Unable to contend with them, the *President* fled, hotly pursued. Owing to the perpetual daylight there, they were enabled to chase her for full eighty hours. She finally escaped. Rodgers had got some supplies from two merchantmen which he had captured just before meeting the warriors, and he turned westward to intercept such vessels coming out of the Irish Channel. He soon afterwards met and captured these (July and August), and, after making a complete circuit of Ireland, he steered for the Banks of Newfoundland. Towards evening, Sept. 23, the *President* fell in with the British armed schooner *Highflyer*, the tender to Admiral Warren's flag-ship *St. Domingo*. She was a staunch vessel and fast sailer, and was commanded by Lieutenant Hutchinson, one of Cockburn's subalterns when he plundered and burned Havre-de-Grace (which see), the home of Rodgers. By stratagem, the latter decoyed the *Highflyer* alongside the *President*. Rodgers had obtained some British signal-books before leaving Boston, and he had caused some signal-flags to be made on his ship. When he came in sight of the *Highflyer*, he raised a British ensign, which was responded to, and a signal was also displayed at the mast-head of the *Highflyer*. Rodgers was delighted to find he possessed its complement. He signalled that his vessel was the *Sea Horse*, one of the largest of the British vessels of its class in American waters. The *Highflyer* bore down and hove to close to the *President*, and received one of Rodgers's lieutenants on board, who was dressed in British naval uniform. He bore an order from Rodgers, under an assumed name, to send his signal-books on board the *Sea Horse* to be altered, as the Yankees, it was alleged (and truly), had obtained possession of some of them. Hutchinson obeyed, and Rodgers was put in possession of the whole signal correspondence of the British navy. Hutchinson soon followed his signal-books, putting into Rodgers's hands a bundle of despatches for Admiral Warren. He told the commodore that the chief object of the admiral then was to capture the *President*, which had spread alarm in British waters. "What kind

of a man is Rodgers?" asked the commodore. The unsuspecting lieutenant replied, "I have never seen him, but I am told he is an odd fish, and hard to catch." "Sir!" said Rodgers, with emphasis that startled Hutchinson, "do you know what vessel you are on board of?" The lieutenant answered, "Why, yes, sir, his majesty's ship *Sea Horse*." "Then, sir," said Rodgers, "you labor under a mistake; you are on board the *President*, and I am Commodore Rodgers." At that moment the band struck up "Yankee Doodle" on the *President's* quarter-deck, the American ensign was displayed, and the uniforms of the marines were suddenly changed from red to blue. The lieutenant was astonished and utterly overwhelmed with shame, for the sword at his side had been taken from Rodgers's house at Havre de Grace. He had been instructed not to fall into the hands of Rodgers, for, it was alleged, the commodore would hang him to the yard-arm. But Rodgers treated him with great courtesy, and soon afterwards released him on parole. This transaction occurred off the New England coast, and three days afterwards Rodgers entered Newport harbor with his prize. In December he cruised southward with some success, and finally he dashed through the British blockading squadron off Sandy Hook (Feb. 14, 1814) and sailed into New York harbor. He was entertained at a banquet in New York, at which he gave the following toast: "Peace—if it can be obtained without the sacrifice of national honor or the abandonment of maritime rights; otherwise war until peace shall be secured without the sacrifice of either."

Rodman, THOMAS J., inventor of the Rodman gun, was born in Indiana in 1821; died at Rock Island, Ill., June 7, 1871. He graduated at West Point in 1841, entering the Ordnance Department. He was breveted brigadier-general in 1865.

Rodney and De Grasse. When, late in 1781, De Grasse, with his fleet, left the coast of the United States, and, going to the West Indies, gave France the naval ascendancy there, St. Eustatius (which see) was recaptured and restored to the Dutch, and St. Christopher, Nevis, and Montserrat were successively taken by the French forces. Late in February, 1781, Rodney reappeared at Barbadoes, and soon afterwards effected a junction with the squadron of Sir Samuel Hood, to the leeward of Antigua. He closely watched De Grasse from St. Lucia. After various manoeuvres, Rodney and De Grasse fought a famous battle (April 12, 1782) on the waters that lie between the islands of Guadeloupe, the Saintes, and Marie Galante. Rodney had thirty-six ships; De Grasse had a less number, but greater weight of metal. The battle began at seven in the morning and continued for eleven hours. Rodney, at about the middle of the engagement, cut the French line, and the battle was continued in detail. The British were successful, but the colors of the *Ville de Paris*, De Grasse's flag-ship, were not struck until she was on the point of foundering and had only three men left unhurt upon her upper

deck. Four other French ships were captured. The British lost 1000 men; the French 3000, for their vessels were crowded with land-troops. The feeling which England experienced on hearing of this victory reconciled her ministers and the king, somewhat, to the loss of the colonies, for it assured her that she had regained the dominion of the sea.

Rodney, CÆSAR, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Dover, Del., about 1730; died early in 1783. At the age of twenty-eight he was appointed sheriff of Kent County, Del., and afterwards was a judge. He represented his district in the Legislature, and was sent to the Stamp Act Congress (which see) in 1765. For several years he was Speaker of the Delaware Assembly; was a member of the Committee of Correspondence, and of Congress in 1774 and afterwards. (See *Declaration of Independence*.) Made a brigadier-general, he was active in supplying Delaware troops to the army under Washington, and, early in 1777, was in command of the Delaware line in New Jersey. From 1778 to 1782 he was president of his state.

Rogers, ROBERT, was a famous partisan ranger in the French and Indian War. He was born at Dunbarton, N. H., about 1730, and died in England about 1800. His father was an Irish settler in New Hampshire. Raising a corps of rangers, he was commissioned a major, and he and his men became renowned for their exploits during that war. In 1759 he destroyed the Indian village of St. Francis (see *Crown Point*); and in 1760 he was sent by General Amherst to take possession of Detroit and other Western posts ceded to the English by the French. Going to England, he there published his journal, which he presented to the king, who, in 1765, made him governor of Michilimackinac (Mackinaw); but he was shortly afterwards sent to Montreal, in irons, to be tried on a charge of a design to plunder the fort and join the French. He was acquitted, went to England, was presented to the king, and was soon afterwards imprisoned for debt. Released, he went to Algiers and fought in two battles for the Dey. Returning to America, he joined the royalists on the breaking-out of the war for independence, and raised the famous corps known as the "Queen's Rangers." Rogers published two works on the French and Indian War, as well as two or three other books.

Rogersville, SURPRISE AT (1863). Colonel Garrard, of General Shackleford's command (see *Blue Springs, Battle at*), with two regiments and a battery, was posted at Rogersville, in East Tennessee, and there was suddenly attacked (Nov. 6, 1863) by Confederates under General W. E. Jones, about 2000 in number. It was a surprise. The Nationals were routed, with a loss of 750 men, four guns, and thirty-six wagons. This disaster created great alarm. Shackleford's troops at Jonesborough and Greenville fled in haste back to Bull's Gap, and the Confederates, not doubting Shackleford's horsemen would be after them in great force, fled as hastily towards Virginia, in the opposite direction.

There was now a wide space of country between the belligerents.

Roman Catholic Church in the United States. Soon after the treaty of peace in 1783 the pope's nuncio at Paris made overtures to Franklin on the subject of appointing a bishop, or vicar-apostolic, for the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. Franklin laid the matter before Congress, and that body replied that the subject, being purely spiritual, did not fall under their control. As there was no ruling hierarchy in the United States, this answer was construed as a tacit consent, and soon afterwards the pope appointed John Carroll, of Maryland, his vicar-apostolic. Carroll was soon afterwards consecrated bishop of Baltimore, and, finally, archbishop. (See *Carroll, John*.)

Romans, BERNARD, engineer, was born in Holland, and died about 1784. He was employed as an engineer in America by the British government, some time before the Revolution. While in government employ as a botanist, in New York, and engaged in the publication of a *Natural History of Florida*, the Committee of Safety of that city offered him the position of military engineer. He accepted the service, and was afterwards employed by Congress to fortify the Highlands east of West Point. At or near the close of the war he was captured at sea, on his way to Charleston, taken to England, and in 1784 embarked for America. It is supposed he was murdered on the passage. He published a *Map of the Seat of Civil War in America, 1775*; also *Annals of the Troubles in the Netherlands, from the Accession of Charles V.*, which was dedicated to Governor Trumbull.

Romney, SKIRMISH AT. One of the most important of the earlier military operations of the late Civil War, in its moral effect, was performed under the direction of Colonel (afterwards Major-general) Lew. Wallace, with his regiment of Zouaves, the Eleventh Indiana, raised by himself, and presented with its colors by the women of Indiana. It was at first sent to Evansville, in southern Indiana, on the Ohio River, to prevent supplies of any kind being sent to the South. There, as a police force, it chafed with impatience for more active service, and on June 6 it was ordered to proceed to Cumberland, Md., and join General Patterson, then moving from Pennsylvania towards Harper's Ferry, where the Confederate general Joseph E. Johnston was with a strong force. Travelling by railway, the regiment reached Grafton, Va., very soon, and on the night of the 9th was near Cumberland. At Romney, Va., only a day's march south from Cumberland, there was then an insurgent force, about 1200 strong. Wallace resolved to attack it at once, and so put the insurgents in that region on the defensive. Led by faithful guides along an unguarded mountain road, at night, Wallace, with 800 of his men (having left the others at New Creek), made a perilous journey, and got near Romney at eight o'clock on the evening of June 11. In a narrow pass, half a mile from the

bridge that spanned the south branch of the Potomac at Romney, the advance of the Zouaves was fired upon by insurgent pickets. The camp of the latter was on a bluff near the village, where they had planted two cannons. The Indians pressed forward, drove the insurgents before them, and, pushing directly up the hill, captured the battery. After a slight skirmish, the insurgents fled in terror to the forest, leaving only women and children (excepting negroes) in the village. Having no cavalry with which to pursue the fugitives, Wallace at once retraced his steps and returned to Cumberland. In the space of twenty-four hours he and his men had travelled eighty-seven miles without rest (forty-six of them on foot), engaged in a brisk skirmish, "and, what is more," reported the gallant colonel, "my men are ready to repeat it to-morrow." The indomitable energy, skill, and spirit displayed in this dash on Romney had a salutary effect, and made the insurgents in all that region more cautious and circumspect. According to the Richmond papers, it so alarmed Johnston by its boldness and its menace of his line of communication with Richmond and Manassas (for he supposed them to be the advance of a much larger force near), that he immediately evacuated Harper's Ferry and moved up the Shenandoah valley to Winchester. This battle occurred on June 11, 1861.

Rosecrans, WILLIAM STARKE, was born at Kingston, O., Dec. 6, 1819, and graduated at West Point in 1842, entering the engineer corps. He was assistant professor in the military academy from 1843 to 1847, and resigned on account



WILLIAM STARKE ROSECRANS.

of ill-health in 1854. When the Civil War broke out he became volunteer aid to General McClellan, and in May, 1861, was made a brigadier-general of the United States Army, doing excellent service in western Virginia during the ensuing summer and fall. He commanded a division at the siege of Corinth in May, 1862; commanded the Army of the Mississippi until October, defeating Price at Iuka (see *Iuka Springs, Battle near*), and Van Dorn and Price at Corinth in October. Then he was made commander of the Army of the Cumberland, and in December

(1862) won a victory in the battle at Stone's River. In September, 1863, he fought and lost the battle of Chickamauga, when he was relieved of his command. In 1864 he commanded the Department of Missouri, and defeated the object of Price's raid. In 1865 he was brevetted major-general of the U. S. Army. He resigned in 1867, and was appointed minister to Mexico, but was soon recalled. From 1881-85 he was a member of Congress from California. From 1885-93 he was Register of the U. S. Treasury, and in 1889 he became brig.-gen. on the retired-list.

Ross, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at New Castle, Del., in 1730; died at Lancaster, Penn., July, 1779. He became a lawyer at Lancaster in 1751; was a representative in the Pennsylvania Assembly from 1768 to 1770, and in 1774 was elected to the first Continental Congress. He was a ready writer and a most skilful committeeman. A few months after he signed the Declaration of Independence ill-health compelled him to leave Congress (January, 1777). After the dissolution of the proprietary government in Pennsylvania a convention appointed him to draw up a "Declaration of Rights;" and a short time before his death he was made judge of the Court of Admiralty.

Ross, JOHN (Koo-wes-koo-we), a Cherokee chief, was born in Georgia in 1790; died in Washington, D. C., Aug. 1, 1866. He was a quarter-breed Indian, and was well educated. In 1828 he became principal chief of the Cherokee na-



JOHN ROSS.

tion, and from the beginning was an efficient champion of their rights against the encroachments and cupidity of the white race. About six hundred of the nation, led by John Ridge, concluded a treaty with the United States, agreeing to surrender the lands of the Cherokees and go west of the Mississippi River. Against this treaty Ross and about fifteen thousand Cherokees protested, but the United States government, having a preponderance of brute force, sent General Scott with troops to compel the Indians to abide by a treaty made by a small minority. They went sadly to their new home, with Ross at their head, a moderate allowance being made them for their losses.

When the Civil War broke out the Cherokees were seduced from their allegiance to the government and joined the Confederacy. Ross, who was a loyal man, protested, but was compelled to yield, and made a treaty with the Confederate government. At the time of his death Ross was urging the claims of his nation to remuneration for losses incurred during the war.

Ross, ROBERT, a British general, was born at Ross Trevor, Devonshire, Eng.; killed near North Point, Md., Sept. 12, 1814. He had served as an officer of foot in Holland and in Egypt; was in the campaign in Spain under Sir John Moore, and commanded a brigade in the battles of Vittoria and the Pyrenees. He commanded the troops sent against Washington in August, 1814, and was successful; but attempting to co-operate with the British fleet in an attack on Baltimore, in September, he was slain while riding towards that city, chatting gayly with an aide-de-camp.

Ross, SIR JOHN, Arctic explorer, was born in Scotland, June 24, 1777; died in London, Aug. 30, 1856. He entered the royal navy when nine years of age, and became a rear-admiral in 1851. He began Arctic voyages in 1828, with Captain Parry as his lieutenant, and in 1850 went in search of Sir John Franklin, in a vessel of ninety tons. In the naval service he was wounded thirteen times.

Rousseau, LOVELL HARRISON, was born in Lincoln County, Ky., Aug. 4, 1818; died in New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1869. In early life, having very little education, he worked at road-making, but finally studied law and was admitted to the bar at Bloomfield, Ind., in 1841. He served in the Indiana Legislature and in the war against Mexico. Settling at Louisville in 1849, he soon took a high place in his profession as a criminal lawyer. He was a member of the Kentucky Senate in 1860, and took a decided stand for the government against the Secessionists and against the quasi-neutrality of that state. (See



LOVELL HARRISON ROUSSEAU.

Kentucky Neutrality.) At the outbreak of the Civil War he raised two regiments, but was obliged to encamp on the Ohio side of the river,

where he established Camp Joe Holt. In September (1861) he crossed the river to protect Louisville, and in October was made brigadier-general of volunteers. With a part of Buell's army he fought at Shiloh (which see), and took a conspicuous part in the battle of Perryville (which see), for which he was promoted to major-general. He was also conspicuous in the battle at Stone's River (which see); was in the campaign in northern Georgia, in 1863, and fought at Chickamanga (which see); commanded the District of Tennessee in 1864, and made a famous raid into Alabama. From 1865 to 1867 he was in Congress. In the latter year he was made a brigadier-general in the United States Army and assigned to duty in Alaska. He afterwards commanded in New Orleans. General Rousseau was a supporter of the policy of President Johnson.

Rowan, STEPHEN C., was born in Ireland, Dec. 25, 1808, and entered the United States Navy as midshipman in February, 1826. He served on the Pacific coast in the war against Mexico, and early in the Civil War commanded the sloop-of-war *Pawnee* in action at Aquia Creek (which see). He was also a participant in the capture of the Confederate forts at Hatteras. He commanded the naval flotilla in the attack on Roanoke Island (which see), and performed good service in the sounds on the coast of North Carolina; also in the attacks on Forts Wagner, Gregg, and Sumter, in Charleston harbor. In 1868-69 he commanded the Asiatic squadron. In September, 1870, he was made vice-admiral. Died March 30, 1890.

Royal Authority, END OF, in SOUTH CAROLINA. (See *Campbell, Lord William.*)

Royal Colonial Commission, FIRST (1634). Morton of Merry Mount made serious charges against the people of Massachusetts before the Privy Council. (See *Merry Mount.*) That body summoned the Council for New England before them to answer the charges. They denied having had anything to do with matters complained of, and added new and serious charges of their own, declaring themselves unable to redress their grievances. They referred the whole matter to the Privy Council. A commission of twelve persons was appointed, with Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, at its head, to whom full power was given to revise the laws, to regulate the Church, and to revoke charters. The members of the Massachusetts Company in England were called upon to give up their patent, and Governor Cradock wrote for it to be sent over. Morton wrote to one of the old planters that a governor-general had been appointed. Orders were also issued to the seaport towns of England to have all vessels intended for America stopped. The colonists were alarmed. The magistrates and clergy met on an island at the entrance to the inner harbor of Boston, and, resolving to resist the commissioners, agreed to erect a fort on the island, and to advance the means for the purpose themselves until the meeting of the General Court. They sent letters of remonstrance to England, and refused to

send over the charter before the meeting of the court. When that body met, in May, active measures for defence were adopted. They ordered a fort to be built in Boston. Military preparations were ordered, and three commissioners were appointed to conduct "any war that might befall for the space of a year next ensuing." The English government threatened, but did nothing. In September, 1635, a writ of *quo warranto* was issued against the Massachusetts Company; but everything went on in the colony as if no serious threats were impending. The political disorders in England were safeguards to the infant colony. It was after the appointment of this commission that Endicott cut the cross from the standard at Salem. (See *Mutilation of the British Standard.*)

Royal Colonial Commission, SECOND (1664). Territorial claims, rights of jurisdiction, boundaries, and other matters had created controversies in New England, which were continually referred to the crown, and in 1664 the king signified his intention to appoint a commission for hearing and determining all matters in dispute. This occasioned alarm in Massachusetts, which had been a narrow oppressor of other colonies, especially of Rhode Island, and against which serious complaints had been made. A large comet appearing at that time increased the general alarm, for it was regarded as portentous of evil, and a fast was ordered. Fearing a design to seize their charter might be contemplated, it was intrusted to a committee for safe-keeping. The commission was appointed, consisting of Sir Richard Nicolls, Sir Robert Carr, Sir George Cartwright, and Samuel Maverick, of Massachusetts. They came with an armament to take possession of New Netherland. Touching at Boston, the commissioners asked for additional soldiers, but the request was coldly received. The magistrates said they could not grant it without the authority of the General Court. That body soon met and voted two hundred soldiers. In Connecticut the commissioners were cordially received, and Governor Winthrop accompanied the expedition against New Netherland. After the conquest, they proceeded to settle the boundary between New York and Connecticut. (See *New Netherland, Conquest of, by the English, and New York, Colony of.*) Leaving Nicolls at New York as governor, the other commissioners proceeded to Boston. Meanwhile the authorities of Massachusetts had sent a remonstrance to England against the appointment of the commissioners. It was unheeded. The Massachusetts authorities were unyielding, the commissioners were haughty and overbearing, and a bitter mutual dislike finally made their correspondence mere bickerings. The commissioners proceeded to settle the boundary between Plymouth and Rhode Island. More difficult was the settlement of the boundary between Rhode Island and Connecticut, because of opposing claims to jurisdiction over the Pequot country. The commissioners finally directed that the region in dispute should constitute a separate district, under the title of the "King's Province" (which see). Neither party was satis-

fied, and the boundary dispute continued fifty years longer. The commissioners now proposed to sit as a court to hear complaints against Massachusetts, of which there were thirty. The General Court, by public proclamation, forbade such a proceeding, and the commissioners went to New Hampshire and Maine, when they decided in favor of claims of the heirs of Mason and Gorges. In the latter province they organized a new government; and on their return to Boston the authorities complained that the commissioners had disturbed the peace of Maine, and asked for an interview. It was denied by the commissioners, who denounced the magistrates as traitors because they opposed the king's orders. The commissioners having violated a local law by a carousal at a tavern, a constable was sent to break up the party, when one of the commissioners and his servant beat the officer. Another constable was sent to arrest the commissioners. They had gone to the house of a merchant. The officer went there and reproved them, saying, "It is well you have changed quarters, or I would have arrested you." "What," exclaimed Carr, "arrest the king's commissioners?" "Yes, and the king himself, if he had been here." "Treason! treason!" cried Maverick. "Knave, you shall hang for this!" The commissioners sent an account of their proceedings to the king, and soon afterwards they were recalled (1666). Their acts were approved, and those of all the colonies except Massachusetts, which was ordered to "appoint five able and meet persons to make answer for refusing the jurisdiction of the king's commissioners." Although this order produced considerable alarm, the sturdy magistrates of Massachusetts maintained their position with much adroitness, and the country being engaged in a foreign war, the nation left his majesty to fight alone for the maintenance of the royal prerogative. Massachusetts was victorious, and soon after the departure of the commissioners a force was sent to re-establish the authority of that colony over Maine.

Royal Governor, FIRST PETITION FOR THE RECALL OF A. In 1768 the Massachusetts Assembly, after declaring they would not rescind their Circular Letter (which see), adopted a petition to the king asking for the recall of Francis Bernard, the provincial governor, "that one more worthy to represent so great and good a king might be sent to preside over the province." This was the first instance of the recall of a royal governor having been asked for.

Royal Greens, JOHNSON'S. Sir John Johnson, son of Sir William, was commissioned a colonel in the British army soon after the outbreak of the Revolution, and raised two battalions, composed of Tories and his own Scotch retainers, in number about one thousand. This corps he called "The Royal Greens," because of their green uniforms. They were a formidable corps in connection with Indian allies, and carried destruction and distress throughout large portions of the Mohawk region.

Royal Jurisdiction in Virginia. While

Charles II., son of the beheaded king, was banished from England he exercised jurisdiction in Virginia. In June, 1650, he sent from Breda, his place of exile, a commission to Governor Berkeley, declaring his intention of ruling and ordering the colony of Virginia according to the laws and statutes of England, which were to be established there. The authority of the crown was acknowledged in Virginia, and at one time Charles thought of going to that colony to rule in person. The acknowledgment of royal authority in Virginia, Barbadoes, Bermuda, and Antigua caused the British Parliament to prohibit trade with these provinces. (See *Old Dominion*.)

Royal Orders to Employ Indians. In the summer of 1775 Stuart, the Indian Agent for the Southern Department, received royal orders, through General Gage, to employ the Indians against the "rebels." He was at Charleston, and one of the latest acts of Gage was to write to him from Boston, saying, "The people of Carolina, in turning rebels to their king, have lost all faith. Improve a correspondence with the Indians to the greatest advantage, and, when opportunity offers, even make them take arms against his majesty's enemies, and distress them all in their power; for no terms are now to be kept with them. They have brought down all the savages they could against us here, who, with their riflemen, are continually firing upon our advanced sentries. In short, no time should be lost to distress a set of people so wantonly rebellious. Supply the Indians with what they want, be the expense what it will, as every exertion must now be made on the part of the government." Concerning the employment of Indians by the Americans before Boston, see *Stockbridge Indians*.

Royal Prerogative (THE) and New York. The Board of Trade and Plantations, with the sanction of the king and Privy Council (which see), attempted to bring the province of New York to submission to the royal will. The Assembly had shown much independence of spirit in their dealings with the unpopular Governor Clinton. Sir Danvers Osborn, brother-in-law of the Earl of Halifax, was appointed to succeed Clinton. He was almost crazed by grief at the recent loss of his wife, and on the voyage brooded over the bereavement. His instructions for subduing the New-Yorkers were imperative. On his arrival he was received with acclamations by the people, while they hooted at the retiring Clinton. "I expect like treatment before I leave the government," he said, moodily, to Clinton. On the same day he was alarmed and made very nervous by an address from the council, who declared they would "not brook any infringement of their inestimable liberties, civil and religious." On the following day he communicated to the council his instructions, which required the Assembly "to recede from all encroachments on the prerogative," and "to consider, without delay, of a proper law for a permanent revenue, solid, definite, and without limitations." With distress marked on his

countenance, and with a plaintive voice, Osborn inquired whether these instructions would be obeyed. He was given to understand that they would not. With a sigh, he leaned against the window-frame and said, "Then why am I come here?" Honest, conscientious, and truthful, Osborn despaired. He spent the night in arranging his private affairs, and before the dawn hanged himself to a post of his garden fence.

Royal Rule, END OF, IN NORTH CAROLINA. (See *Martin, Governor Josiah, Flight of.*)

Royal Rule, END OF, IN VIRGINIA. Governor Dunmore called a meeting of the Virginia Assembly to consider a conciliatory proposition made by Lord North. They rejected it, and in his anger he fulminated proclamations against Henry and the committees of vigilance which were formed in every county in Virginia. He declared that, should one of his officers be molested in the performance of his duty, he would raise the royal standard, proclaim freedom to the slaves, and arm them against their masters. He sent his family (May 4, 1775) on board the British man-of-war *Fowey*, in the York River, fortified his "palace," and secretly placed powder under the magazine at Williamsburg, with the evident intention of blowing it up should occasion seem to require it. The discovery of this "gunpowder plot" greatly irritated the people. A rumor came (June 7) that armed marines were on their way from the *Fowey* to assist Dunmore to enforce the laws. The people flew to arms, and the governor, alarmed, took refuge on the man-of-war. He was the first of the royal governors who abdicated government at the beginning of the Revolution. From the *Fowey* Dunmore sent messages, addresses, and letters to the Burgesses in session at Williamsburg, and received communications from them in return. When all bills passed were ready for the governor's signature, he was invited to his Capitol to sign them. He declined, and demanded that they should present the papers at his residence on ship-board. Instead of this, the Burgesses delegated their powers to a permanent committee and adjourned. So ended royal rule in Virginia.

Royal Troops in Virginia, FIRST. (See *Berkeley, Sir William.*)

Royalist Colonies. The English colonists in the West Indies, as well as in Virginia and Maryland, adhered to Charles II., then in exile. In October, 1650, the victorious Parliament authorized the Council of State to send a land and naval force to bring these colonies into subjection, and all trade with these colonies was prohibited, and the capture of all vessels employed in it was authorized. Sir George Ayscue was sent with a fleet against Barbadoes, and another expedition, under the direction of five commissioners, was sent against the Virginians in September, 1651. Ships for this purpose were furnished by merchants trading with Virginia; and they bore seven hundred and fifty soldiers and one hundred and fifty Scotch prisoners taken at the battle of Worcester, sent

over to be sold in Virginia as servants. This expedition went by way of the West Indies, where it joined Ayscue, and assisted him in capturing Barbadoes, which he had not been able to do alone. The expedition reached the Chesapeake in March, 1652. There were several Dutch ships lying in the James River, whose crews agreed to assist in the defence of the province against the parliamentary forces. But a negotiation ensued, which resulted in a capitulation. Two sets of articles were signed—one with the Assembly, which was favorably inclined towards Parliament; the other with Governor Berkeley and his council, who were to be allowed a year to settle up their affairs, without being required to take new oaths. They were guaranteed the right to sell their property and go where they pleased. The Assembly was dealt fairly and honorably with. Those who did not choose to relinquish the use of the Book of Common Prayer, or to subscribe to a promise "to be true and faithful to the Commonwealth of England," as was then established, "without king or House of Lords," were allowed a year for making sale of their property and departing. The Dutch vessels were provided for. Berkeley's commission was declared void. A new assembly was called, when Richard Bennett, who accompanied the expedition, was elected Governor of Virginia, and Clayborne, who also came with the expedition, was chosen Secretary. (See *Clayborne, William.*)

Ruger, THOMAS H., was born in New York in 1833, and graduated at West Point in 1854, but resigned the next year and became a lawyer in Janesville, Wis. (1856-61). In 1861-62 he served in the Shenandoah valley as colonel of Wisconsin volunteers, and was in the battles of Antietam in 1862 and Chancellorsville in 1863. At Gettysburg he commanded a division, having been made brigadier-general in November, 1862. He commanded a brigade in the Atlanta campaign in 1864, and a division in operations in North Carolina until the surrender of Johnston (which see). He was breveted brigadier-general of the United States Army in 1867. He was afterwards superintendent of the Military Academy. He was (1893) brig.-general in the army.

Ruggles, TIMOTHY, loyalist, was born at Rochester, Mass., Oct. 11, 1711; died at Wilmot, N. S., Aug. 4, 1795. He was at the battle of Lake George (which see) at the head of a brigade, and was second in command. The next year (1756) he was made a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, and was chief-justice of that court from 1762 until the Revolution. In 1762 he was Speaker of the Assembly, and for many years an active member of that body. He was a delegate to the Stamp Act Congress (which see), and was made its president, but refused to concur in its measures. For this act the Legislature reprimanded him. On account of his Toryism he took refuge in Boston, where, in 1775, he tried without success to raise a corps of loyalists. When the British evacuated Boston (March, 1776) he went with the troops to Halifax, and

became one of the proprietors of the town of Digby, N. S. General Ruggles was a man of great ability and learning, and fluent in speech.

Rule of 1756. When in 1756 war between Great Britain and France was formally declared, the former power announced as a principle of national law that "no other trade should be allowed to neutrals with the colonies of a belligerent in time of war than what is allowed by the parent state in time of peace." This was in direct opposition to the law of nations promulgated by Frederick the Great—namely, "The goods of an enemy cannot be taken from on board the ships of a friend;" and also in direct violation of a treaty between England and Holland, in which it was stipulated expressly that "free ships make free goods"—that the neutral should enter safely and unmolested all the harbors of the belligerents, unless they were blockaded or besieged. This dictation of law to other nations for merely selfish purposes drew upon Great Britain the dislike of all. Then it was aimed directly at France, the weaker naval power.

Ruling Class, THE, IN THE SOUTH. Of the 11,000,000 inhabitants in the slave-labor states at the beginning of the Civil War, the ruling class in the South—those in whom resided in a remarkable degree the political power of those states—numbered about 1,000,000. Of these the large land and slave holders, whose influence in the body of 1,000,000 was almost supreme, numbered less than 200,000. In all the Southern States in 1850, less than 170,000 held 2,800,000 out of 3,300,000 slaves. The production of the great staple, cotton, which was regarded as king of kings, in an earthly sense, was in the hands of less than 100,000 men. The 11,000,000 inhabitants in the slave-labor states in 1860 consisted of 6,000,000 small slaveholders, and non-slaveholders, mechanics, and laboring-men; 4,000,000 negro slaves, and 1,000,000 known in those regions by the common name of "poor white trash," a degraded population scattered over the whole surface of those states. These figures are round numbers, proximately exact according to published statistics. There had been for many years a very strong desire among the "ruling class" in the South for a thoroughly aristocratic, if not a monarchical, government; and this strong desire stimulated efforts to dissolve the Union, and so get rid of political and social union with the democratic society of the free-labor states. Their determination to control or ruin the Republic was evinced about fifty years before the breaking-out of the Civil War. In the winter of 1812, John C. Calhoun said to Captain (late Admiral) Stewart, "That we are essentially aristocratic I cannot deny, but we can and do yield much to democracy. This is our sectional policy. We are, from necessity, thrown upon and solemnly wedded to that party, however it may occasionally clash with our feelings, for the conservation of our interests. It is through our affiliation with that party in the Middle and Western States that we hold power. But when we cease thus to control this nation, through a dis-

jointed democracy, or any material obstacle in that party shall tend to throw us out of the rule and control, we shall resort to a dissolution of the Union."—*Letter of Stewart to G. W. Childs. De Bow's Review*, the organ of the "ruling class," continually uttered sentiments like the following: "The right to govern resides in a very small minority; the duty to obey is inherent in the great mass of mankind. The real civilization of a country is in its aristocracy. The masses are moulded into soldiers and artisans by intellect, just as matter and the elements of Nature are made into telegraphs and engines. The poor who labor all day are too tired at night to study books. If you make them learned they soon forget all that is necessary in the common transactions of life. To make an aristocrat in the future, we must sacrifice a thousand paupers. Yet we would by all means make them—make them permanent, too, by laws of entail and primogeniture. An aristocracy is patriarchal, parental, and representative. The feudal barons of England were, next to the Fathers, the most perfect representative government. The king and barons represented everybody, because everybody belonged to them." And when the Civil War broke out the utterances of the Southern press, especially in South Carolina, showed a desire to sever a bond that placed the "ruling class" on a level with the Northern masses. "It is a gross mistake," wrote George Fitzhugh, a Virginian, "to suppose that 'Abolition' is the cause of dissolution between the North and the South. The Cavaliers, Jacobites, and the Huguenots of the South naturally hate, condemn, and despise the Puritans who settled the North. The former are master races, the latter a slave race, the descendants of the Saxon serfs." The *Charleston Mercury*, a violent secession paper, scorned the assertion that "Abolition twaddle" had caused any sectional feeling. It declared that it was an abiding consciousness of the degradation of the "chivalric Southrons" being placed on an equality in government with "the boors of the North" that made "Southern gentlemen" desire disunion. That paper, edited by the son of a leading disunionist, said, haughtily, "We are the most aristocratic people in the world. Pride of caste and color and privilege make every man an aristocrat in feeling." It was by men of this cast of mind that "Southern Rights" associations—organizations having the destruction of the Union in view—were formed and fostered for nearly thirty years before the war. This small class of deluded men, feeling themselves superior to all others on the continent as patrons of refinement, courtly manners, and every grace of chivalry, had for many years yearned for separation from the vulgar North. William H. Trescott, Assistant Secretary of State under Buchanan, and one of the most active members of the "Southern Rights Association" of South Carolina, said in an address before the South Carolina Historical Society in 1859, "More than once has the calm self-respect of old Carolina breeding been caricatured by the consequential insolence of vulgar imitation." Dr. Russell, the correspondent of the *London Times* in the

early period of our Civil War, wrote from South Carolina at the close of April, 1861, "There is a prevailing voice that says, 'If we could only get one of the royal race of England to rule over us we should be content.' That sentiment," he wrote, "varied a hundred ways, has been repeated to me over and over again." (See *Dissolution of the Union long Contemplated*.)

Rumford (Benjamin Thompson), COUNT, was born at Woburn, Mass., March 26, 1753; died at Auteuil, France, Aug. 21, 1814. In early youth he manifested much love for the study of science while engaged in a store in Boston at the time



COUNT RUMFORD.

of the Boston Massacre (which see). Then he taught school in Rumford (now Concord), N. H., and in 1772 he married a wealthy widow of that place, and he was appointed major of militia over several older officers. This offended them, and led to much annoyance for young Thompson. He was a conservative patriot, and tried to get a commission in the Continental Army, but his opponents frustrated him. He was charged with disaffection, and finally persecution drove him to take sides with the crown. He was driven from his home, and in October, 1775, he took refuge within the British lines in Boston. When Howe left for Halifax, he sent Thompson to England with despatches, where the Secretary of State gave him employment, and in 1780 he became Under-Secretary. In that year he returned to America, raised a loyalist corps called "The King's American Dragoons," and was made lieutenant-colonel, serving a short time in South Carolina. On returning to England at the close of the war, he was knighted, and in 1784 entered the service of the Elector of Bavaria as aide-de-camp and chamberlain. To that prince he was of infinite service in reorganizing the army and introducing many needed reforms. He greatly beautified Munich by converting an old hunting-ground into a handsome garden or park, and the grateful citizens afterwards erected a fine monument to his honor. Thompson had been successively raised to the rank of major-general in the army, member of the Council of State, lieutenant-general, commander-in-chief of the general staff, minister of war, and count of the Holy

Roman Empire. On the latter occasion he chose for his title, "Rumford," the name of the place where he had married his wife. In 1795 he again visited England, and returning to Bavaria in 1796, when that country was threatened by the war between France and Germany, he was appointed head of the Council of Regency during the absence of the elector, and maintained the neutrality of Munich. For this service honors were bestowed upon him, and he was made superintendent of the police of the electorate. At the end of two years he went back to England. The Bavarian government wished him to be its minister, but the English government, acting on the rule of inalienable allegiance, could not receive him as such. Count Rumford gave up his citizenship in Bavaria and settled in Paris. There he married for his second wife the widow of Lavoisier, and with her retired to the villa of Auteuil, where he spent the remainder of his life in philosophical pursuits, and contributed a great number of essays to scientific journals. He made many experiments and discoveries in the matter of heat and light. He instituted prizes for discoveries in regard to light and heat, to be awarded by the Royal Society of London and the American Academy of Sciences; and he bequeathed to Harvard University the funds by which was founded the Rumford Professorship of the Physical and Mathematical Sciences as Applied to the Useful Arts. It was established in October, 1816. He left a daughter by his first wife, who bore the title of Countess of Rumford, and who died at Concord in 1852.

Rumsey, JAMES, inventor, was born in Cecil County, Md., in 1743; died in London, Dec. 23, 1792. As early as 1784 he propelled a boat on the Potomac by machinery, and in 1786 he propelled one by steam on the same river, and obtained a patent for his discovery and invention from Virginia in 1787. A Rumsey Society, of which Franklin was a member, was formed in Philadelphia to aid him. He went to London, where a similar association was formed, and a boat and machinery were built for him. He obtained patents in Great Britain, France, and Holland. He made a successful experiment on the Thames in 1792, but before he could complete his invention he died. His agency in "giving to the world the benefit of the steamboat" was acknowledged and appreciated by the Kentucky Legislature, which, in 1839, presented a gold medal to his son in token of such acknowledgment.

Running the Gantlet. Leslie Combs, a captain of spies under General Green Clay, was made a prisoner with several companions at Dudley's defeat, opposite Fort Meigs. They were marched down to old Fort Miami. On the way the Indians were allowed by the British officers to rob the prisoners of their money, watches, and even clothing. Combs showed his wounds as a plea for consideration, but he, too, was stripped; and passing on they came to two lines of Indians near some scalped dead men, close by a ditch in front of the old gate of the fort. They extended nearly fifty feet. Between these the

prisoners were compelled to run for their lives, and in that race many were killed or maimed by pistols, war-clubs, scalping-knives, and tomahawks. The number of prisoners thus slaughtered, without Proctor's attempt at interference, was estimated at a number nearly equal to those slain in battle. When the prisoners were all inside the fort the Indians prepared to renew the slaughter. No British officer interfered, but Tecumtha, hearing of the affair, had hastened to the fort with all the speed his horse could command. He arrived in time to prevent the second massacre. General Combs lived almost eighty years to tell the tale. (See *Dustin, Hannah, Bravery of*; also *Combs, Leslie*.)

Rush, BENJAMIN, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born near Philadelphia, Dec. 24, 1745; died in Philadelphia, April 19, 1813. He studied medicine in Edinburgh, London, and Paris, as well as in Philadelphia, and became one of the most eminent physicians of his time, and filled professorial chairs. He was also a patriot, and took an active part in the great questions at the kindling of the war for independence. He urged in the Convention of Pennsylvania the expediency of a declaration of independence, and was elected to Congress in time to vote for it. He was made surgeon-general of the Middle Department in April, 1777, and in July physician-general. He resigned these positions early in 1778. About 1785 he proposed in Philadelphia the establishment of the first dispensary in the United States. Dr. Rush was a firm supporter of the national Constitution. During the prevalence of yellow fever in Philadelphia (1793), only Dr. Rush treated it successfully. It was estimated that he saved from death no fewer than six thousand people in Philadelphia. In one day he treated one hundred patients. He received marks of esteem for his medical skill from foreign potentates, and his writings upon medical subjects are numerous and valuable.

Rush, RICHARD, diplomatist, a son of the eminent physician Dr. Benjamin Rush, was born in Philadelphia, Aug. 29, 1780; died there, July 30, 1859. He graduated at Princeton in 1797; became a lawyer in 1800; attorney-general of Pennsylvania in 1811, and in November of that year comptroller of the United States Treasury. From 1814 to 1817 he was Attorney-general of the United States; was temporary Secretary of State under Monroe in 1817, and was minister at the British court from 1817 to 1825, where he negotiated several important treaties, especially that of 1818 respecting the fisheries. President Adams recalled him and made him Secretary of the Treasury in 1825. In 1829 he negotiated an advantageous loan for the corporations of Washington, Georgetown, and Alexandria. He assisted in adjusting a boundary dispute between Ohio and Michigan in 1835, and in 1836 the President of the United States appointed him commissioner to obtain the Smithsonian legacy, and he returned in August with the entire amount. (See *Smithson, James L. M.*) Mr. Rush was a vigorous writer, and in the newspapers of the day he pub-

lished many essays in favor of the war with England (1812-15); also in 1833 many able letters against the rechartering of the United States Bank (which see). In 1815 he compiled an edition of the laws of the United States.

Russell, BENJAMIN, journalist, was born Sept. 13, 1761; died Jan. 4, 1845. He learned the printer's art of Isaiah Thomas, served in the army of the Revolution, and was the army correspondent of Thomas's newspaper, the *Massachusetts Spy*, published at Worcester, Mass. In 1784 he began the publication, in Boston, of the *Columbian Centinel*, a semi-weekly, which soon became the leading newspaper in the country, containing contributions from men like Ames, Pickering, and other able men of the Federal school in politics. Mr. Russell was twenty-four years a representative of Boston in the Massachusetts Assembly, and was for several years in the State Senate and the Executive Council. He was the originator of the word "Gerrymander" (which see).

Russell, DAVID ALLEN, was born at Salem, N. Y., Dec. 10, 1820; died in battle at Oppaquan, Va., Sept. 19, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1845; served in the war against Mexico; was made captain of infantry in 1854; was lieutenant-colonel of the Seventh Massachusetts Volunteers in April, 1861, and brigadier-general in November, 1862. In the battle of Fredericksburg he led the advance; was distinguished in the battle of Gettysburg, and also in the campaign against Richmond, in 1864. His coolness and bravery saved the Sixth Corps from destruction on the second day of the battle in the Wilderness. On the 9th of May he was put in command of a division of that corps, and was severely wounded at the battle of Cool Arbor. He was afterwards transferred to the Army of the Shenandoah. (See *Winchester, Battle of*.)

Russell, JONATHAN, LL.D., was born at Providence, R. I., in 1771; died at Milton, Mass., Feb. 16, 1832. He graduated at Brown University in 1791; studied law, but became a merchant, and his taste led him into political life, though he never sought office. Mr. Russell was one of the commissioners who negotiated the treaty at Ghent, in 1814; and after that he was United States Minister-plenipotentiary at Stockholm, Sweden, for several years. On his return to the United States, he settled at Mendon, Mass., of which district he was a member of Congress from 1821 to 1823. Although he was a forcible and elegant writer, little is known of his literary productions excepting an oration delivered at Providence on July 4, 1800, and his published correspondence while in Europe.

Russell, WILLIAM, was born in Virginia, in 1758; died in Fayette County, Ky., July 3, 1825. He entered the army of the Revolution at sixteen years of age; was a lieutenant in Campbell's regiment in the battle of King's Mountain (which see); rose to the rank of captain in that war, and in 1793 commanded Kentucky mounted volunteers, under Wayne, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He was also in the War of 1812-15, and served, altogether, in about twenty

campaigns. He was a representative in the Legislature of both Virginia and Kentucky.

Russia Offers her Mediation. John Quincy Adams was the American minister to the Russian court in 1812. He was on intimate terms with the emperor, and when intelligence of the declaration of war reached the czar, the monarch expressed his regret. He was then on friendly terms with Great Britain, and his prime-minister suggested to Mr. Adams the expediency of tendering the mediation of Russia for the purpose of effecting a reconciliation between the United States and Great Britain. Mr. Adams favored it. After the defeat of Napoleon at Moscow, the czar sent instructions to M. Daschkoff, his representative at Washington, to offer to the United States his friendly services in bringing about a peace. This was done March 8, 1813. The President, always anxious for peace, immediately accepted the friendly offer, and nominated Albert Gallatin and James A. Bayard commissioners to act jointly with Mr. Adams to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain. The Thirteenth Congress assembled on May 24, 1813, and, with his message, the President sent in a letter from the czar, offering his mediation. He also announced that the offer had been accepted; that commissioners had been appointed to conclude a treaty of peace with British commissioners, and that Gallatin and Bayard had departed for Russia, there to meet Mr. Adams. The Senate refused to confirm the nomination of Gallatin, because he still held the position of Secretary of the Treasury. The attempt at mediation by Russia was a failure.

Russian Troops for America. When King George, in council, determined to hire mercenary troops to assist in subduing his subjects in America, he first turned to the Empress of Russia, Catharine II., a woman of rare ability, and ambitious of glory and empire. Her minister, Prince Potemkin, had boasted that she had troops enough to spare to trample the Americans under foot. The king wrote an autograph letter to the empress, and it was believed that she would instantly comply with his request. But Catharine sent a flat refusal to enter into such nefarious business, saying (through her minister): "I should not be able to prevent myself from reflecting on the consequences which would result for our dignity, for that of the two monarchies and the two nations, from this junction of our forces simply to calm a rebellion which is not supported by any foreign power." This stinging rebuke of the British policy in this case nettled the king, and he was surprised and offended by what he called her want of politeness in not answering his gracious autograph letter with her own hand. He thus sputtered out his indignation in his rapid manner: "She has not had the civility to answer me with her own hand, and has thrown out expressions that may be civil to a Russian ear, but certainly not to more civilized ones." So he turned from the empress of "barbarians" to the needy ruler of a people out of whom had come his own dynasty,

and procured his mercenaries. (See *German Mercenaries* and *English Ambassador at Moscow*.)

Rutherford, GRIFFITH, was born in Ireland; died in Tennessee, towards the close of the last century. A resident of western North Carolina, he represented Rowan County in the Convention at New Berne in 1775. He led a force against the Cherokees in 1776, and was appointed by the Provincial Congress a brigadier-general in April of that year. He commanded a brigade at the battle near Camden (see *Sanders's Creek, Battle at*), and was made a prisoner, and afterwards commanded at Wilmington, when the British evacuated. He was State Senator in 1784, and soon afterwards emigrated to Tennessee, where, in 1794, he was a member of the Council.

Rutledge, EDWARD, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Charleston, S. C., Nov. 23, 1749; died Jan. 23, 1800. His father (Dr. John Rutledge) came from Ireland. He completed his law studies in England, and began practice in Charleston in 1773. He was a member of the First Continental Congress, and continued there until 1777. He was distinguished as a debater; was a member of the first Board of War (which see), and was on the committee to confer with Lord Howe, in 1776. (See *Peace Commissioners*.) In 1780 he was made a prisoner at Charleston, and sent to St. Augustine (see *Siege of Charleston*), and did not return until 1782. In the South Carolina Legislature he drew up (1791) the law abolishing primogeniture, and was an ardent advocate of the national Constitution. Mr. Rutledge was Governor of South Carolina from 1798 until his death.

Rutledge, JOHN, of Irish parentage, was born at Charleston, S. C., in 1739; died there, July 23, 1800. He studied law in London, returned to Charleston in 1761, and soon afterwards rose to great eminence in his profession. In 1765 he



JOHN RUTLEDGE.

was a member of the Stamp Act Congress that met in New York city; of the South Carolina Convention of patriots in 1774; and of the First

Continental Congress, at Philadelphia, the same year. Mr. Rutledge was also in Congress in 1775, and was chairman of the convention that framed the state constitution of South Carolina in 1776. By his vigilance and activity he saved Fort Moultrie from the effects of an order by General Lee to evacuate it when attacked by the British; and he was elected president of the state under the new constitution. In 1779 he was chosen governor, and the Legislature made him a temporary dictator when Charleston was threatened with siege. On the fall of Charleston (May, 1780), Rutledge went to North Carolina, and accompanied the Southern army until 1782, when he was elected to Congress. He was chosen Chancellor of South Carolina in 1784; was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution (1787); appointed Associ-

ate-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States (1789), and elected Chief-justice of South Carolina in 1791. In 1795 he was appointed Chief-justice of the United States, but the Senate, for political reasons, did not confirm him.

Ryswick, PEACE OF. In 1697 a treaty of peace was concluded at Ryswick, two miles from the Hague, by France on one side and the German empire, England, Spain, and Holland on the other, that terminated a long war begun in 1686. By that treaty the King of France, who had espoused the cause of James II., acknowledged William of Orange King of Great Britain and Ireland, and provinces were restored to Spain and Germany, but Alsace and Lorraine were retained by France. They were won back by Germany in 1871. This treaty ended the inter-colonial war in America.

S.

Sabine Cross-roads, BATTLE AT. The Confederates had made a stand at Sabine Cross-roads. (See *Red River Expedition*.) Franklin's troops had moved forward, with General Lee's cavalry in the van, followed by two thin divisions under General Ransom. General Emory followed Ransom. Among his troops was a brigade of colored soldiers. Lee had been ordered to attack the Confederates wherever he should find them, but not to bring on a general engagement. Franklin had advanced to Pleasant Hill (which see), where Banks had joined him. Near Sabine Cross-roads, Lee found the trans-Mississippi army, full 20,000 strong, under several Confederate leaders. Waiting for the main army to come up, Lee and Ransom were attacked (April 8, 1864) by the Confederates.

ron, arrived at five o'clock, but the overwhelming number of the Confederates turned the National flank and struck their centre heavily. This assault, like the first, was stubbornly resisted, but, finding the Confederates gaining their rear, the Nationals fell back, and were received by General Emory, who was advancing. Ransom lost ten guns and 1000 men captured, and Lee 156 wagons filled with supplies.

Sackett's Harbor, FIRST ATTACK UPON (1812). Early in July (1812) a wild rumor spread that the *Oneida* (which see) had been captured by the British, and that a squadron of British vessels were on their way from Kingston to recapture the *Lord Nelson*, lying at Sackett's Harbor. General Brown, with a militia force, immediately took post at the harbor. The story was not



SACKETT'S HARBOR IN 1812.

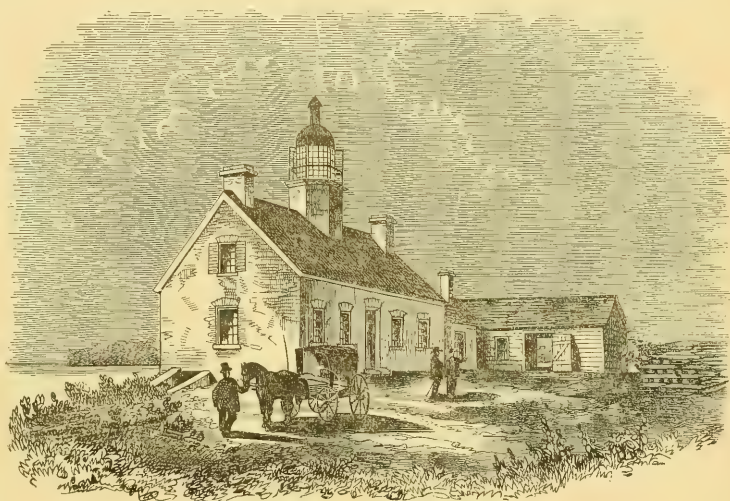
At a little past noon, General Banks arrived at the front, and found the skirmishers hotly engaged. Orders were sent to Franklin to hurry forward, but he did not arrive in time to give needed assistance, for at four o'clock 8000 footmen and 12,000 horsemen had fallen upon the Nationals along their whole line, and drove them back. Franklin, with a division under General Came-

true, but a squadron made an attack on the harbor eighteen days afterwards. The squadron, built at Kingston, consisted of the *Royal George*, 24; *Prince Regent*, 22; *Earl of Moira*, 20; *Simcoe*, 12; and *Seneca*, 4, under the command of Commodore Earle, a Canadian. Earle sent word to Colonel Bellinger, in command of the militiamen at Sackett's Harbor, that all he

wanted was the *Oneida* and the *Lord Nelson*, at the same time warning the inhabitants that in case of resistance the village would be destroyed. The *Oneida* weighed anchor and attempted to escape to the lake. She failed, and returned. She was moored just outside of Navy Point, in position to have her broadside of nine guns brought to bear upon approaching vessels. The remainder of her guns were taken out to be placed in battery on the land. An iron 32-pounder, which had been lying in the mud near the shore, and from that circumstance was called the "Old Sow," was placed in battery on a bluff with three other heavy guns; and a company of artillery had four heavy guns. With this force the Americans were prepared to receive the invaders. The squadron slowly entered the harbor (July 29, 1813), and when the *Royal George* and *Prince Regent* were near enough, Captain William Vaughan, a sailing-master, in charge of the "Old Sow" and her companions, opened fire upon them, but without effect. The people on the shore plainly heard derisive laughter on board the *Royal George*. Shots came from the two British vessels, which were returned, and a brisk cannonading was kept up for about two hours, the squadron standing off and on out of the range of the smaller guns. One of the enemy's shot (a 32-pounder) came over the bluff, struck the ground, and ploughed a furrow. Sergeant Spier caught it up, and ran with it to Vaughan, exclaiming, "I have been playing ball with the redcoats and have caught 'em out. See if the British can catch it back again." The *Royal George* was at that moment nearing to give a broadside. Vaughan's great gun immediately sent back the ball with such force and precision that it went crashing through the stern of the British vessel, raked her decks, sent splinters as high as her mizzen topsail, killed fourteen men, and wounded eighteen. The *Royal George* had already received a shot between wind and water, and been pierced by another, and she now showed a signal for retreat. The squadron put about and sailed out of the harbor, while the band on shore played "Yankee Doodle." The Americans received no injury.

Sackett's Harbor, SECOND ATTACK UPON (1813). When the British authorities heard of the depletion of the military force at Sackett's Harbor when Chauncey and Dearborn sailed for York (see *York, Capture of*), they resolved to attempt its capture. It was the chief place of deposit

for the naval and military stores of the Americans on the northern frontier, and its possession would give to the holder the command of the lake. The fall of York made the British hesitate; but when it was known that Chauncey and Dearborn had gone to the Niagara River, an armament proceeded from Kingston to assail the harbor. On the evening of May 27, 1813, word reached that place that a British squadron, under Sir James Yeo, had sailed from Kingston. Colonel Backus was in command of the troops at Sackett's Harbor. General Jacob Brown was at his home, a few miles from Watertown, and he had promised to take chief command in case of invasion. He was summoned, and before the dawn of the 28th inst. he was in Backus's camp. Thence he sent expresses in all directions to summon the militia to the field, and fired alarm guns to arouse the inhabitants. As fast as the militia came in they were armed and



LIGHT-HOUSE ON HORSE ISLAND.

sent to Horse Island, where the Sackett's Harbor light-house now stands. It was connected with the main by an isthmus covered with water of fordable depth, and there it was expected the invaders would attempt to land. At noon (May 28, 1813) six British vessels and forty bateaux appeared off Sackett's Harbor, having over one thousand land-troops, under the command of Governor-general Sir George Prevost. The troops were embarked in the bateaux, but were soon ordered back, when the whole squadron went out on the open lake. The appearance of a flotilla of American gunboats approaching from the westward had alarmed him. They were conveying part of a regiment from Oswego to join the garrison at Sackett's Harbor. As soon as their real weakness was discovered the squadron returned to the harbor, and on the morning of the 29th a considerable force, armed with cannons and muskets, landed on Horse Island. The militia had been withdrawn from the island, and placed behind a gravel ridge on the main. These fled almost at the first fire of

the invaders. This disgraceful conduct astonished General Brown, and he attempted to rally the fugitives. Colonel Backus, with his regulars and Albany volunteers, was disputing the advance inch by inch, and a heavy gun at Fort Tompkins, in the front, was playing upon the British, when a dense smoke was seen rising in the rear of the Americans. The storehouses, in which an immense amount of materials had been gathered, and a ship on the stocks, had been fired by the officers in charge, under the impression, when the militia fled, that the fort would be captured. For a moment it was believed the British were the incendiaries, and the sight was disheartening; but when Brown found it was an unwise friend, he felt a relief, and redoubled his exertions to rally the militia. He succeeded, and so turned the fortunes of the day in favor of his country. Sir George Prevost, moving cautiously with his troops, mounted a high stump, and, with his field-glass, saw the rallying militia on his flank and rear. Believing them to be reinforcements of American regulars, he sounded a retreat, and that movement soon became a disorderly flight, as they hurried to reach their boats, leaving their dead and wounded behind them. At noon the whole armament left the harbor, and the menaced place was saved. So, also, was the ship on the stocks; not so the stores, for half a million dollars' worth was destroyed. Sackett's Harbor was never again molested, and it remained the chief place of deposit for supplies of the army on the northern frontiers during the war. For his conduct in the defence of Sackett's Harbor, Brown was made a brigadier in the United States Army.

Saco Bay, SETTLEMENT AT. In 1616, Sir Ferdinando Gorges sent out, at his own expense, Richard Vines to make a settlement in New England. On Saco Bay he spent the winter of 1616-17, at a place called Winter Harbor. During that period, the pestilence that almost depopulated the country from the Penobscot to Narraganset Bay (see *Plymouth, New*) raged there, and Vines, being a physician, attended the sick Indians with great kindness, which won their gratitude. He and his companions dwelt and slept among the sick in their cabins, but were never touched by the pestilential fever. He made the whole coast a more hospitable place for Englishmen afterwards. He restrained traders from debauching the barbarians with rum, and he was the first Englishman who described the White Mountains, for he went to the source of the Saco River in a canoe. In 1630 the Plymouth Company gave Richard Vines and John Oldham each a tract of land on the Saco River, four miles wide on the sea, and extending eight miles inland.

Sacramento (Mexico), BATTLE OF THE. After the battle of Braceti (which see), Colonel Doniphan entered El Paso without opposition, and sent a messenger to hurry up artillery which he had sent for to Santa Fé. It arrived on the 1st of February, 1847, and on the 11th he set out for Chihuahua in search of General Wool. After marching one hundred and forty-five

miles he learned that Wool was not at Chihuahua. He pressed forward, however, and halted near the Sacramento River, about eighteen miles from the city of Chihuahua, of the state of the same name. There he was confronted (Feb. 28) by about four thousand Mexican horse, foot, and artillery. After a contest of about three hours, the Mexicans were routed by the one thousand men under Doniphan. Twelve of their canons were captured, with ammunition and other munitions of war. The loss of the Mexicans was about six hundred men; of the Americans, eighteen. Doniphan then pressed forward, and entered Chihuahua, a city of forty thousand inhabitants, without opposition, and planted the American flag upon its citadel. He took formal possession of the province in the name of the United States. After resting there six weeks, Doniphan pushed forward and joined Wool at Saltillo (May 22). (See *Mexico, War with*.)

Sacs (or SAUKS) and Foxes. These are associate families of the Algonquin nation. They were seated on the Detroit River and Saginaw Bay when the French discovered them, but were driven beyond Lake Michigan by the Iroquois. Settling near Green-Bay, they took in the Foxes, and they have been intimately associated ever since, especially in wars. Roving and restless, they were continually at war with the fiery Sioux, and were allies of the French against the latter. In the conspiracy of Pontiac (see *Pontiac*), the Sacs were his confederates, but the Foxes were not; and in the wars of the Revolution and 1812 they were friends of the British. They were divided into a large number of classes distinguished by *totems* of different animals. They remained faithful to treaties with the United States until Black Hawk made war in 1832, when Keokuk, a great warrior and diplomat, remained faithful. In 1822 the united Sacs and Foxes numbered about 8000; in 1874 there were only 1135, in scattered bands in Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and the Indian Territory. The Foxes proper were first known as Outagamies (English "foxes"). They were visited in their place of exile with the Sacs by the Jesuit missionary Allouez, in 1667, when they numbered five hundred warriors. The missionaries could make very little impression upon them. When De Nonville made his campaign against the Five Nations, the united Sacs and Foxes joined him, as they had De la Barre in 1684, but they soon became friendly to the Iroquois, and proposed to join their confederacy. In 1712 they attacked Detroit, and hostilities were carried on for almost forty years, when they joined the French in their final struggle to hold Canada. The Foxes befriended the white people in Pontiac's War (which see), and were with the English in the wars of the Revolution and 1812, as we have observed. Since then the history of the Sacs and Foxes is nearly the same.

Sag Harbor, EXPEDITION TO. The British had gathered much forage at Sag Harbor, at the eastern end of Long Island, protected by an armed schooner and a company of infantry.

General Parsons, in command in Connecticut, sent Lieutenant-colonel Meigs with one hundred and seventy men in thirty whale-boats to capture or destroy their forage. They landed near Southold, carried their boats across to a bay, about fifteen miles, and, re-embarking, landed before daylight about four miles from Sag Harbor. They took the place by surprise, May 25, 1777, killing six men and capturing ninety. They burned the forage and twelve vessels, and returned without the loss of a man.

Sahaptins. This family is regarded as a distinct nation of Indians within the domains of the United States. (See *Indians*.) It is one of the nine Columbian families in the State of Oregon and Washington Territory. Their country extends from the Dalles of the Columbia River to the Bitter Root Mountains on both sides of the Columbia, and on the forks of the Lewis and the Snake and Sahaptin rivers. The nation includes the Nez Perces ("pierced noses") or Sahaptins proper, the Wallawallas, and five other clans of less importance. On their northern border are the Salish family, chiefly in the British possessions, and on the southern the Shoshones. They are of medium stature; the men are brave and muscular, and dignified in appearance; the women plump and generally handsome; and some of the tribes, especially the Nez Perces, are neat in their personal appearance. With the exception of the latter, none of the Sahaptin nation have figured in the history of the Republic. (See *Nez Perces*.)

St. Augustine, a city in Florida, was founded by Menendez in 1565. When that commander gave up the chase of the Frenchmen under Ribault (see *Huguenots in America*), he turned back towards the Florida coast, entered an estuary in a boat manned by six oarsmen, leaving his large flag-ship at anchor outside, and, accompanied by his chaplain, Mendoza, and followed by other boats filled with "gentlemen" and ecclesiastics, he went ashore, while trumpets sounded, drums beat, cannons thundered, and flags waved. The chaplain walked before, bearing a large cross and chanting a hymn. Menendez followed with his train, and carrying in his own hand the standard of Spain unfurled. Mendoza, arrayed in rich sacerdotal garments, kissed the cross, and then planted it in the sand by the side of the staff that upheld the royal standard, and against which leaned a shield bearing the arms of Spain. Then, after all had done homage to the priest, Menendez took formal possession of the country in the name of Philip of Spain. With such consecration he laid the foundation of the city of St. Augustine. From that spot he marched to the destruction of the Huguenots on the St. John (see *Huguenots in America*), and there the unfortunate Ribault and his followers were slain. (See *Ribault, Jean*.) They were led out in groups of ten, with their hands tied behind them, when, at a line drawn in the sand with a cane by Menendez, they were butchered because they were Protestants, as Mendoza afterwards declared. Such was the human sacrifice at the founding of St. Augustine, now the oldest town in the United

States. It contains a fortress (San Marco, now Fort Marion), which was finished in 1756, a hundred years after it was begun.

St. Augustine, AMERICAN PRISONERS AT. In violation of the capitulation at Charleston (see *Siege of Charleston*), many of the patriotic citizens were torn from their families, taken to St. Augustine, and imprisoned, when they were required a second time to give their parole to keep within certain limits as the price of their release from close confinement. Among the prisoners was the sturdy patriot Colonel Christopher Gadsden. He had been treacherously taken from his bed at night, and conveyed on board a prison-ship. Gadsden was required by the commanding officer at St. Augustine to give his parole. He refused, saying he had already given his parole and kept it inviolate, that his rights as a paroled prisoner had been violated, and that he would not trust his persecutors again. The commander haughtily said he would hear no arguments, and demanded an explicit answer whether Gadsden would or would not give his parole. "I will not," answered Gadsden, firmly. "In God I put my trust, and fear no consequences." He was instantly hurried to the castle, where, in a loathsome prison, he was confined, apart from his fellow-patriots, until exchanged, in July, 1781, nearly eleven months after the surrender at Charleston. While in the castle, the prisoners were denied the privilege of meeting for public worship by themselves, but forced to attend divine service at the regular place of worship—a service highly distasteful to them. Notwithstanding their intense sufferings, they all remained true to their convictions.

St. Augustine, ATTACK UPON, BY SOUTH CAROLINIANS. Soon after the beginning of Queen Anne's War, Governor Moore, of South Carolina, proposed an expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine. (See *Queen Anne's War*.) The Assembly appropriated \$10,000 for the service. An army of twelve hundred men (one half Indians) was raised, and proceeded in two divisions to the attack. The governor, with the main division, went by sea to blockade the harbor, and the remainder, under Colonel Daniels, proceeded along the coast. The latter arrived first and plundered the town, the Spaniards retiring within their fortress with provisions for four months. Their position was impregnable, for the Carolinians had no artillery. Daniels went to Jamaica to procure battery cannons, but before his return two Spanish war-vessels appeared. Governor Moore raised the blockade and fled. This expedition burdened the colony with a debt of more than \$26,000, for the payment of which bills of credit were issued—the first emission of paper-money in South Carolina.

St. Augustine, OGLETHORPE'S EXPEDITION AGAINST. (See *Florida, Invasion of*.) Oglethorpe, having been joined by a South Carolina regiment and a company of Highlanders, marched with his whole force, about two thousand strong, to Fort Moosa, within two miles of St. Augustine, in May, 1740. The Spanish garrison evacuated the fort and fled into the town. Oglethorpe pro-

ceeded to reconnoitre the town and castle, and, finding they had more than a thousand defenders, determined to turn the siege into a blockade with some ships lying at anchor near the bar. Having disposed troops so as to hold important points, Oglethorpe, with the remainder, went to the island of Anastasia, lying opposite, from which he might bombard the castle. After planting batteries there he summoned the Spanish governor to surrender; but, secure in his stronghold, he sent word to Oglethorpe that he should be glad to shake hands with him in his castle. Indignant at this reply, the general opened his batteries against the castle, and, at the same time, threw a number of bombshells into the town. The fire was returned with spirit from the castle and armed ships, but the distance was so great that very little damage was done. Meanwhile, a party of Spaniards went out and attacked the Georgian garrison at Fort Moosa and cut it in pieces. The Chickasaw warriors with Oglethorpe, offended at some incautious expression of his, deserted him, and the Spaniards by some means received a reinforcement of seven hundred men. All prospects of success began to fade. The Carolina troops, enfeebled by the heat of the climate and dispirited by much sickness, marched away in considerable numbers; and the naval commanders thought it imprudent to remain longer on the coast, for the season of hurricanes was nigh. The enterprise was abandoned in July.

St. Augustine Sacked and Plundered. In 1665 John Davis, a bold buccaneer (see *Buccaneers*), with a fleet of seven or eight vessels, made a descent on the coast of Florida and plundered St. Augustine. The Spaniards there made no resistance.

St. Clair, ARTHUR, born at Thurso, Caithness, Scotland, in 1734; died at Greensburg, Penn., Aug. 31, 1818. He was a grandson of the Earl of Roslyn, and was educated at the University



ARTHUR ST. CLAIR.

of Edinburgh. He studied medicine under the celebrated Hunter, of London, but inheriting a large sum of money from his mother, he purchased an ensigncy in a regiment of foot (May

13, 1757) and came in Boscawen's fleet to America in 1758. He was with Amherst at the capture of Louisburg, and, raised to lieutenant in April, 1759, he distinguished himself, under Wolfe, at Quebec. In May, 1760, he married, at Boston, a half-sister of Governor Bowdoin; resigned his commission in 1762, and in 1764 settled in Ligonier valley, Penn., where he established mills and built a fine dwelling-house. Having held, by appointment, several civil offices of trust, he became a colonel of militia in 1775, and in the fall of that year accompanied Pennsylvania commissioners to treat with the Western Indians at Fort Pitt. As colonel of the Second Pennsylvania Regiment, he was ordered to Canada in February, 1776, and in the early summer aided Sullivan in saving his army from capture. In August he was made a brigadier-general, and joined Washington in November. St. Clair was actively engaged in New Jersey until April, 1777, when he took command of Ticonderoga, which he was compelled to evacuate (July 4-5, 1777) by the presence of Burgoyne in overwhelming force. After that he was a member of Washington's military family, acting as his aid at the battle near the Brandywine (which see). He was with Sullivan in the Seneca country in 1779. St. Clair commanded the light infantry in the absence of La Fayette, and was a member of the court that condemned Major André. He was in command at West Point from Oct. 1, 1780, and aided in suppressing the mutiny of the Pennsylvania line in January, 1781. Joining Washington in October, he participated in the capture of Cornwallis, and afterwards led a body of troops to join Greene in South Carolina, driving the British from Wilmington on the way. He was afterwards a delegate in Congress; president of that body (February to November, 1787); appointed governor of the Northwestern Territory (February, 1788); fixed the seat of government at Cincinnati, and, in honor of the Cincinnati Society, gave the place that name. Made commander-in-chief of the army (March 4, 1791), he moved against the Indians on the Wabash, while so lame from gout that he was carried on a litter. A defeat followed. Out of nearly 1800 men he lost over 800. Blamed severely, a committee of Congress vindicated him; but he resigned his generalship (March 5, 1792), and in November, 1802, Jefferson removed him from the governorship in the Northwest. He was then broken in health, spirits, and fortune, and, retiring to a log house on the summit of Chestnut Ridge, among the Alleghany Mountains, he there passed the remainder of his days in poverty, while he had unsettled righteous claims against the government. Five years before his death the Legislature of Pennsylvania granted him an annuity of \$400, and, a short time before his death, a pension from the government of \$60 a month was awarded him. He published a narrative of his unfortunate campaign against the Indians.

St. Clair's Campaign (1791). The Indians, encouraged by the defeat of Harmar (October, 1790), spread terror over the frontier settle-

ments in the Northwestern Territory. In May, 1791, General Charles Scott, of Kentucky, led 800 men, and penetrated to the Wabash country, almost to the present site of Lafayette, Ind., and destroyed several Indian villages. At the beginning of August General Wilkinson, with more than 500 men, pushed into the same region to Tippecanoe and the surrounding prairies, destroyed some villages of Kickapoos, and made his way to the Falls of the Ohio, opposite Louisville. These forays caused the Indians to fight more desperately for their country. Congress now prepared to plant forts in the Northwestern Territory, and in September, 1791, there were 2000 troops at Fort Washington, under the immediate command of General Richard Butler. With General St. Clair as chief, these troops marched northward. They built Fort Hamilton, on the Miami River, twenty miles from Fort Washington, and garrisoned it. Forty-two miles farther on they built Fort Jefferson, and, when moving from that post, late in October, there were evidences that barbarian scouts were hovering on their flanks. The invaders halted and encamped on a tributary of the Wabash, in Darke County, O., one hundred miles north from Fort Washington (now Cincinnati). There the wearied soldiers slept (Nov. 3, 1791), without suspicion of danger near. During the night the sentinels gave warning of prowling Indians, and early in the morning (Nov. 4), while the army were preparing for breakfast, they were furiously attacked by the barbarians. The slaughter among the troops was dreadful. General Butler was killed, and most of the other officers were slain or wounded. The army fled in confusion, and it was with great difficulty that St. Clair, suffering with gout, escaped on a pack-horse, after having three horses killed under him. Among the fugitives were a hundred women, wives of soldiers, most of whom escaped. St. Clair lost nearly half of his army—over 800 men killed and wounded. The remainder returned to Fort Washington. (See *Flight of St. Clair's Army*.)

St. Eustatius, CAPTURE OF, BY THE ENGLISH. While negotiations between the Dutch and English were going on at the Hague, British cruisers pounced upon Dutch merchantmen, capturing two hundred ships of the republic of Holland, worth, with their cargoes, 15,000,000 guild-

ment and Great Britain, surrendered the post and its dependencies, at the same time invoking clemency for the town. The island was a rich prize, for it was a free port for all nations and was "one continued store of French, Dutch, American, and English property." All the magazines and storehouses were filled, and even the beach was covered with tobacco and sugar. The value of merchandise found there was estimated at \$15,000,000. There were taken in the bay a Dutch frigate, five smaller vessels of war, and one hundred and fifty merchant-ships. Thirty richly laden Dutch ships which had just left the island were overtaken by a detachment from Rodney's fleet and captured, together with their convoy, a 60-gun Dutch ship. Keeping the Dutch flag flying on the island, no less than seventeen Dutch ships were decoyed into port and seized.

St. Francis Indians, EXPEDITION AGAINST. These Indians, inhabiting a village on the edge of Canada, had long been a terror to the frontier settlers of New England. Enriched by plunder and the ransoms paid for their captives, they possessed a handsome chapel (they were Roman Catholics), with plate and ornaments. In their village might be seen, stretched on hoops, many scalps of both sexes displayed as trophies of their valor in smiting the English. Against these Indians General Amherst, while at Crown Point, in 1759, sent Major Robert Rogers, a distinguished partisan officer, at the head of a corps of New Hampshire rangers. With two hundred of his rangers, Rogers traversed the forest so stealthily that he surprised the village (October, 1759), slew a large part of the warriors, and plundered and burned the town. Attempting to return by way of Lake Memphremagog and the Connecticut River, the rangers suffered terribly. Their provisions gave out, and some perished for want of food; others were killed by pursuing Indians, but the greater part reached Crown Point in safety.

St. John, SIEGE OF. Because of the illness of General Schnyler, General Montgomery was placed in active command of the army invading Canada. On the 10th of September, 1775, Montgomery left Isle aux Noix and landed 1000 troops near St. John, the first military post with-



MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT AT ST. JOHN, 1850.

ers. Swift cutters were sent to Admiral Rodney at Barbadoes to seize the Dutch island of St. Eustatius, in the West Indies. Suddenly, on Feb. 3, 1781, the British West India fleet and army, after making a feint on the coast of Martinique, appeared off the doomed island and demanded of Governor De Graat its surrender within an hour. The surprised and astonished inhabitants, unable to offer any resistance, and ignorant of war between their home govern-

ment and Great Britain, surrendered the post and its dependencies, at the same time invoking clemency for the town. The island was a rich prize, for it was a free port for all nations and was "one continued store of French, Dutch, American, and English property." All the magazines and storehouses were filled, and even the beach was covered with tobacco and sugar. The value of merchandise found there was estimated at \$15,000,000. There were taken in the bay a Dutch frigate, five smaller vessels of war, and one hundred and fifty merchant-ships. Thirty richly laden Dutch ships which had just left the island were overtaken by a detachment from Rodney's fleet and captured, together with their convoy, a 60-gun Dutch ship. Keeping the Dutch flag flying on the island, no less than seventeen Dutch ships were decoyed into port and seized.

Preston, was well supplied with provisions and ammunition. This circumstance, the disaster to Ethan Allen near Montreal (see *Allen, Ethan, Capture of*), and the insubordination and mutinous spirit displayed by the Connecticut and New York troops, prolonged the siege. It lasted fifty-five days. On the evening of the 2d of November, when Preston heard of the defeat of a considerable force under Carleton, on their way to relieve him, and was notified of the fall of Chambly, he determined to surrender the fort unless relief speedily came. Montgomery demanded an immediate surrender. Preston asked a delay of four days. His request was denied, and the garrison became prisoners of war on the 3d, marching out of the fort with the honors of war. There were 500 regulars and 100 Canadian volunteers. The spoils were forty-eight pieces of artillery, 800 small-arms, some naval stores, and a quantity of lead and shot.

St. John's Parish (Ga). The royal governor (Sir James Wright) of Georgia was so influential there that he prevented that colony choosing delegates to the First and Second Continental Congresses, or adopting the American Association (which see). The liberty-loving people of St. John's Parish (now Liberty County), led by Lyman Hall, a native of Connecticut and a physician, took independent action. They subscribed to the American Association, and at a Provincial Convention held in Savannah (Jan. 18, 1775) their delegates tried to get others of the province to imitate their act. They did not succeed. Dissatisfied with the action of the convention, the St. John's people asked to become allies of the Committee of Correspondence at Charleston, S. C. A kindly answer was given, but no alliance could be formed, and the patriotic Georgians found themselves cut off from trade and commerce with every other colony, as theirs had not joined the Association. Necessity compelled them to trade with their own, and they resolved to do so, under the following regulations: 1. That none of them, directly or indirectly, would purchase slaves imported at Savannah till the sense of the Congress (to whom they had applied for relief) should be made known to them; 2. That they would not trade with any merchant of Savannah or elsewhere that would not join the Association, otherwise than under the inspection of a committee for that purpose appointed, for such things as they should judge necessary, and when they should think there were necessary reasons for so doing. Finally, they resolved to send a delegate to the Continental Congress, and they elected (March 21, 1775) Dr. Lyman Hall to that position. When he took his seat a question arose as to whether the Parish of St. John's should be considered as representing the Colony of Georgia. Hall expressed a wish to hear and participate in the debates, as a representative of a part of Georgia, and not to vote when the balloting was by colonies. A Provincial Congress of Georgia met July 4, 1775, acceded to the American Association, and elected Lyman Hall and others to represent the colony in the Continental Congress. So the persistent

patriotism of the people of St. John's Parish placed Georgia in the Continental Union, and the name of their domain was changed to "Liberty County," in honor of their zeal in the cause.

St. Joseph, FORT, CAPTURED. On the morning of May 25, 1763, a party of Potawatomie Indians appeared before the English post at the mouth of the St. Joseph's River, on Lake Michigan. That post had been established where the Jesuit missionaries had maintained a missionary station almost sixty years. The fort was garrisoned by an ensign and fourteen men. With friendly greetings, the Potawatomies were permitted to enter the fort, and in "two minutes" they had massacred the whole garrison. (See *Pontiac's War*.)

St. Lawrence, FIRST WARLIKE MOVEMENT ON THE (1812). When news of the declaration of war (June, 1812) reached Ogdensburg, on the St. Lawrence, eight American schooners—trading vessels—lay in the harbor. They endeavored to escape into Lake Ontario, bearing away affrighted families and their effects. An active Canadian partisan named Jones had raised a company of men to capture them. He gave chase in boats, overtook the unarmed flotilla at the foot of the Thousand Islands, captured two of the schooners, and emptied and burned them (June 29). A wild rumor went abroad that the British were erecting fortifications among the Thousand Islands, and that expeditions of armed men were to be sent across the St. Lawrence to devastate American settlements on its borders. General Brown and Commander Woolsey (of the *Oneida* [which see]) were vested with ample power to provide for the defence of that frontier. Colonel Benedict, of St. Lawrence County, was ordered to guard the region from Ogdensburg to St. Regis with a competent force, and militia were gathered at Ogdensburg and St. Vincent.

St. Leger, BARRY, a British officer, who entered the army as ensign in 1749, came to America with his regiment in 1757, and was with Wolfe at Quebec. He was appointed lieutenant-colonel in 1772; and in 1775 was sent to Canada, where he took charge of an unsuccessful expedition to the Mohawk valley, by way of Lake Ontario, in 1777, to assist Burgoyne in his invasion. (See *Fort Schuyler, Siege of*.) He died in 1789.

St. Michael, DEFENCE OF. On the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay is the little town of St. Michael, in Talbot County, Md., founded by ship-builders, and famous as the place where most of the swift-sailing privateers, called "Baltimore clippers," were built. Seven of these were on the stocks there in August, 1814, when Cockburn, the marauder, appeared, with the intention of destroying them and the village. The veteran General Derry Bouson, commander of the militia of Talbot County, prepared to receive the invaders. He constructed two redoubts, and the militia from the adjacent country were called to the defence of the place. Bouson had, in the aggregate, about three hundred men. Between midnight and dawn on Aug. 11 the invaders proceeded to the attack in eleven

barges, each armed with a 6-pound field-piece. The night was intensely dark, and the first intimation of their presence was the booming of their cannons. The Marylanders, though a little surprised, made a gallant resistance from the batteries. Under cover of their guns, the invaders landed in a compact body to storm the batteries, when a 9-pounder in one of them opened and cut a wide swath through the line of the British, killing nineteen and wounding many. The Americans, outnumbered, fell back to the other battery, and continued the contest until daylight, when the invaders, after spiking the guns of the lower battery, fled, discomfited, to their vessels. St. Michael and its ship-yards were saved.

St. Philip, FORT, ATTACK UPON. While the armies were burying their dead on the field of strife near New Orleans after the battle there (Jan. 8, 1815), some of the British troops sought to secure the free navigation of the Mississippi for themselves by capturing Fort St. Philip, at a bend of the stream, seventy or eighty miles below New Orleans in a direct line. It was regarded as the key to Louisiana. It was garrisoned by three hundred and sixty-six men, under Major Overton, of the Rifle Corps, and the crew of a gunboat which had been warped into a bayon at its side. A British squadron of five vessels appeared near the fort on the morning of Jan. 9 and anchored, out of range of the heavy guns of the fort, two bomb-vessels with their broadsides to the fort. These opened fire in the afternoon, and continued a bombardment and cannonade, with little interruption, until daybreak on the 18th—nine days. During that time the Americans were much exposed to rain and cold. The British cast more than one thousand shells, besides many round and grape shot, upon the fort, the product of which was two Americans killed and seven wounded. They had expended twenty thousand pounds of powder, and withdrew without gaining the fort, spoils, or glory.

St. Regis, SKIRMISH AT. On each side of the boundary-line between the United States and Canada is the Indian village of St. Regis, at the mouth of the St. Regis River. In that village Captain McDonell was placed, with some armed Canadian *voyageurs*, in September, 1812. Major G. D. Young, stationed at French Mills (now Fort Covington), left that post on the night of Oct. 21 with about two hundred men, crossed the St. Regis in a boat, a canoe, and on a hastily constructed raft, and before dawn was within half a mile of St. Regis. There they were rested and refreshed, and soon afterwards pushed forward and surrounded the town. Assailing the block-house, a sharp skirmish ensued, in which the British lost seven men killed, while not an American was hurt. The spoils of victory were forty prisoners (exclusive of the commander and the Roman Catholic priest), with their arms and accoutrements, thirty-eight muskets, two bateaux, a flag, and a quantity of baggage, including eight hundred blankets. The flag which waved over the block-house was

captured by Lieutenant William L. Marcy, afterwards Governor of the State of New York.

St. Sacrament Lake (or Lake George), the name given to the beautiful sheet of water lying west of the upper end of Lake Champlain by Father Jogues, a Jesuit missionary who visited it about the middle of the 17th century. This lake was the theatre of important military events in the French and Indian War (which see) and the old war for independence. At the head of the lake General William Johnson was encamped early in September, 1755, with a body of provincial troops and a party of Indians under the Mohawk chief Hendrick. There he was attacked (Sept. 8) by the French under Dieskau, and would have been defeated but for the energy and skill of General Phineas Lyman. The assailants were repulsed, and their leader (Dieskau) was badly wounded, made prisoner, sent to New York, and paroled. He died of his wounds not long afterwards. Johnson was knighted, and gave the name of Lake George to the sheet of water, in honor of his sovereign, by which name it is still known. At its head Fort William Henry was built, and suffered siege and capture by the French and Indians in 1757. (See *William Henry, Fort*.) The next year it was the scene of a vast armament upon its bosom going to the attack of Ticonderoga (which see); and some stirring events occurred there during the Revolution.

St. Simon, CLAUDE ANNE, Marquis de, was born at the Castle of La Faye, Spain, in 1743; died Jan. 3, 1819. He learned the art of gunnery and fortifications at Strasburg; distinguished himself in Flanders, and was chief of the



CLAUDE ANNE ST. SIMON.

body-guard of the Polish king in 1758. After various services in Europe, he came to America with De Grasse, at the head of French troops, and assisted in the siege of Yorktown (which see) in 1781. In 1789 he was a deputy in the States-General. Being a native of Spain, he returned to the service of that country, and assisted in the defence of Madrid in 1808. He was made prisoner and condemned to death, but the sentence was commuted to exile. After Ferdinand VII. was re-established on the throne (1814), St. Simon returned to Spain, and was made captain-general and grandee.

Salaberry, CHARLES MICHEL, d'IRAMBERRY,

Seigneur of Chambly, a French Canadian, was born at Beauport, Canada, Nov. 19, 1778; died at Chambly, Feb. 26, 1829. He served in the British army eleven years in the West Indies; was aide-de-camp to General De Rottenburg; was in Canada in 1812, where he organized the Voltigeurs, and repulsed Americans under Dearborn at La Salle in that year. On Oct. 28, 1813, he gained a decisive victory over General Wade Hampton at Chateaugay (which see), for which service he was presented with a gold medal, the Order of the Bath, and the thanks of the Canadian Legislature. He was afterwards senator, and entered the legislative council as Mounseigneur Plessis.

Salaries of Government Officers. Congress on March 4, 1873, passed a bill fixing the pay of certain officers of government and of members of Congress. The salary of the President was raised from \$25,000 to \$50,000 a year, payable in monthly instalments. The salary of the Vice-President was fixed at \$10,000; of the Chief-justice of the Supreme Court at \$10,500, and of the associate justices at \$10,000 each; of the cabinet officers at \$10,000; of the Speaker of the House at \$10,000; and of senators and representatives at \$7500 each a year. Allowance was made for actual travelling expenses, the "mileage" system having been abolished. On the 24th of January following, this law, so far as it affected the salaries of cabinet officers, senators, and representatives, was repealed. (See *Supplement*.)

Salem. After the abandonment of Cape Ann there was a revival of zeal for colonization at Naumkeag (Salem), and John Endicott was chosen, by a new company of adventurers, to lead emigrants thither and be chief manager of the colony. A grant of land, its ocean line extending from three miles north of the Merrimac River to three miles south of the Charles River, and westward to the Pacific Ocean, was obtained from the Council of New England March 19, 1628 (see *Massachusetts, Colony of*), and in June John Endicott, one of the six patentees, sailed for Naumkeag, with a small party, as governor of the new settlement. Those who were there—the remains of Conant's settlers—were disposed to question the claims of the new-comers. An amicable settlement was made, and in commemoration of this adjustment Endicott named the place Salem, the Hebrew word for peaceful. The colony then comprised about sixty persons. Previous to this emigration about thirty persons, under Captain Wollaston, had set up an independent plantation at a place which they named Mount Wollaston (now Quincy, Mass.), which soon fell under the control of a "pettifogger of Furnival's Inn," named Morton, who, being a convivial and licentious character, changed the name to Merry Mount, and conducted himself in a most shameless manner. He sold powder and shot to the Indians; gave refuge to runaway servants; and, setting up a May-pole, he and his companions danced around it, sang ribald and obscene songs, broached a cask of wine and a hogshhead of ale, and held a great revel and carousal there, to the great

scandal of all the Puritan settlers. Morton was in England when Endicott came. The rigid Puritan, finding Merry Mount to be within the domain of the Massachusetts charter, proceeded to cut down the May-pole, and called the place Mount Dagon. He rebuked the settlers there, lectured them severely on the "folly of amusements," and warned them to "look there should be better walking." Morton was angry on his return, and defied the stout Puritan sentiments of his neighbors. Plymouth was called to interfere, and Captain Standish seized the bacchanalian ruler of Merry Mount, and he was sent a prisoner to England. (See *Witchcraft, Salem*.)

Salem (MASS.), ASSEMBLY AT. Pursuant to the provisions of the Boston Port Bill (which see), General Gage adjourned the Massachusetts Assembly (May 31, 1774) to Salem, June 7. Anticipating this, they appointed Samuel Adams and James Warren to act in the interim. They held private conferences with others, and arranged plans for future action. They made arrangements for a Continental Congress; provided funds and munitions of war; prepared an address to other colonies inviting their co-operation in the measures of a general congress; and drew up a non-importation agreement. When the Assembly met on the 7th these various bold propositions were laid before it. The few partisans of the crown in the House were astonished and alarmed. Gage sent his secretary to dissolve the Assembly by proclamation, but the patriots were too vigilant for him. The hall doors were closed, and the key was in Samuel Adams's pocket. The reading of the proclamation on the stairs was unheeded by the patriots within. They adopted and signed a non-importation league, and copies of this and their proposition for a general congress, at a time and place appointed, were sent to the other colonies. They chose Thomas Cushing (their Speaker), and James Bowdoin, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and Robert Treat Paine as their delegates to the Continental Congress. This was the last session of the Massachusetts Assembly under a royal governor.

Salem, BRITISH TROOPS CONFRONTED NEAR. Gage heard that some cannons had been deposited at Salem by the patriots, and on Sunday, Feb. 26, 1775, he sent Colonel Leslie, with one hundred and forty regular troops, in a vessel from Castle William to seize them. They landed at Marblehead and marched to Salem, but, not finding the cannons there, they moved on towards Danvers. Reaching a drawbridge over a stream between the two towns, they found a large number of people assembled there, and on the opposite side forty militia under Colonel Timothy Pickering. The bridge was drawn up. Leslie ordered it to be let down, but Pickering refused, declaring it to be private property. Leslie determined to ferry a few troops over in a gondola that lay near. Perceiving this, some of the militia instantly scuttled the vessel. The minister at Salem (Mr. Barnard), fearing instant hostilities, interfered, and succeeded in moder-

ating the zeal of both parties. Leslie finally promised that if he might cross, he would go only a few rods beyond. The bridge was let down, the troops marched over and beyond a short distance, and then returned to their vessel at Marblehead without finding the cannons.

Salt Lake City is one of the wonders of our history. It is in mid-continent, where, fifty years ago, there was not a white man's dwelling within many hundred miles. It was founded by the Mormons in 1847, after their exodus from the Mississippi region. It is at the western base of the Wasatch range of mountains, four thousand three hundred and twenty feet above the sea, and near a great salt lake. Its streets are regularly laid out, one hundred and twenty-five feet in width, and the city covers a vast space in proportion to the number of its inhabitants. It originally had two hundred and sixty blocks, each an eighth of a mile square, and containing ten acres. Each block was divided into eight lots, ten by twenty rods, and contained an acre and a quarter. Since the city was laid out, several of the blocks have been intersected by new streets. The city is divided into twenty wards, in nearly every one of which is a public square. Shade and fruit trees abound in the city, for almost every lot has its orchard of various fruits. The population in 1890 was 45,840. There the Mormons have built a "Tabernacle," capable of seating eight thousand persons, covered by a self-supporting roof. They have also a spacious theatre. The Temple, which is built of grayish-white granite, cost over \$4,000,000. There are numerous churches, but the larger number are Mormon. Their houses in the old days of polygamy were built with separate entrances when the owners had several wives. There are many church schools maintained by the Mormons, besides five academies, supported by other Christian sects. There is also a good public library. About one third of the population in 1876 were "Gentiles" or apostate Mormons. Since then the proportion of non-Mormons has been constantly increasing.

Salt Springs of Onondaga, DISCOVERY OF. The prolific salt deposits near and under Onondaga Lake, in the vicinity of Syracuse, N. Y., were discovered by Father Le Moyne, a Jesuit priest, in 1654. Le Moyne afterwards visited New Amsterdam, and in a conversation with Rev. Mr. Megapolenses, told him of a spring, at the source of a little lake in the wilderness, of the waters of which the Indians durst not drink, because, they said, the devil was at the bottom of it. The Jesuit had tasted it, and found it as salt as the water of the sea. This conversation Megapolenses repeated, in a letter to the Classis in Amsterdam, adding, "Whether it be true, or whether it be a Jesuit lie, I do not determine."

Saltonstall, SIR RICHARD, was one of the founders of the colony of Massachusetts Bay. He was born at Halifax, Eng., in 1586; died in 1658. His father was Lord Mayor of London in 1597. Richard came to America in 1630, and was one of the earlier settlers of Watertown.

In 1631 he returned to England, and was ever afterwards a fast friend of the colony. Liberal in his feelings, he lamented and condemned the persecutions in New England.

Samoset at New Plymouth. In March, 1621, a naked Indian, who had learned a few words of English from the fishermen at Pemaquid, suddenly appeared in the streets of Plymouth, and startled the Pilgrims by the exclamation, "Welcome, Englishmen! welcome, Englishmen!" Samoset gave them much information. He told them of the plague that had swept off the Indians about four years before (see *Saco Bay, Settlement at*), and that the place where they were seated was called Patuxet. He told them of Massasoit (which see). He brought to the settlement some of the friendly Indians, among them Squanto, whom Weymouth had kidnapped and given to Gorges. (See *Weymouth, Captain George, Voyage of*.) Squanto taught them how to plant maize, to catch a certain fish wherewith to manure their lands, and late in the season he guided ambassadors from Plymouth to the court of Massasoit at Pokanoket, now Warren, R. I.

Sanders's Creek, S. C., BATTLE AT (1780). Before Washington heard of the surrender of Charleston (see *Siege of Charleston*), he sent a detachment of Delaware and Maryland regiments, under the Baron de Kalb, for service in the South. They marched from Petersburg, Va., for the Carolinas. After leaving the southern borders of Virginia, they marched slowly through a poor, thinly inhabited country, without provision for a supply of food, the commissaries without credit, and compelled to get their supplies from day to day by impressment. With De Kalb's forces were two North Carolina regiments, under the respective commands of Colonels Rutherford and Caswell, who were chiefly employed in repressing the North Carolina Tories. The governor of that state (Nash) had recently been authorized by the Legislature to send eight thousand men to the relief of South Carolina. To raise and equip them was not easy at that gloomy juncture. The Virginia regiment of Porterfield was at Salisbury. These rallied to the standard of De Kalb, whose slow march became a halt at Deep River, a tributary of the Cape Fear. There De Kalb was overtaken by General Gates (July 25), who had been appointed to the command of the Southern Department. Gates pressed forward towards Camden, through a barren and generally disaffected country. The approach of "the conqueror of Burgoyne" greatly inspired the patriots of South Carolina, and such active partisans as Sumter, Marion, Pickens, and Clarke immediately summoned their followers in South Carolina and Georgia to the field, and they seemed to have prepared the way for Gates to make a complete conquest of the state. Clinton had left the command of the forces in the south to Cornwallis, and he had intrusted the leadership of the troops on the Santee and its upper waters to Lord Rawdon, an active officer. The latter was at Camden when Gates approached. Cornwallis, seeing the peril of the troops under him, because

of the uprising of the patriots in all directions, hastened to the assistance of Rawdon, and reached that village on the same day (Aug. 14, 1780) that Gates arrived at Clermont, north of Camden, and was joined by seven hundred more Virginia militia, under General Stevens. Then, in his pride, Gates committed the fatal blunder of not preparing for a retreat or rendezvous, being confident of victory. He also weakened his army by sending a detachment to Sumter, to aid him in intercepting a convoy of supplies for Rawdon. On the evening of the 15th Gates marched to attack Rawdon with little more than three thousand men. Spurning the advice of his officers, he marched before he had made any disposition of his baggage in the rear. Cornwallis had left Camden to meet Gates at about the same time. Foot-falls could not be heard in the sandy road. As the vanguard of the British were ascending a gentle slope after crossing Sanders's Creek, that traversed a swamp, nearly

Maryland Continentals, who fought gallantly until they were outflanked, when they, also, gave way. They were twice rallied, but finally retreated, when the brunt of the battle fell upon the Maryland and Delaware troops, led by De Kalb, assisted by General Gist, Colonel Howard, and Captain Kirkwood. They had almost won the victory, when Cornwallis sent some fresh troops that turned the tide. In this sharp battle De Kalb was mortally wounded. Gates's whole army was utterly routed and dispersed. For many miles the roads were strewn with dead militia, killed in their flight by Tories; and, having made no provision for retreat, Gates was the most expert fugitive in running away. He abandoned his army, and, in an ignoble flight to Hillsborough, he rode about two hundred miles in three days and a half. He had lost about one thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners; the loss of the British was less than five hundred. The Americans lost all their artillery and ammunition, and a greater part of their baggage and stores.



VIEW AT SANDERS'S CREEK.

eight miles from Camden, they met the vanguard of the Americans, at a little after two o'clock in the morning (Aug. 16). It was a mutual surprise, and both began firing at the same time. Colonel Armand's troops, who led the van, fell back upon the First Maryland brigade, and broke its line. The whole army, filled with consternation, would have fled, but for the wisdom and skill of Porterfield, who, in rallying them, was mortally wounded. The British had the advantage, having crossed the creek, and were protected on flank and rear by an impenetrable swamp. Both parties halted, and waited anxiously for the dawn. The right of the British line was commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Webster, and the left by Lord Rawdon. De Kalb commanded the American right, and General Stevens the left, and the centre was composed of North Carolinians, under Colonel Caswell. A second line was formed by the First Maryland brigade, led by General Smallwood. The American artillery opened the battle. This cannonade was followed by an attack by volunteers, under Colonel Orho H. Williams, and Stevens's militia. The latter were mostly raw recruits, to whom bayonets had been given only the day before, and they did not know how to use them. The veterans, led by Webster, fell upon these raw troops with crushing force, and they threw down their muskets and fled to the woods for shelter. Then Webster attacked the

Sands, BENJAMIN F., was born in Maryland Feb. 11, 1812, and entered the United States Navy, as midshipman, April 1, 1828. He was attached to the coast survey before and after the war against Mexico (in which he participated), and, while engaged in the blockading service (1861-65), was in both attacks on Fort Fisher (which see). In May, 1867, he was made Superintendent of the Naval Observatory. He was made rear-admiral in 1871.

Sands, JOSHUA R., was born in New York, and became a midshipman in 1812, serving under Chauncey on Lake Ontario. He was made commodore on the retired list in 1862, and rear-admiral in 1866. He served on the Mexican coast in 1847-48, and was, at different times, commander of the East India, Mediterranean, and Brazilian squadrons.

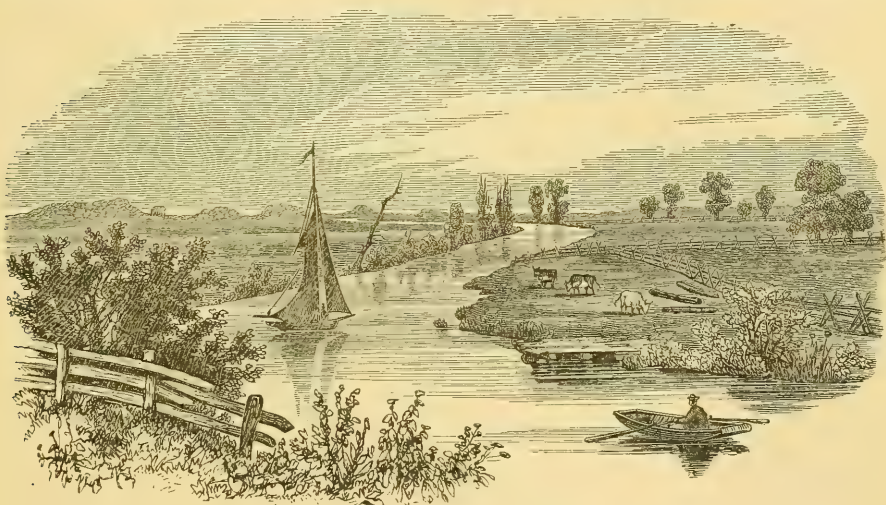
Sandusky, CAPTURE OF. On May 16, 1763, a party of Indians appeared at the gate of Fort Sandusky. The commander, Ensign Paulli, admitted seven of them as friends and acquaintances. They smoked awhile, when, at a preconcerted signal, they seized the ensign and carried him out of the room, where he saw the dead body of his sentry and of others of the garrison. All had been massacred by the treacherous Indians. They also killed the traders, seized their stores, and carried the ensign to Detroit as a trophy. (See *Pontiac's War*.)

Sandusky, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1782). Flushed with success against the Christian Indians on the Muskingum (see *Christian Indians*), four hundred and eighty men marched, under Colonels Williamson and Crawford, to complete their destruction by assailing them at Sandusky, on the southern borders of Lake Erie. They designed, at the same time, to strike a blow at the Wyandot towu. They fell into an Indian ambush near Sandusky, and, attacked by an overwhelming force, were compelled to retreat. Many stragglers were killed, and, while Will-

iamson escaped, Crawford and others were made prisoners. The colonel and his son-in-law were tortured and burned at the stake, in revenge for the cold-blooded murder on the Muskingum.

Sandwich Islands, ANNEXATION OF THE, TO THE UNITED STATES. In 1853 King Kamehameha, of the Sandwich Islands, expressed an earnest desire to have his domain attached to the United States. This was a matter of great moment, for these islands were to become of much importance in the commercial operations in the Pacific Ocean. A large majority of the white people there were Americans by birth, and the government, in all essential operations, was controlled by Americans, notwithstanding the ostensible ruler was a native sovereign. The consuls of England and France there, when they perceived a disposition on the part of the reigning monarch to have his kingdom annexed to the United States, charged the scheme to certain American missionaries, and officially protested against their alleged conduct. They declared that France and England would not remain indifferent spectators of such a transaction. The missionaries and the United States commissioners

anxiety felt, in the spring of 1814, to have the *Superior*, ship of war, built at Sackett's Harbor, made ready for sea, as Sir James L. Yeo would roam over Lake Ontario the unrestricted lord of the waters. Heavy guns and cables destined for her were yet at Oswego. The roads were almost impassable, and the blockade of Sackett's Harbor made a voyage thither by water a perilous one. The gallant master-commander, M. T. Woolsey, declared his willingness to attempt carrying the ordnance and naval stores to Stony Creek, three miles from Sackett's Harbor, where they might reach Commodore Chauncey in safety. On May 19 Woolsey was at Oswego with nineteen boats, heavily laden with cannons and naval stores. The flotilla went out of the harbor at twilight, bearing Major Appling, with one hundred and thirty riflemen. About the same number of Oneida Indians agreed to meet the flotilla at the mouth of Big Salmon River, and traverse the shore abreast the vessels, to assist in repelling any attack. Woolsey found it unsafe to attempt to reach Stony Creek, for the blockaders were vigilant, so he ran into Big Sandy Creek, a few miles from the harbor,



PLACE OF BATTLE AT SANDY CREEK.

there disclaimed any tampering with the native authorities. At the same time the latter, in a published reply to the protest, denied the right of any foreign government to interfere in the matter, if the transaction should be mutually agreeable to the king and the government of the United States. Preliminary negotiations were commenced, and a treaty was actually agreed upon, when the king died (Dec. 15, 1854). His son and successor, Prince Alexander Liholiho, immediately on his accession to the throne, ordered the discontinuance of the negotiations with the United States for annexation. The subject was not revived until the visit of Emma, queen of the islands, to the United States and England, in 1866, and was finally entirely dismissed.

Sandy Creek, BATTLE AT. There was great

under cover of a very dark night, and landed the precious treasure there. The British heard of the movement, and, ignorant of the presence of Major Appling and the Indians, proceeded to attempt to capture the flotilla on the Big Sandy. That stream winds through a marshy plain about two miles, and at that time was fringed with trees and shrubs. Among these Major Appling ambushed his riflemen and the Indians. Near Woolsey's boats were stationed some cavalry, artillery, and infantry, with field-pieces, which had been sent there from Sackett's Harbor. The confident and jolly Britons, sure of success, pushed up the sinuous creek with their vessels, and strong flanking-parties were thrown out on each shore. The guns of the vessels sent solid shot upon the American flotilla and grape and canister among the bushes. These dispersed the cow-

ardly Indians, but young Appling's sharpshooters were undisturbed. When the invaders were within rifle-range the riflemen opened destructive volleys upon them, and at the same time the artillery on shore opened a furious cannonade. So sharp and unexpected was the assault, in front, flank, and rear, that the British surrendered within ten minutes after the first gun was fired in response to their own. They had lost a midshipman and seventeen men killed, and at least fifty wounded. The Americans had one rifleman and one Indian warrior wounded, but lost no life. They captured the British squadron, with about one hundred and seventy officers and men as prisoners of war. A ponderous cable for the *Superior*, twenty-two inches in circumference, and weighing nine thousand six hundred pounds, was borne to the harbor in a day and a half, on the shoulders of two hundred militiamen, carrying it a mile at a time without resting.

Sandys, EDWIN, was born at Worcester, Eng., in 1561; died at Northbourne, Kent, in 1629. He was a son of the Bishop of York, was the pupil of Richard Hooker at Oxford, travelled much in Europe, and, on the accession of King James, was knighted. He became an influential member of the London Company, in which he introduced reforms; and in 1619, being treasurer of the company, he was chiefly instrumental in introducing representative government in Virginia, under Yeardly. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) The fickle king forbade his re-election in 1620; but he had served the interest of the colony and of humanity by proposing to send young maidens to Virginia to become wives of the planters. (See *Women in Virginia*.)

Sandys, GEORGE, brother of Edwin, was an English poet; was born at Bishopthorpe, Eng., in 1577; died at Boxley Abbey, Kent, in March, 1644. He, too, was educated at Oxford. He was appointed Treasurer of Virginia, and was an earnest worker for the good of the colony, building the first water-mill there. He promoted the establishment of iron-works, and introduced ship-building. He had published a book of travels; also a translation of the first five books of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, before he left England for Virginia. To these Drayton, in a rhyming letter, thus alludes:

"And, worthy George, by industry and use,
Let's see what lines Virginia will produce.
Go on with Ovid, as you have begun
With the first five books; let y^r numbers run
Glib as the former; so shall it live long,
And do much honor to the English tongue."

In Virginia he translated the other ten books, and the whole translation was published in London in folio, with full-page engravings, in 1626. Sandys wrote several other poetical works.

Santa Aña, ANTONIO LOPEZ DE, was born at Jalapa, Mexico, Feb. 21, 1798; died in the city of Mexico in the spring of 1876. His life was an eventful one. He began his military career in 1821 in the revolution by which Mexico achieved its independence of Spain. Imperious, disobedient, and revengeful, he was dismissed from the service. A keen intriguer, he secured the over-

throw of the existing government in Mexico in 1828. He was a brave and rather successful military leader, and led insurrection after insurrection, until in March, 1833, he obtained his election to the presidency of the republic of Mexico. He was a favorite with the army, but unpopular with the natives. There were repeated insurrections during his administration, and, finally, discontents in Texas broke out into revolution. Santa Aña took the field in person against the revolutionists, but was finally defeated at San Jacinto and taken prisoner (see *Texas*), when he was deposed from the presidency. In taking part in defending Vera Cruz against the French in 1837 he was wounded, and lost a leg by amputation. In the long contest between the Federalists and Centralists, taking part with the former, he was virtually dictator of Mexico from Oct. 10, 1841, to June 4, 1844, under the title of provisional president. He was made constitutional president from June 4 to Sept. 20, 1844, when he was deposed by a new revolution, taken prisoner near Tlaxolula, Jan. 15, 1845, and banished for ten years. He took up his residence in Cuba, where he secretly negotiated for the betrayal of his country to the United States. He was allowed to pass through Commodore Conner's fleet into Mexico, where he was appointed generalissimo of the army, and in December was elected provisional president of the republic. With an army of 20,000 men he lost the battle of Buena Vista (which see). He was afterwards defeated in battle at Cerro Gordo, and about the middle of September, 1847, was driven with near 2000 followers from the city of Mexico. He was deposed, and in April, 1848, he fled from the country to Jamaica, W. I. He returned to Mexico in 1853, where he was received with great enthusiasm and appointed president for one year, after which time he was to call a constitutional Congress; but he fomented a new revolution by which he was declared president for life, with power to appoint his successor. He began to rule despotically, and was soon confronted by a revolution led by General Alvarez. After a struggle of two years, he signed his unconditional abdication, and sailed for Cuba Aug. 16, 1855. He afterwards spent two years in Venezuela, and thence went to St. Thomas. During the French military occupation of Mexico he reappeared there and pledged himself to take no part in public affairs. But Santa Aña's passion for intrigue could not be repressed, and having issued a manifesto calculated to raise a disturbance in his favor, General Bazaine ordered him to quit the country forever in May, 1864. Some time afterwards, the Emperor Maximilian made him grand-marshal of the empire; but in 1865, having been implicated in a conspiracy against the emperor, he fled to St. Thomas. In 1867 he again made an attempt to gain ascendancy in Mexico, but was taken prisoner at Vera Cruz and condemned to be shot. President Juarez pardoned him on condition of his quitting Mexico forever. He came to the United States. After the death of Juarez he was permitted to return to his native country, and was living in seclusion in the city of Mexico when he died.

Santa Aña, EFFORTS OF, TO REGAIN POWER.

When Santa Aña fled from the capital (Sept. 14-15, 1847), he knew his political career in Mexico was ended, and he resigned the presidency which he had held for months by fraud and tyranny, and made a last effort to regain his lost reputation. He besieged the city of Puebla (September and October, 1847), garrisoned by a small number of troops under Colonel Childs, who was encumbered with 1800 sick. He summoned Childs to surrender, but was refused, and the garrison sustained themselves nobly under great privations. Rumors of the siege having reached Vera Cruz late in September, General Lane was despatched with a considerable force to relieve Childs. Hearing of this, Santa Aña marched to oppose Lane, who finally arrived at Puebla, and the Mexicans were driven away discomfited. The siege had continued forty days. Santa Aña was afterwards driven from Huamantla by General Lane, and fled towards the Gulf coast. Having received permission from the American commander-in-chief in Mexico, he sailed for Jamaica April 5, 1848. (See *Santa Aña*, Antonio Lopez de.)

Santa Aña's Perfidy. After the victory at Churubusco (which see) and the flight of the Mexicans from the city, General Scott advanced to Tacuba (Aug. 21, 1847), a few miles from the capital. He was met on the way by a proposition from Santa Aña for an armistice, preparatory to negotiations for peace. It was acceded to, and Nicholas P. Trist, whom the government had sent as a diplomatic agent to treat for peace, went into the city on the 24th for that purpose. Scott had made his headquarters at the palace of the Archbishop of Tacuba, where he waited several days for the return of Mr. Trist. He came back on the 5th of September with the information that his proposition for peace had not only been rejected, but that President Santa Aña had violated the armistice by strengthening the defences of the city. Scott was indignant, and immediately prepared to move on the city; and about a week later he entered the ancient capital of Mexico in triumph. (See *Mexico, War with*.)

Santa Rosa Island, BATTLE ON. Fort Pickens stands on Santa Rosa Island, off the harbor of Pensacola. In June, 1861, the New York Sixth (Zouave) Regiment, Colonel W. Wilson, arrived there as a part of the defenders of the fort. There was also a small blockading squadron near. On the night of September 2 (1861), a party from Fort Pickens under Lieutenant Shepley burned the dry-dock at the navy-yard at Warrington, and on the night of the 13th about one hundred men under Lieutenant J. H. Russell, of Commodore Merwin's flag-ship *Colorado*, crossed over to the navy-yard and burned the *Judah*, then fitting out for a privateer. There were then near the navy-yard about 1000 Confederate soldiers. These daring feats aroused the Confederates, and they became aggressive. Early in October they made an attempt to surprise and capture Wilson's Zouaves on Santa Rosa Island. About 1400 picked men, commanded by General Anderson, crossed over from Pensacola in several

steamboats, and at two o'clock in the morning (Oct. 9, 1861) landed four or five miles eastward of the Zouave camp. They marched upon the camp in three columns, drove in the pickets, and completely surprised the Zouaves. The war-cry of the Confederates was, "Death to Wilson! no quarter!" The Zouaves fought desperately in the intense darkness while being driven back to the shelter of the batteries, 400 yards from Fort Pickens. There were only 133 effective men. While falling back they were met by Major Vogdes with two companies, which were followed by two other companies, when the combined force charged upon the Confederates, who, having plundered and burned the Zouave camp, were in a disorganized state. They were driven in confusion to their vessels, and were assailed by volleys of bullets as they moved off. One of the vessels was so riddled by bullets that it sank. In this affair the Nationals lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, sixty-four men. Among the latter was Major Vogdes. The Confederates lost about 150, including those who were drowned.

Santee Canal. In the year 1800, the canal connecting the Cooper River with the Santee River, S. C., twenty-two miles in length, was completed, and boats passed through it. It cost \$600,000, a sum, it was said, seven times greater than the amount the province had sold for seventy-two years before.

Santo Domingo, one of the larger of the West India islands. The natives called it Hayti, the Spaniards Hispaniola, and afterwards by its present name. (It was so called by Bartholomew Columbus for the double reason, 1. That it was discovered by his brother on Sunday—the Lord's-day—and he spoke of it as *Domina*; and, 2. *Dominica* was the name of their father; so Bartholomew gave it the title of *Santo Domingo*.) It was discovered by Columbus in December, 1492 (see *Columbus, Christopher*), and at Isabella, on the north shore, was founded the first Spanish colony in the Western Hemisphere. The town of Santo Domingo was founded Aug. 4, 1496. The natives were kind and friendly towards the discoverers. "So loving and tractable and peaceable are these people," Columbus wrote to Isabella, "that I declare to your majesties that there is not in this world a better nation or a better land. They love their neighbors as themselves. Their discourse is ever sweet and gentle, and accompanied with a smile." The Spaniards soon extirpated the natives by their cruel treatment of them, making them slaves to work in the mines, without any distinction of sex. For nearly half a century the Spanish settlements there were prosperous, and then for a while they were nearly desolated because of the drain of men from there to settle discovered regions in adjacent islands and the continent. In 1509 Diego Columbus (see *Columbus, Diego*), who had married a daughter of the great Duke of Alba, and obtained a decree in confirmation of his title to the offices of his father, sailed from Spain as governor, or viceroy, of Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo, succeeding Ovando. He was accompanied by a numerous retinue of men and

women of some of the first families in Spain, and with pomp and ceremony the young Columbus, with his "vice-regal queen," held a court which spread a halo of romance around that West Indian empire. From Santo Domingo were sent out expeditions to conquer Cuba and other islands, as well as points on the neighboring continent, and until the middle of the sixteenth century it was the heart of Spanish dominion in America. At that time the native inhabitants of Santo Domingo, who numbered 100,000 when the Spaniards came, had been reduced by cruel treatment to 60,000.

Santo Domingo and Guadeloupe. Toussaint l'Ouverture, an able negro, became a trusted military leader in Hayti, or Santo Domingo, in 1791. When the English invaded the island in 1793, Toussaint, who had resisted the claims of the French to the island, perceiving that the best hopes of his race then centred in France, whose Assembly had proclaimed the freedom of the slaves, declared his fealty to the republic. He and his followers subdued both the English and Spaniards, and, in 1796, he was made commander-in-chief of the forces of the island. He was rapidly advancing the prosperity of his people by wise and energetic measures, when a civil war broke out. Toussaint restored order, and, in January, 1801, the whole island became subject to his sway, and he assumed the government. A constitution was drawn up by which he was named president for life. Toussaint sent it to Bonaparte, who angrily exclaimed, "He is a revolted slave, whom we must punish; the honor of France is outraged." He sent out General Leclerc, his sister Pauline's husband, with 30,000 men and sixty-six war-vessels, to subdue the "usurper." He arrived in January, 1802. Toussaint regarded this armament as an instrument of enslavement for himself and his people, and a new war ensued, in which the French army was completely decimated by the sword and the more destructive yellow-fever. Of Leclerc's troops, 20,000 perished, and 60,000 white people were massacred by the infuriated negroes. Peace was restored, and Toussaint was treacherously seized, taken to France, and starved to death in prison.—Meanwhile, the black and mulatto population of Guadeloupe arose in insurrection, seized the French governor sent out by Bonaparte, declared the freedom of the slaves, and established a provisional government in October, 1801. They were subdued, and Bonaparte re-established slavery in the island and authorized the re-opening of the slave-trade.

Santo Domingo and the United States (1817). Hayti, or Santo Domingo, was divided among several chiefs after the assassination of Dessalines, a self-constituted emperor, in 1806. The principal of these black chiefs was Henri Christophe in the northwest, and Pétion in the southwest. The eastern portion of the island was repossessed by Spain. Christophe assumed the functions of a monarch in 1811, with the title of King Henri I., and had the office made hereditary in his family. Wisbing to establish commercial relations with Santo Domingo, the

President of the United States sent an agent to Christophe in the summer of 1817. The latter and Pétion had lately established friendly relations between themselves in order to present a better front against the claims of the restored French monarchy. Instead of ordinary letters of credence as between independent states, this agent bore only a simple certificate of his appointment. Christophe expressed a desire for friendly relations with the United States, but, standing upon his dignity, he declined to enter into any diplomatic relations not based on the usual formalities between independent nations. The United States government hesitated to recognize the independence of Hayti. The idea of acknowledging as a nation a community of colored people was distasteful to the representatives of the slave-labor states, and the mission of the agent was a failure.

Santo Domingo and the United States (1869). The possession of territory by the United States among the West India islands had been considered desirable for a long time, and in 1869 the governments of the United States and Hayti conferred on the subject of the annexation of the island of Santo Domingo to the domain of the Republic. In November (1869) a treaty to that effect was made, but the United States Senate refused to ratify it. More information was needed. The President appointed a commission to visit the island and obtain it. Their report in the spring of 1872 did not lead to a ratification, and the subject was dropped as a national measure. The government of Santo Domingo ceded to a private company (1873) a large portion of the island, with valuable privileges and franchises. All the public lands on the peninsula of Samana and the waters of Samana Bay, were ceded to the Samana Bay Company.

Santo Domingo, FINAL SUBJUGATION OF THE NATIVES OF. The natives had made several attempts to recover their liberties from the Spanish invaders. In 1505 Ovando (which see) summoned the Spaniards to arms to subjugate the whole population of the island. In violation of a treaty, he seized the eastern portion of the island and hanged the cacique. A female cacique governed the western province of the island. She had been uniformly kind towards the Spaniards, and was beloved by her people. She was falsely accused of a design to exterminate the intruders. With this pretext as an excuse, Ovando, under the pretence of making her a friendly visit, marched towards her province with three hundred foot and seventy horsemen. The queen received him with every token of honor, and feasted him for several days. At a preconceived signal the Spaniards drew their swords, rushed on the defenceless Indians, bound them hand and foot, seized their beloved ruler, and setting fire to the building in which all the guests had assembled, left the bound victims to perish in the flames. Anacoana, the queen, was carried in chains to the Spanish capital, and there, without trial, was hanged. This terrible affair broke the spirit of the nation, and they

never made further resistance to their Spanish masters. The inhabitants of the island, supposed to have numbered 100,000 when Columbus discovered it thirteen years before, were now reduced to 60,000. The natives of the Lucayo Islands, once numbering 120,000, had been so wasted in the mines of Santo Domingo and Cuba, under the lash of the Spaniards and by sickness and famine, that they had become extinct.

Saratoga, ATTACK UPON. Late in the fall of 1745, an expedition consisting of more than 500 French and Indians and a few disaffected warriors of the Six Nations, led by M. Marin, an active French officer, invaded the upper valley of the Hudson, and by their doings spread alarm as far south as the Hudson Highlands. They came down from Montreal, and reached Crown Point on the 28th of November, intending to penetrate the valley of the Connecticut. At the suggestion of Father Piquet, the French *Préfet Apostolique* to Canada, who met the expedition at Crown Point, Marin determined to lead his party towards Albany and cut off the advancing English settlements. They passed up Lake Champlain, crossed over to the Hudson River, destroyed a lumber-yard on the site of Fort Edward, and approached the thriving settlement of Saratoga, at the junction of Fish Creek and the Hudson. It was a scattered little village, composed mostly of the tenants of Philip Schuyler, who owned mills and a large landed estate there. Accompanied by Father Piquet, Marin, having laid waste nearly fifty miles of English settlements, fell upon the sleeping villagers at Saratoga at midnight (Nov. 28), plundered everything of value, murdered Mr. Schnyler, burned a small ungarrisoned fort near by and most of the dwellings, and made one hundred and nine men, women, and children captives. The next morning, after chanting the *Te Deum* in the midst of the desolation, the marauders turned their faces towards Canada with their prisoners. The fort was rebuilt, garrisoned, and called Fort Clinton; but late in 1747, unable to defend it against the French and Indians, it was burned by the English.

Sargent, WINTHROP, was born at Gloucester, Mass., May 1, 1753; died on a voyage from Natchez to Philadelphia, June 3, 1820. He graduated at Harvard University in 1771. He entered the military service in 1775, and was captain of Knox's artillery regiment in March, 1776, serving in that branch during the war, and engaging in the principal battles in the North, attaining the rank of major. Connected with the Ohio Company (which see), in 1786 Congress appointed him Surveyor of the Northwest Territory, and he was made its first secretary. He was St. Clair's adjutant-general at the time of his defeat in 1791, when he was wounded; and was adjutant-general and inspector of Wayne's troops in 1794-95. He was made Governor of the Northwest Territory in 1798. Mr. Sargent was a member of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, and of the Philosophical Society, Philadelphia.

Savage's Station, BATTLE AT (1862). Before

dawn of June 28, 1862, McClellan's army was marching for Turkey Bend, on the James River, in its transfer from the Chickahominy to the James. General Keyes led the way through White Oak Swamp, followed by Porter's shattered corps. (See *Gaines's Mills, Battle of*.) Then came a train of 5000 wagons laden with ammunition, stores, and baggage, and a drove of 2500 beef-cattle. This movement was so well masked that Lee, who suspected McClellan was about to give battle on the northern side of the Chickahominy in defence of his stores at the White House, or was preparing to retreat down the Peninsula, was completely deceived; and it was late in the night of the 28th of June when the astounding fact was announced to him that the Army of the Potomac was far on its way towards a new position on the James River; that a large portion of the stores at the White House had been removed; and that the remainder, together with the mansion (his wife's property), were in flames. He immediately put in operation measures to overtake and destroy the retreating army. McClellan's rear-guard, composed of the divisions of Sedgwick, Richardson, Heintzelman, and Smith, of Franklin's corps, were at Savage's Station, under the general command of Sumner. There they were assailed by a Confederate force under Magruder, who first attacked Sedgwick at about nine o'clock on the morning of June 29. He was easily repulsed. Supposing the Nationals to be advancing, he sent to Hunger for aid; but finding they were only a covering party, these troops did not join him. By a misconception of an order the National line had been weakened, and at four o'clock in the afternoon Magruder fell upon the Unionists with much violence. He was again repulsed by the brigades of Burns, Brooke, and Hancock. The Sixty-ninth New York and the batteries of Pettit, Osborn, and Bramhall then took an effective part in the action, and the battle raged furiously until eight or nine o'clock in the evening, when Magruder recoiled. He had expected aid from Jackson, but was disappointed. Darkness put an end to the battle of Savage's Station. Covered by French's brigade, the National troops fell back to White Oak Swamp, and by five o'clock in the morning (June 30) they were beyond the creek, and the bridge, over which nearly the whole Army of the Potomac had passed, was destroyed behind them. 2500 wounded men had been left at Savage's Station.

Savannah, CAPTURE OF (1778). Late in 1778 Sir Henry Clinton despatched Lieutenant-colonel Campbell with about 2000 men to invade Georgia. He sailed from New York on Nov. 27, under convoy of a portion of Commodore Hyde Parker's fleet. They arrived at the mouth of the Savannah on Dec. 23, and, after much hindrance, made their way towards Savannah, opposed by General Robert Howe with about 600 Continentals and a few hundred militia. Howe was defeated, and fled, pursued by the invaders. Savannah passed into the hands of the British, with 453 prisoners, 48 cannons, 23 mortars, the fort (with its ammunition and stores), the ship-

ping in the river, and a large quantity of provisions. The Americans lost, in killed or drowned, about 100 men; the British, about 26 killed and wounded. Howe, with the survivors, retreated into South Carolina.

Savannah, EVACUATION OF. On the 11th of July, 1782, the British troops evacuated Savannah, after an occupation of three years and a half. In consideration of the services of General James Jackson, Wayne, who was in command of the Continentals in Georgia, appointed him to "receive the keys of Savannah from a committee of British officers." He did so, and on the same day the American army entered Savannah, when royal power ceased in Georgia forever. Governor Martin called a special meeting, in Savannah (Aug. 1), of the Georgia Legislature, at the house of General McIntosh. Very soon the free and independent State of Georgia began its career.

Savannah, SIEGE OF (1779). In August, 1779, Count d'Estaing appeared off the Southern coasts with twenty-two ships-of-the-line. General Lincoln, in command of the Southern army, was at Charleston, when a French frigate came there to announce the arrival of the fleet and the admiral's willingness to assist the republican army in the reduction of Savannah, provided he should not be detained too long on that dangerous coast, for he could find neither roadstead nor offing for his great ships of war. His entire fleet consisted of thirty-three vessels, bearing a large number of heavy guns. On the appearance of the fleet General Prevost summoned the troops from all his outposts to the defence of Savannah, and three hundred negroes from the neighboring plantations were pressed into the service in strengthening the fortifications around the town. Very soon, under the direction of Major Moncrief, thirteen redoubts and fifteen batteries, with connecting lines of intrenchments, were completed, on which seventy-six cannons were mounted. Before them a strong abatis was laid. Meanwhile Lincoln had marched from Charleston, and reached the Savannah River on Sept. 12; and on the same day French troops landed below Savannah and marched up to within three miles of the town. Lincoln approached, and on Sept. 23 the combined armies commenced a siege. D'Estaing had demanded a surrender of the post on the 16th, when Prevost, hourly expecting reinforcements of eight hundred men from Beaufort, asked for a truce, which was unwisely granted. The reinforcements came, and then Prevost gave a defiant refusal. The siege, begun on Sept. 23, lasted until Oct. 8, with varying success. During the last five days a heavy cannonade and bombardment had been kept up on the British works with very little effect. D'Estaing, impatient of delay, then proposed to take the place by storm. Lincoln reluctantly agreed to the proposal, for there seemed a certainty of final victory if the siege should continue. A plan of attack was revealed to Prevost by a citizen of Charleston—a sergeant in Lincoln's army—and gave the British a great advantage. The as-

sault was made before dawn on Oct. 9 by the combined forces, 4500 strong, in three columns, led respectively by D'Estaing, Count Dillon, and Huger (of Charleston). They were shrouded in a dense fog and covered by the French batteries. After five hours of fierce conflict there was a truce for the purpose of burying the dead. Already one thousand of the Americans and Frenchmen had been killed or wounded. Among the latter was D'Estaing, who was carried to his camp. Count Pulaski, at the head of his legion, was mortally wounded by a grape-shot. During the truce D'Estaing and Lincoln held a consultation. The former, having lost many men, wished to abandon the siege; the latter, confident of final success, wished to continue it. D'Estaing positively refused to remain any longer, and on the evening of Oct. 18 the allies withdrew, the French to their ships, and the Americans to Zubley's Ferry, on the Savannah. Lincoln retreated to Charleston, and the French fleet sailed for France at the beginning of November. The allied armies lost over one thousand men, the British only one hundred and twenty. Thus closed the campaign of 1779.

Savannah, THE PRIVATEER. The most notable of the Confederate privateers at the beginning of our Civil War (1861) was the *Savannah*, Captain T. H. Baker, of Charleston, S. C. She was a little schooner which had done duty in Charleston harbor as a pilot-boat, only fifty-four tons' burden. She sallied out of Charleston harbor at the close of May, 1861, captured a Maine merchant brig, and proceeded in search of other prizes. On June 3 she fell in with the National brig *Perry*, which she mistook for a merchant-vessel, but, discovering her mistake, attempted to escape. After a sharp fight the *Savannah* was captured and sent to New York. She was the first vessel captured bearing the Confederate flag. Her captain and crew were tried for piracy in New York, under the proclamation of President Lincoln of April 19, 1861. (See *Confederate Privateers*.) President Davis, in a letter to President Lincoln, threatened to deal with prisoners in his hands precisely as the captain and crew of the *Savannah* should be dealt with. He held Colonel Michael Corcoran, of the Sixty-ninth New York (Irish) Regiment, and others as hostages, to suffer death in case that penalty should be inflicted on the prisoners of the *Savannah*. The case attracted much attention at home and abroad, and in the British Parliament it was argued that, as the Confederates possessed belligerent rights (see *Queen Victoria's Proclamation*), the prisoners were privateers, not pirates. Judge C. P. Daly, of New York, argued that they were on the same level in the grade of guilt with every Confederate soldier, and that if one must suffer death for piracy, the other must suffer death for treason; and the government having so far conceded belligerent rights to the Confederates as to exchange prisoners of war, it could not consistently make a distinction between prisoners taken on land and on the sea. He recommended, as a measure of expediency, that the Presi-

dent should treat the prisoners as "privateersmen" and prisoners of war. This recommendation was followed.

Savings-banks. The first regular institution of this kind was established at Hamburg in 1778. The next was at Berne, Switzerland, in 1787. The oldest savings-bank in the world, still in existence, was founded at Zurich, Switzerland, in 1803. The first savings-bank in the United States was established in Philadelphia in 1816, and in 1880 still existed as a flourishing institution. It was called the "Philadelphia Savings Fund Society." It held on deposit on Jan. 1, 1875, \$10,275,752. The second savings-bank was established in Boston the same year, and the third in New York in 1819. The banks are regulated by state laws, and the average rate of interest paid by them is five per cent. A careful estimate placed the number of depositors in the numerous savings-banks in the United States in 1875 at 2,164,263, and the aggregate amount of deposits at \$810,096,745. In 1889 the number of such banks was 849, and the total deposits contained in them amounted to \$1,444,391,325. New York led the other states in the number of such banks.

Saxton, RUFUS, was born at Deerfield, Mass., Oct. 19, 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1849. In 1853 he led a surveying-party across the Rocky Mountains, and afterwards was employed in the Coast Survey. He was with Captain Lyon at St. Louis when the Civil War broke out, and was prominent in breaking up "Camp Jackson," so called. He was with McClellan in western Virginia, and then with General Sherman in the South as quartermaster-general. He was in command at Harper's Ferry a while, and, as brigadier-general (April 15, 1862), he was made Military Governor of the Department of the South, serving in that capacity from 1862 to 1865. In March, 1865, he was breveted brigadier-general United States Army.

Saybrook (CONN.), ATTACK UPON (1814). Early in April, 1814, a number of British barges, supposed to contain about two hundred and twenty men, entered the Connecticut River, passed up seven or eight miles, and landed at a place called Pettipaug (a part of Saybrook), where the invaders destroyed about twenty-five vessels. This disaster caused the Governor of Connecticut (Smith) to call out the militia for the defence of the sea-coast of the state.

Say-Brook, FORT. On his arrival at Boston in 1635, John Winthrop, son of the Governor of Massachusetts, bearing a commission from Lord Say and Seal and Lord Brook to begin a settlement on the Connecticut River and to be governor there, sent a bark of thirty tons, with twenty men, to take possession of the mouth of the river and begin a fortification there. He brought with him from England men, ordnance, ammunition, and \$10,000 for the purpose. A few days after the arrival of the English at the mouth of the river, a Dutch vessel sent from Manhattan (which see) appeared, with the design of taking possession of the same spot. The English, having two pieces of cannon already

mounted, would not allow the Dutch to land. The fort erected by the English was called Say-Brook, in honor of the proprietors of the land.

Saybrook Platform. A colonial synod was held at Saybrook, Sept. 9, 1703, by legislative command, to frame an ecclesiastical constitution. That synod agreed that the confession of faith assented to by the synod in Boston in 1680 be recommended to the General Assembly, at the next session, for their public testimony to it as the faith of the churches of the Connecticut colony; and that the heads of agreement assented to by the united ministers, formerly called Presbyterian and Congregational, be observed throughout the colony. It also agreed on articles for the administration of church discipline. This was called the "Saybrook Platform." In October the Legislature of Connecticut passed an act adopting the platform then constructed as the ecclesiastical constitution of the colony. This system, so closely Presbyterian, was favored by the Latitudinarians (which see), because it diminished the influence of unrestrained and bigoted church members and gave the more intelligent members greater weight in church affairs.

Scale of Prices for Army Supplies. There was so much embarrassment and dissatisfaction in the purchase of army supplies, owing to the depreciation of Continental paper-money, that Washington's recommendations to Congress on the subject were acted upon by that body. They recommended a convention of delegates from eight Northern States. They met at New Haven (Jan. 8, 1778), and agreed upon a scale of prices, according to which provisions and clothing were to be paid for by the army commissaries. Some of the states attempted to enforce the New Haven scale of prices on everything, but, like former efforts, these failed. (See *New England Convention*.)

Scammel, ALEXANDER, was born at Mendon, Mass., March 24, 1747; died at Williamsburg, Va., Oct. 6, 1781. He graduated at Harvard University in 1769. He taught school, practised surveying, and became proprietor of the town of Shapleigh, Me. In 1775 he was studying law with General Sullivan, when he left his books and joined the army at Cambridge as Sullivan's brigade-major. He was with him in the battle of Long Island (which see), and of Trenton and Princeton; was especially distinguished at Saratoga; and from 1778 to 1781 was adjutant-general of the army. He commanded a regiment of light infantry in the siege of Yorktown, where he was surprised, and surrendered, but was so badly wounded that he died a few days afterwards.

Schenck, JAMES F., was born in Ohio, June 19, 1807. He entered the United States Navy in 1825; served on the Pacific coast with Stockton during the Mexican War; and commanded the East India squadron in 1860-61. He was afterwards engaged in the blockading service, and was in command of a division in Porter's fleet in the attacks on Fort Fisher. He was made rear-admiral on the retired list in July, 1870.

Schenck, ROBERT CUMMING, brother of Admiral Schenck, was born at Franklin, Warren Co., O., Oct. 4, 1809. He graduated at Miami University in 1827; was admitted to the bar in 1831, and settled in Dayton. In 1840 he was in the Ohio Legislature; and from 1843 to 1851 he was a member of Congress, when he went as American Minister to Brazil, where he took part in the negotiation of several treaties in South America. In 1861 he entered the field as brigadier-general of volunteers (May 17), and had his first encounter with the insurgents near Vienna, Va. (which see). He was engaged in the battle of Bull's Run; then served in western Virginia; and after the battle at Cross Keys (which see) Frémont placed him in command of a division. In the battle of Groveton, or second battle of Bull's Run (which see), he had his right arm shattered by a ball. In September, 1862, he was promoted to major-general, and a little later was in command at Baltimore. From 1863 to 1871 he was a member of Congress, and in the latter year was appointed minister to England. Died at Washington, D.C., March 23, 1890.

Schenectady, DESTRUCTION OF. Count Frontenac arrived in Canada as governor by reappointment in October, 1689. He brought with him troops and supplies and a plan for the invasion and occupation of New York. Invasions by the Iroquois had reduced Canada to great distress, and his arrival was timely relief. Frontenac was about seventy years of age, but possessed the vigor and buoyancy of a young man. (See *Frontenac, Louis de Buade*.) He set to work with energy to carry the war into the British colonies by land and sea. His first organized war-party was composed chiefly of Mohawks converted by the Jesuit missionaries, who were settled near Montreal. They were acquainted with the settlements about Albany. These Mohawks, with a number of Frenchmen, were sent to attack these settlements. They traversed the wooded wilderness southward among deep snows, and, after a march of twenty days, approached Schenectady, a Dutch village in the Mohawk valley, and the outpost of the settlements at Albany. There were about forty houses enclosed in a palisade, but, unaware of danger, the gates were left open, and the people were sleeping soundly, when, on the night of Feb. 8, 1690, the invaders entered the village silently, separated into several bands. The horrid signal of the war-whoop was given, and the attack began. Doors were broken open, indiscriminate slaughter ensued, and the houses were set on fire. Sixty men, women, and children were slain, twenty-seven were taken prisoners, and the remainder fled, half-naked, through a driving snow-storm, to Albany, sixteen miles distant. The cold was so intense that many lost their limbs by frost. This raid created intense alarm.

Schofield, JOHN McALLISTER, was born in Chautauqua County, N. Y., Sept. 29, 1831, and graduated at West Point in 1853, where he was instructor in natural philosophy for five years. Under leave of absence he was filling a like po-

sition in the Washington University, Mo., when the Civil War broke out. He was chief of Lyon's staff at Wilson's Creek (which see), and in November, 1861, was made brigadier-general of



JOHN McALLISTER SCHOFIELD.

volunteers, commanding the Missouri militia. In April, 1862, he commanded the District of Missouri, and in October the Army of the Frontier, with which he drove the organized Confederate forces into Arkansas. In November, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers. In the Atlanta campaign, in 1864, he was conspicuous; also in the campaign against Hood in Tennessee (see *Franklin, Battle of*), until the battle of Nashville (which see), when he was transferred to North Carolina, taking possession of Wilmington, and was active until the surrender of Johnston (which see). He was breveted major-general United States Army in March, 1865. He was Secretary of War *ad interim* on the resignation of General Grant in 1868. He resigned in 1869, and was assigned to the Department of Missouri. On Aug. 14, 1888, he succeeded General Sheridan as commander of the United States Army.

School District Libraries were first established in the State of New York in 1837, when the Legislature appropriated for the purpose \$200,000 annually for three years, and has since, for the support of these free district libraries, annually appropriated \$55,000. Each district is authorized to levy a small tax annually for the same purpose. The number of volumes in these libraries in 1876 was about a million. Other states have followed the example of New York.

School of Fine Arts, FIRST, PROJECTED IN AMERICA. In 1622 Edward Palmer, a native of Gloucestershire, Eng., obtained from the London Company a grant of land in Virginia, and from the Plymouth Company a tract in New England. Mr. Palmer died late in 1624. Just before his death he made provision in a will for the establishment, conditionally, of a "university" in Virginia, with which was to be connected a school of fine arts. His will, dated Nov. 2 (O. S.), 1624, provided for the descent of his lands in Virginia and New England to his sons and nephews, saying: "But if all issue fails,

then all said land is to remain for the founding and maintenance of a university and such schools in Virginia as shall there be erected (see *Henrico College*), and the university shall be called 'Academia Virginiensis Oxoniensis.' After providing for scholarships in the university for the male descendants of his grandfather, Mr. Palmer's will provided "that the scholars of the said university, for the avoiding of idleness, shall have two painters, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, who shall be admitted fellows of the same college, to the end and intent that the said scholars shall or may learn the art of painting; and further, my will and mind is that two grinders, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, and also oil and gum-waters, shall be furnished, from time to time, at the cost and charges of the said college." Mr. Palmer purchased a picturesque island in the Susquehanna, opposite the present village of Havre-de-Grace, Md., which was originally called Palmer's Island. It is now Watson's Island. There Mr. Palmer expected the university and school of fine arts to be established. The family of Edward Palmer had been identified with Warwickshire from the time of William the Conqueror. He was married to a relative of the same name. Of this marriage Thomas Fuller, author of *Worthies of England*, wrote:

"Palmero Palmera nubit; sic nubilis amnis
Auctor adjunctis nobilitatis aquis—"

"A Palmer maiden is wedded to a Palmer; as a full river is enlarged by the added waters of excellence." Edward Palmer's sister was the mother of the unfortunate poet Thomas Overbury, who was poisoned (1613) at the instigation of the vile Countess of Essex, afterwards Lady Somerset. During the later years of his life Palmer resided in London, and his collection of rarities and ancient Greek and Roman coins was well known among literary men. Fuller says: "His plenteous estate afforded him opportunity to put forward the ingenuity implanted by nature for the public good, resolving to erect an academy in Virginia. In order whereunto he purchased an island, called Palmer's Island to this day [1662]." This school of fine arts in America was projected years before Dean Berkeley projected his college in the Bermudas (see *Berkeley, George*) and brought John Smybert with him to cultivate art therein. (See *Smybert, John*.)

Schoolcraft, HENRY ROWE, LL.D., was born at Watervliet, N. Y., March 28, 1793; died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 10, 1864. His ancestor who first settled in America was a school-teacher named Calcraft, and he was popularly named Schoolcraft. Henry studied chemistry and mineralogy in Union College in 1807-8. In 1817-18 he took a scientific tour in the West, and made a fine mineralogical and geological collection, publishing, in 1819, *A View of the Lead Mines of Missouri*, which was enlarged and published (1853) under the title of *Scenes and Adventures in the Semi-Alpine Regions of the Ozark Mountains of Missouri and Arkansas*. In 1820 he was geologist of an exploring expedition, under General Cass,

to the Lake Superior copper region. He was also on a commission to treat with the Indians at Chicago. In 1823 he was made Indian agent at the Falls of St. Mary, and afterwards at Mackinaw, where he married an accomplished young woman, a granddaughter of an Indian chief. He founded the Historical Society of Michigan in 1828; the Algic Society, at Detroit, in 1831, before which he delivered two lectures on the grammatical construction of the Indian languages. These, translated into French by Duponceau and presented to the French Institute, procured for Schoolcraft a gold medal from that institution. He published several works on Indian literature, as well as fiction, and in 1832 he led a second government expedition to discover the real chief source of the Mississippi River, which was found to be Lake Itasca. In a treaty with the Indians on the Upper Lakes in 1836 he procured the cession of sixteen million acres of land to the United States, and he was appointed Chief Disbursing Agent for the Northern Department. After visiting Europe, he was employed by the State of New York in making a census and collecting statistics of the Six Nations (which see), and in 1847 he was employed by authority of Congress in the preparation of a work, of which six volumes have appeared, entitled, *Historical and Statistical Information Respecting the History, Condition, and Prospects of the Indian Tribes of the United States*. He wrote *Personal Memoirs of a Residence of Thirty Years with the Indian Tribes on the American Frontiers* (1863), and several other works on the red race. *The Indian Fairy Book*, compiled from his manuscripts, was published in 1868.

Schurz, CARL, was born near Cologne, Germany, March 2, 1829. He studied at the gymnasium at Cologne and at the University of Bonn. With other students he engaged in the revolutionary movements in 1848; joined Gottfried Kinkel in publishing a liberal newspaper, and, after the failure of an attempt at insurrection at Bonn (1849), both were compelled to fly. Schurz afterwards made his way to Switzerland. Finally, on the night of Nov. 6, 1850, he rescued Kinkel from the fortress of Spandan, escaped to the sea, and took passage in a schooner for Leith. Thence Schurz went to Paris; thence to London, in 1851, where he was a teacher until the summer of 1852, when he came to America, landing at Philadelphia. There he remained three years, and then settled at Madison, Wis. In the presidential campaign of 1856 he became a noted German orator, and in 1858 he began to make public speeches in English. He soon afterwards became a lawyer at Milwaukee, and, in the winter of 1859-60, he was recognized as one of the most popular lecturers. He took a leading part in the Republican National Convention in 1860, when Mr. Lincoln was nominated for President, and made effective speeches during the campaign. After his inauguration (March, 1861), Mr. Lincoln appointed him minister to Spain, but he returned to the United States in December, resigned the office of minister, became a brigadier-general of volunteers, in April, 1862, and major-general in March, 1863.

He was in command of a division in the battle of Groveton, or second battle of Bull's Run, and at Chancellorsville, and was temporarily in command of the Eleventh Corps at the battle of Gettysburg, afterwards taking part in the battle of Chattanooga (which see). After the war General Schurz resumed the practice of law in Washington, and was for some time the Washington correspondent of the *New York Tribune*. In 1866 he was sent to the South as a commissioner to examine and report on the condition of the Southern States, especially upon the condition of the Freedmen's Bureau. His report was submitted to Congress. In the same year he founded the *Detroit Post*, and in 1867 he became editor of a German paper published in St. Louis. He labored earnestly for the nomination and election of General Grant for the Presidency of the United States, and, in January, 1869, he was chosen United States Senator from Missouri for the term ending in 1875. In that body he opposed some of the leading measures of President Grant's administration, and took a prominent part in the organization known as "Liberal Republicans," which nominated Mr. Greeley for President. General Schurz visited Europe in 1873 and 1875. In March, 1877, he became Secretary of the Interior. In 1881 General Schurz became chief editor of the *N. Y. Evening Post*.

Schuyler and a Council of Officers. When Willett reached Schuyler's camp with Gansevoort's call for relief (see *Fort Schuyler, Siege of*), the general called a council of officers and proposed to send a detachment up the Mohawk valley. The officers opposed the measure, because the army was then too weak to successfully oppose Burgoyne. The general persisted in his opinion of the wisdom and humanity of the measure, and, while walking the floor with great anxiety, he heard one of the officers say, in a half-whisper, "He means to weaken the army." This charge of implied treason aroused his anger so fiercely that, unconsciously biting a clay-pipe he was smoking into several pieces, he exclaimed, in a tone that aved the whole company into silence, "Gentlemen, I shall take the responsibility upon myself. Where is the brigadier who will take command of the relief? I shall beat up for volunteers to-morrow." General Arnold immediately stepped forward, and before noon the following day eight hundred volunteers were on the march. The fort was relieved, and Burgoyne thereby received a deadly blow.

Schuyler and Gates. Gates, piqued by the omission of the Continental Congress to appoint him one of the major-generals in the army (June, 1775), but only adjutant-general, with rank of brigadier, indulged in unworthy intrigues for promotion. He was a favorite with some of the leading men in Congress from New England, and very soon a Gates faction appeared in that body. When disaster overwhelmed the republican army in Canada he was sent thither, by order of Congress, to take command of it, and, because his power was independent while the troops were in Canada, he assumed that his command would be independent in any part of the

Northern Department. When the troops were out of Canada he assumed that independence. Schuyler questioned his powers, and Congress was compelled to tell Gates that he was subordinate to Schuyler. Late in the year (1776) he repaired to the Congress at Baltimore and renewed his intrigues so successfully that, on account of false charges against Schuyler, he was appointed his successor in the command of the Northern Department in the spring of 1777. The report of a committee of inquiry caused Schuyler's reinstatement a few weeks afterwards. Gates was angry, and wrote impertinent letters to his superiors. He refused to serve under Schuyler, who had always treated him with the most generous courtesy, but hastened to the Congress, then again in Philadelphia, and, by the misrepresentation of one of his faction, was admitted to the floor of that body, where he so conducted himself as to receive rebuke. A conspiracy for the removal of Schuyler and the appointment of Gates in his place, soon ripened into action. The evacuation of Ticonderoga early in July (1777) was charged to Schuyler's inefficiency, and he was even charged, indirectly, with treason. So great became the clamor against him, especially from the constituents of Gates's friends in Congress from New England, that, early in August, those friends procured Schuyler's removal and the appointment of Gates to his place. The patriotic Schuyler, unmoved in his sense of duty by this rank injustice, received Gates kindly and offered his services to the new commander, who treated the general with the greatest coolness. The victories over Burgoyne soon ensued, the whole preparation for which had been made by Schuyler. (See *Bemis's Heights, First Battle of*.)

Schuyler, ATTEMPTED ABDUCTION OF. In the summer of 1781 General Schuyler, withdrawn from military service, was at his home, just on the southern verge of the city of Albany. Plans had been matured for seizing Schuyler, Governor Clinton, and other leading republicans of the state. In August, 1781, an attempt was made to abduct Schuyler by Walter Meyer, a Tory, who had eaten bread at the general's table. The object of these seizures was to have notable prisoners to exchange for British captives. Meyer, at the head of a band of Tories, Canadians, and Indians, repaired to the neighborhood of



SCHUYLER'S MANSION IN ALBANY.

Albany, where he seized a Dutch laborer and learned from him the precise condition of affairs at Schuyler's house. He was allowed to depart after taking an oath of secrecy, but, with a men-

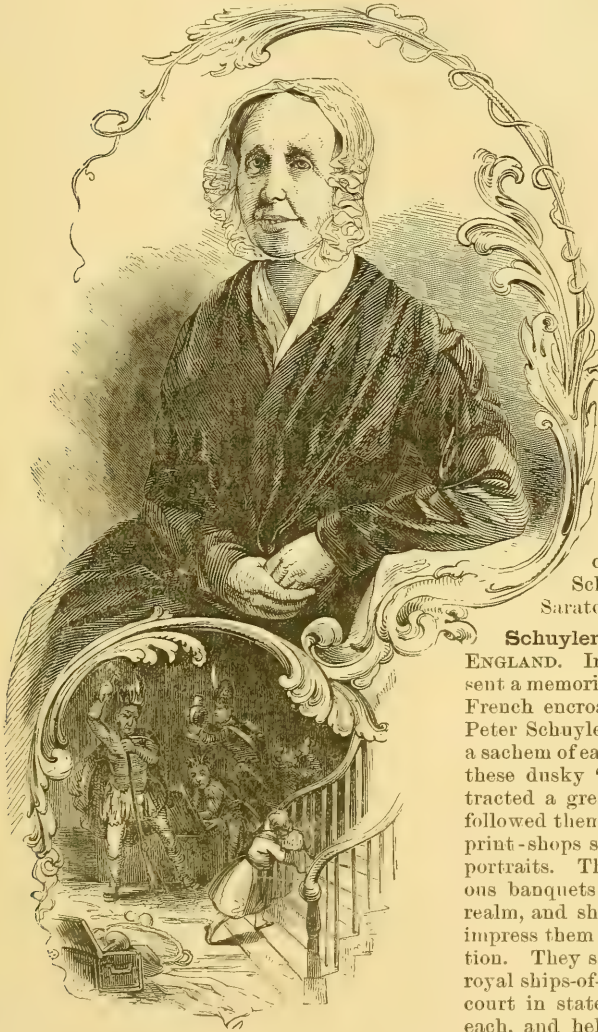
tal reservation, he warned the general, and Schuyler and his family were on the alert. Just at twilight of a sultry August evening, a servant told the general that a stranger at the back gate desired to speak to him. He comprehended the errand. The doors of the house were immediately closed and barred, the family went to the second story, and the general hastened to his room for his fire-arms. From the window he

Oswego, N. Y., where she died in August, 1857) in the cradle below. She was about to rush to the rescue of her child, when the general restrained her. Her life was of more value than that of the infant. Her little daughter Margaret (afterwards the wife of General Stephen Van Rensselaer, the "patroon") ran down the stairs, snatched the baby from the cradle, and bore it up in safety. As she was ascending an Indian threw his tomahawk at her.

It went near the baby's head, through her dress, and stuck in the stair-railing, the mark of which may yet be seen. At the same moment one of the miscreants, supposing her to be a servant, called out, "Wench! wench! where is your master?" With quick presence of mind, she replied, "Gone to alarm the town." The Tories were then in the dining-room, engaged in plunder. The general threw up his window and called out, loudly, as to a multitude, "Come on, my brave fellows; surround the house and secure the villains who are plundering." The marauders retreated in haste, carrying away with them a quantity of silver-plate. Three of the guards fought lustily, but were overpowered and carried away prisoners. When they were exchanged the generous and grateful Schuyler gave each of them a farm in Saratoga County.

Schuyler, COLONEL PETER, AND INDIANS IN ENGLAND. In 1710 the Legislature of New York sent a memorial to Queen Anne on the subject of French encroachments, by the hand of Colonel Peter Schuyler, of Albany. He took with him a sachem of each of the Five Nations. In London these dusky "kings," as they were called, attracted a great deal of attention. Multitudes followed them wherever they appeared, and the print-shops soon exhibited engravings of their portraits. They were entertained at sumptuous banquets by the principal nobility of the realm, and shown the glory of the kingdom, to impress them with the power of the English nation. They saw reviews of troops, and visited royal ships-of-the-line. They were conveyed to court in state carriages, drawn by six horses each, and held an audience with the queen. These barbarian monarchs returned to America with Schuyler in the ship *Dragon*, arriving at Boston early in the summer of 1711. They then expressed their readiness to aid the English in the conquest of Canada.

Schuyler, GENERAL PHILIP, SENDS TROOPS TO WASHINGTON. Always on the alert to send help where it was most needed, General Schuyler ordered (November, 1776) from the Northern Army seven Continental regiments of New England, whose term of service would expire on the 1st of January, to march to the Delaware to rein-



CATHARINE V. R. COCHRANE.

perceived that the house was surrounded by armed men. They were Meyer and his gang. To arouse his guard (three of whom were asleep on the grass), and, perchance, to alarm the town, he fired a pistol from his window. At the same moment Indians burst open the doors below. All these movements occurred in the space of a few minutes. Mrs. Schuyler perceived that in the confusion in going up-stairs she had left her infant (afterwards Mrs. C. V. R. Cochrane, of

force Washington. With these Generals Gates and Sullivan arrived at Washington's headquarters at Newtown, near the Delaware, in Pennsylvania, and proved to be a timely reinforcement for his army, for at that moment he was preparing to strike the Hessians at Trenton. (See *Trenton, Battle at.*)

Schuyler, GENERAL PHILIP, TRIAL OF. The enemies of General Schuyler held him responsible for the loss of Ticonderoga (July, 1777), and these clamors and the influence of a faction in Congress caused him to be superseded in the command of the Northern Department, in August following, by Gates. He demanded a court of inquiry, but it was delayed until October, 1778, when he was tried by a court-martial, at the house of Reed Ferris, at Pawling, Dutchess Co., N. Y., of which General Lincoln was president and John Laurens was Judge Advocate. The charge was neglect of duty. The trial lasted thirty-five days, and he was acquitted, as the court said, "with the highest honor." The verdict was confirmed by Congress (Dec. 3, 1778), and Schuyler soon afterwards took his seat in that body, to which he had been elected before the verdict was known.

Schuyler on the Oswego River. Colonel John Bradstreet was sent by Shirley, in 1756, to provision the garrison at Oswego. With 200 provincial troops and forty companies of boatmen, he crossed the country from Albany, by way of the Mohawk River, Wood Creek, Oneida Lake, and the Oswego River, and placed in the fort provision for 5000 troops for six months. He was accompanied by Captain (afterwards General) Philip Schuyler, as chief commissary. His descent of the Oswego River had been observed by the French scouts, and when he had ascended that stream about nine miles he was attacked by a strong party of French, Canadians, and Indians. These were driven from an island in the river, and there Bradstreet made a defensive stand. One of the Canadians, too severely wounded to fly with his companions, remained, and a boatman was about to despatch him, when young Commissary Schuyler saved his life. When, soon afterwards, Bradstreet abandoned the island, only one bateau was left. It was scarcely large enough to carry the colonel and his little band of followers. The wounded Canadian begged to be taken in, but was refused. "Then throw me into the river," he cried, "and not leave me here to perish with hunger and thirst." The heart of Captain Schuyler was touched by the poor fellow's appeals, and, handing his weapons and coat to a companion-in-arms, he bore the wounded man to the water, swam with him across the deep channel, and placed him in the hands of a surgeon. The soldier survived; and nineteen years afterwards, when Schuyler, at the head of the Northern Army of the Revolution, sent a proclamation in the French language into Canada, that soldier, living near Chambly, enlisted under the banner of Ethan Allen (see *Allen, Ethan, Capture of*), that he might see and thank the preserver of his life. He went to Schuyler's tent, on the

Isle aux Noix, and kissed the general's hand in token of his gratitude.

Schuyler, PETER, second son of Philip Pietersen van Schuyler, the first of the name in this country, was born at Albany, N. Y., about 1654. Able and active, he entered public life when quite young, and enjoyed the confidence of his fellow-citizens. When, in 1686, Albany was incorporated a city, young Schuyler and Robert Livingston went to New York for the charter, and Schuyler was appointed the first mayor under it, which office he held eight years. In 1688 he was appointed major of the militia, and towards the close of the following year he was put in command of the fort at Albany. It was at about that time that Milborne attempted to take possession of the fort. (See *Leisler, Jacob.*) He was successfully resisted by Schuyler and some Mohawk Indians. In 1691 Schuyler led an expedition that penetrated to Laprairie, near Montreal. After several skirmishes, in which he lost nineteen white men and Indians, and killed about two hundred Frenchmen and Indians, he returned to Albany. He was a member of the New York Assembly from 1701 until 1713. In 1710 he went to England with five chiefs of the Five Nations, at his own expense, for the purpose of—1. Impressing them with the greatness of the English nation, and so detaching them from the French; and, 2. To arouse the government to the necessity of assisting the Americans in expelling the French from Canada, then becoming more hostile and powerful every day. After the accession of George I. (1714) he became a member of the King's Council in New York. At one time he was its president, and in 1719 was acting governor. From 1701 to 1730 he was Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and acquired almost unbounded influence over the Five Nations.

Schuyler, PETER, Mayor of Albany, acquired a great and salutary influence over the Indians, especially the Five Nations (which see). In 1710 he took five chiefs of that confederacy (see *Iroquois Confederacy, The*) to England, at his own expense, in order to stimulate the government to vigorous measures against the French in Canada. As the oldest member of the Council in New York, in 1719, the chief command devolved upon him. He was very watchful, and often gave the other colonies timely warning of French and Indian incursions.

Schuyler, PHILIP, was born at Albany, Nov. 22, 1733; died there, Nov. 18, 1804. By the laws of primogeniture, he inherited the whole of his father's estate, but he generously divided it equally with his brothers and sisters. He inherited from Colonel Philip Schuyler the Saratoga estate, which he afterwards occupied. Schuyler was a captain of provincial troops at Fort Edward and Lake George in 1755, became a commissary in the army the same year, and held the position until 1763. An influential member of the New York Assembly, he was chiefly instrumental in stimulating early resistance to British encroachments on the rights of the colonists. In the Continental Congress, in 1775, he, with

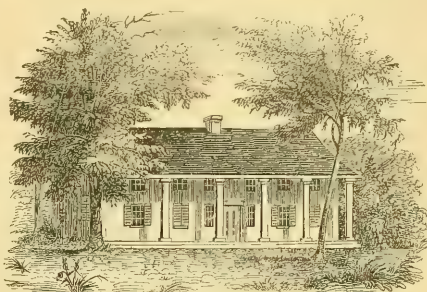
Washington, drew up the regulations for the army, and he was appointed one of the first major-generals. Assigned to the command of the Northern Army, he was charged with planning and executing an invasion of Canada. An attack of his inherited disease (the gout) prevented his conducting the campaign in person in the field, and after going with the army to the foot of Lake Champlain, he relinquished the command to General Richard Montgomery, his lieutenant, and returned to Albany. On his recovery, he entered with zeal upon his various duties as commander-in-chief of his department



PHILIP SCHUYLER.

and principal Indian commissioner. Annoyed by the insubordination and loose discipline of some of his troops—with interference with his authority and wicked slanders of men intriguing to put General Gates in his place—he offered his resignation; but the Congress, knowing his great worth, begged him to remain. He conducted the campaign against Burgoyne with great skill until intriguers procured his place for Gates, and he was superseded by that officer; but he patriotically used his most earnest efforts to enable Gates to capture the British army. Without command, his vigilance was of the utmost importance to the cause, and he was called “the eye of the Northern Department.” His influence in keeping the Indians neutral was of incalculable importance to the American cause at that time. Schuyler resigned his commission in April, 1779. As a member of Congress (1778–81), he was very efficient in military affairs, and was appointed to confer with Washington concerning the campaign of 1780, especially in the Southern Department. He was one of the New York State Senators, and one of the principal contributors to the code of laws adopted by that state. He was United States Senator from 1789 to 1791, and again in 1797. General Schuyler was an earnest advocate of internal improvements for the development of the resources of the country, and he is justly called the “father of the canal system of the United States.” He was a man of large wealth. He owned a fine mansion in the then southern suburbs of Albany (yet standing, but now within the city), and a plain one on his large estate at Saratoga. The

latter, with his mills and other property, valued at \$50,000, was destroyed by the British at the time of Burgoyne's invasion.



SCHUYLER'S MANSION AT SARATOGA.

Schuyler's Address to the Canadians. The command of the Northern Department was given to General Philip Schuyler, assisted by General Richard Montgomery. It was believed that a formidable invasion of New York from Canada was in preparation, and an expedition into that province was planned and put into operation. Schuyler addressed the inhabitants in a circular letter, written in French, informing them that “the only views of Congress were to restore to them their rights, which every subject of the British empire, of whatever religious sentiments he may be, is entitled to; and that, in the execution of these trusts, he had received the most positive orders to cherish every Canadian and every friend to the cause of liberty, and sacredly to guard their property.” The wise purposes of this circular were frustrated by the bigotry of General Wooster, who saw no good in Roman Catholics, and the dishonesty of Colonel Arnold, who cheated them.

Science in America and Asia. It is, at least, a curious coincidence, that among the Algonquin tribes of the Atlantic and of the Mississippi valley the Polar Constellation was called the *Bear*, as it was called by the astronomers of Asia. Another curious fact, which has led to speculation, is, that the seemingly indigenous inhabitants of Mexico had a nearly exact knowledge of the length of the year, and, at the end of one hundred and four years, made their intercalation more accurately than the Greeks, Romans, or Egyptians.

Scioto Company. Soon after the settlement of Marietta was commenced (see *Ohio Company*), an association was formed called “The Scioto Land Company.” The history of that company is involved in some obscurity. Colonel William Duer, of New York, was an active member. It was founded in the East. They, at first, purchased lands of the Ohio Company, and made Joel Barlow their agent in Europe to make sales of them. Barlow had been sent to England by the Ohio Company for the same purpose. He distributed proposals in Paris in 1789, and sales were effected to companies and individuals in France. On Feb. 19, 1790, two hundred and eighteen emigrants sailed from

Hayre to settle on these lands. They arrived at Alexandria, Va., on the 3d of May, crossed over to the Ohio River, and went down to Marietta, where about fifty of them settled, and the remainder went to another point below, opposite the mouth of the Great Kanawha, where they formed a settlement called Gallipolis (town of the French). These emigrants were to be furnished with supplies for a specified time, but the company failed to keep their promises. They suffered much. They failed, also, in getting clear titles to their lands, and the company has been charged with swindling operations. The settlers, through the good offices of Peter S. Duponceau, of Philadelphia, obtained a grant from Congress of twenty-five thousand acres opposite the Little Sandy. It was ever afterwards known as "The French Grant." Each inhabitant had two hundred and seventeen acres. The aims of the Scioto Company seem to have been simply land speculation, not founding actual settlements. "It comprised," Dr. Cutter says, "some of the first characters in America." They undoubtedly expected to purchase public securities at their then greatly depreciated values, and with them pay for the lands bought of the government; but the adoption of the national Constitution caused a sudden rise in the value of these securities, and blasted the hopes of the company. Colonel Duer, who seems to have been the originator of the scheme, suffered the unjust imputation of being a swindler, because the company did not (for it could not) meet its obligations.

Sclopis, PAUL FREDERICK DE SALERNO, an Italian count, was born in Turin, in 1798, and died March 8, 1878. He studied law at the University of Turin, took his legal degrees in 1818, and soon rose to eminence as a lawyer and jurist. He was also distinguished as an historian, and gave his first historical lecture before the Turin Academy of Science, in 1827. This was followed, in 1833, by a *History of Ancient Legislation in Piedmont* and the *History of Italian Legislation*. His fame as a jurist was enhanced by his drawing up with great ability the civil code of Sardinia, in 1837. In 1845 Count Sclopis became a corresponding member of the Institute of France, and a foreign member in 1869. He was created Minister of Justice and Ecclesiastical Affairs in Piedmont in March, 1848, after having held the office of President of the Superior Commune of Censorship. At the close of 1849 Count Sclopis entered the Piedmontese Senate, of which he was president until that principality was merged into the kingdom of Italy, in 1861, when he held the same office in the Italian Senate. At about that time he became President of the Turin Academy of Sciences; and in 1868 his king, Victor Emanuel, bestowed upon him the order of Annunziata, the highest of the kingdom. When, in 1871, Victor Emanuel was asked to appoint an arbitrator for the tribunal, at Geneva, to decide upon the claims growing out of the devastations committed by the cruiser *Alabama* (see *Tribunal of Arbitration*), he selected Count Sclopis, and he was chosen by his colleagues president of the tribunal. For his ser-

vices on that occasion, the United States government presented to him a service of silver plate.

Scotch Emigration to East Jersey. In 1685 the persecution of Scotch Presbyterians caused many of them to look towards East Jersey, where the kind Quaker Barclay ruled, as the only asylum in his majesty's dominions where, by law, toleration was allowed. Terrible was the persecution inflicted in Scotland—allowed, if not ordered, by James II. Every day fugitives, seeking safety, were caught by soldiers and executed in clusters on the highways. Women were fastened to stakes at low-water mark, and left to be drowned by the rising tide. Foul dungeons were crowded, and among large numbers transported to America by order of government women were often burned in the cheek and men marked by lopping off their ears. Scotch Presbyterians of education, and full of the love of liberty, at the same time flocked to East Jersey in such numbers that this rising community was quite suddenly well populated by a virtuous and thriving people. They found there a country much like their own in many respects. In a few years they adopted the New England system of free schools. "In all its borders," wrote a Scotch Quaker merchant, "there is not a poor body, or one that wants." Covenanters, Quakers, and Puritans gave a mixed population to New Jersey, which formed admirable materials for a state.

Scotch-Irish. Many persons distinguished in the annals of the United States were and are of Scotch-Irish descent—a hardy people, formed by an intermixture of Scotch, English, and Irish families, more than two hundred and fifty years ago. Queen Elizabeth found her subjects in Ireland so uncontrollable that she determined to try the experiment of transplanting to that island the reformed religion, with some of her English and Scotch subjects. It was a difficult and dangerous experiment, for the Irish regarded it simply in the light (and really the true one) of a measure for their complete subjugation. Elizabeth did not meet with much success, but her successor, James I., did. He determined to introduce whole English and Scotch colonies into Ireland, that by so disseminating the reformed faith he might promote the loyalty of the people. These were sent chiefly to the northerly portions of Ireland; first, to six counties in Ulster, which were divided into unequal proportions—some of two thousand acres, some of fifteen hundred, and some of one thousand. These were allotted to different kinds of persons—first, British undertakers, who voluntarily engaged in the enterprise; second, servants of the crown, consisting of civil and military officers; and, third, natives, whom the king hoped to render loyal subjects. The occupants of the largest portion of lands were bound, within four years, to build a castle and bawn (a walled enclosure for cattle), and to settle on their estates forty-eight able-bodied men, eighteen years old or upwards, of English or Scotch descent. The second class were also required to put up suitable buildings, and to plant English

or Scotch families on their possessions within two years. These colonists from Scotland and England intermarried with the natives, and from this union sprang the race of law-loving, law-abiding, loyal, enterprising freemen from whom came many of the best settlers in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina.

Scotch Settlers in Georgia. An additional grant of \$130,000 having been made to the trustees of Georgia, they took steps for occupying the frontiers towards Florida. A party of Scotch Highlanders from the Glen of Strathdean, with Rev. John McLeod, of the Isle of Skye, for their minister, came over in 1736, and founded New Inverness (now Darien), on the Alatomaha River, in McIntosh County.

Scotch Spy, A. Early in April, 1782, Marion was watching the movements of the British between the Cooper and Ashley rivers. A Scotchman, pretending to be a deserter, came out from Charleston, visited the camp of Marion, and passed on unsuspected to the Scotch settlements on the Pedee. He was a spy, and by false representations of the power of the British and the weakness of the Americans soon stirred up an insurrection there, led by Major Gainey, for the third time. Marion fell upon them, when more than five hundred loyalists laid down their arms, and Gainey joined the ranks of the conqueror. Among these insurgents was a notorious and bloodthirsty Tory named David Fanning, of North Carolina. He was in command of about one thousand desperate marauders like himself, and became a terror to the inhabitants of central North Carolina. He and some of his associates suddenly entered Hillsborough, and carried off to the British fort at Wilmington Governor Thomas Burke. He escaped capture at the time of the insurrection on the Pedee above recorded, fled to Charleston, and went to Nova Scotia with the refugee Tories, where he died in 1825. (See *Model North Carolina Tory, A.*)

Scott, CHARLES, was born in Cumberland County, Va., in 1733; died Oct. 22, 1820. He was corporal of a Virginia company in the battle of the Monongahela (which see), where Braddock was defeated in 1755. When the old war for independence first broke out, he raised and commanded the first company organized south of the James River for the Continental service. On Aug. 12, 1776, he was appointed colonel, and was distinguished at Trenton and in the battle of Princeton; and just a year later he was promoted to brigadier-general. He was the last officer to leave the field at Monmouth in 1778. He was conspicuous in the storming of Stony Point, under Wayne, in 1779, and the next year was with Lincoln, at Charleston, where he was made prisoner. He was closely confined for a while, to the injury of his health. He was released on his parole near the close of the war, when he was exchanged. In 1785 General Scott settled in Woodford, Ky., and in 1791, as brigadier-general of the Kentucky levies, he led an expedition into the Ohio country, and participated in the events of St. Clair's defeat. He was afterwards successful in an expedition

against the Indians on the Wabash, and commanded a portion of Wayne's troops in the battle of Fallen Timbers (which see) in 1794. Scott was elected Governor of Kentucky in 1808, and in 1812 he retired from that office into private life. General Scott was possessed of great moral force. His education was limited, he was blunt in manners, and was decidedly eccentric. Many amusing stories are related of him.

Scott, JOHN MORIN, an active Son of Liberty, was born in New York in 1730; died Sept. 14, 1784. He graduated at Yale College in 1746, became a lawyer, and was one of the early opponents of the obnoxious laws of Parliament in New York. He and William Livingston, and one or two others, boldly advised in their writings extreme measures. Scott was one of the most active members of the General Committee (see *Committee of One Hundred*) in 1775, and was also a member of the Provincial Congress that year. In June, 1776, he was appointed a brigadier, and commanded a brigade in the battle of Long Island (which see). After the organization of the State of New York, he was appointed its secretary, and was a member of Congress from 1780 to 1783. (See *Sons of Liberty.*)

Scott, WINFIELD, was born in Petersburg, Va., June 13, 1786; died at West Point, N. Y., May 29, 1866. He graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1804. He had been left an orphan while yet a boy. In 1806 he was ad-



GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT IN 1860.

mitted to the bar, but entered the army as captain of artillery in 1808. He became lieutenant-colonel of artillery in 1812, and adjutant-general, with the rank of colonel, in March, 1813. At the battle of Queenstown (which see), he was made prisoner, but was soon afterwards exchanged, and, under General Dearborn, commanded the advance in the attack on Fort George (which see), May 27, 1813, where he was badly burned by the explosion of the magazine.

In the fall he commanded the advance of Wilkinson's army in its descent of the St. Lawrence to attack Montreal. In the spring of 1814 he was made a brigadier-general, established a camp of instruction at Buffalo, and early in July gained a victory over the British at Chippewa. (See *Chippewa, Battle of*.) Later in the month he fought successfully in the battle of Lundy's Lane (which see), where he was seriously wounded in the shoulder, which left one of his arms partially disabled. For his services in that battle he received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. At the close of the war he was promoted to major-general, with the thanks of Congress and a gold medal for his services,

taking the chief command, and he retired from the service (Nov. 1, 1861), retaining his rank, pay, and allowances. In 1864 he made a brief visit to Europe. He published a *Life of General Scott*, prepared by himself.

Scott's Boldness and Humanity. Lieutenant-colonel (afterwards lieutenant-general) Winfield Scott was among the prisoners captured at Queestown Heights, and sent to Quebec, with other prisoners of the regular army. There the captives were all paroled excepting twenty-three, who were claimed as British subjects. All the prisoners had been placed on a cartel-ship to be sent to Boston. A party of British officers came on board, mustered the



GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO GENERAL SCOTT.

and was sent to Europe in a military and diplomatic capacity. He remained in the army, devoting a part of his time to the elaboration of military manuals. In 1832 he was in command of the United States forces at Charleston harbor, during the nullification (which see) troubles, and his discretion did much to avert civil war. He was afterwards engaged in the war with the Seminoles and the Creeks, and in 1838 he was efficient in accomplishing the peaceful removal of the Cherokees from Georgia (which see). His discreet conduct on the northern and eastern frontiers of the United States in 1839 did much to allay public irritation on both sides. (See *Canadian Rebellion and Northeastern Boundary*.) On the death of General Macomb in 1841, Scott became general-in-chief of the armies of the United States, and in 1847 he went to Mexico as chief commander of the American armies there. In a campaign of about six months he became the conqueror of that country, and in the Mexican capital he proclaimed the fact in September, 1847. (See *Mexico, War with*.) In 1852 Scott was candidate of the Whig party for President of the United States, and in 1859 he, as United States commissioner, successfully settled a dispute arising about the boundary line between the United States and British America through the Strait of Fuca, on the Pacific coast. When the Civil War broke out, his age and infirmities incapacitated him for

captives, and began separating from the rest those who, by their accent, were found to be Irishmen. These they intended to send to England to be tried for treason. Scott, who was below, hearing a commotion on deck, and informed of the cause, coming up, entered a vehement protest against the proceedings. He ordered his soldiers to be absolutely silent, that their voices might not betray them. He was frequently ordered to go below. He refused, and his soldiers obeyed him. The twenty-three already detected were taken away. Scott assured the officers that if the British government dared to touch a hair of their heads his own government would retaliate in kind and avenge the outrage. He defied the menacing officers. When he was exchanged in January, 1813, he laid the matter before the Secretary of War. He pressed the subject upon the attention of Congress. The President was already vested with power to retaliate, but he never had occasion to do so.

Scott's Plan for Peace. There were many eminent men anxious for peace, and who preferred a dissolution of the Union (which they hoped would be temporary) to war. Lieutenant-general Winfield Scott, the commander-in-chief of the Army of the United States, who knew from experience what were the horrors of war, seems to have contemplated this alternative with dread. In a letter addressed to Governor

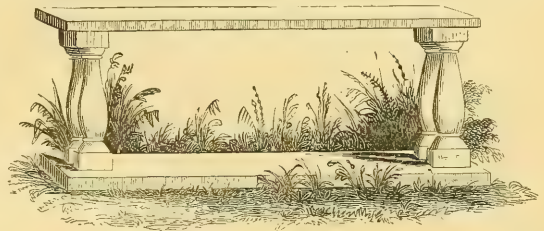
Seward on the day preceding Lincoln's inauguration (March 3, 1861), he suggested the limitation of the President's field of action in the premises to four measures—namely, 1. To adopt the Crittenden Compromise (which see); 2. To collect duties outside the ports of seceding states or blockade them; 3. To conquer those states at the end of a long, expensive, and desolating war, and to no good purpose; and, 4. To say to the seceded states, "Wayward sisters, depart in peace!"

Screw-making. The earliest machine used for making screws of which we have any record was invented by David Wilkinson, of Rhode Island, for which he obtained a patent in 1794. Abel Stowell, of Worcester, Mass., obtained a patent for making screws in 1809, and since then patents for various machines have been issued. The most important invention in screw-making is the gimlet-point for wood-screws. The American Screw Company, of Providence, R. I., has the monopoly of screw-making in this country, having purchased about fifty patents. There were in 1870 in the United States eighteen establishments engaged in manufacturing screws.

Sea Adventurer, WRECK OF THE. Under the new charter of the London Company given in 1609 (see *London Company, Second Charter of the*), Sir Thomas Gates, Lieutenant-governor of Virginia, Sir George Somers, Admiral, and Captain Newport, Vice-admiral, sailed in the *Sea Adventurer* with eight other vessels, bearing about five hundred emigrants to Virginia. The fleet was dispersed in a storm, and the *Sea Adventurer* was wrecked on one of the Bermuda islands—the "still vexed Bermoothes" of Shakespeare. William Strachy was with them, who wrote a vivid account of the wreck. "Such was the tumult of the elements," wrote Strachy, "that the sea swelled above the clouds, and gave battle unto heaven. It could not be said to rain; the waters like whole rivers did flood in the air." For three days and four nights they were beaten by this storm, while the ship was leaking fearfully. The *Sea Adventurer* outlived the storm, and when it ceased she lay fairly fixed between two rocks on the Bermuda shore. It is believed that Strachy's account of this storm and shipwreck inspired Shakespeare to write his *Tempest*.

Seabury, SAMUEL, first Protestant bishop in the United States, was born at Groton, Conn., Nov. 30, 1729; died Feb. 25, 1796. He graduated at Yale College in 1748. Going to Scotland to study medicine, his attention was turned to theology. Although the son of a Congregational minister, he received ordination as a minister of the Church of England in London in 1743. On his return to America he first settled as a minister in New Brunswick, N. J., then at Jamaica, L. I. (1756–66), and finally in Westchester County, N. Y., where he remained until the beginning of the war for independence. He was a loyalist, and at one time was chaplain of the King's American Regiment. Becoming obnoxious to the pa-

triot as the suspected author of some Tory pamphlets, the Connecticut Light-horsemen, under Sears, seized him and took him to Connecticut, where he was imprisoned for a time. (See *Rivington's Printing-office, Destruction of*.) The authorship was not proven, and he was released, and spent most of the time in New York while the British held possession of that city. Going to England after the Revolution, he obtained consecration as bishop by the Scotch prelates at Aberdeen, Nov. 14, 1784, and afterwards fulfilled the episcopal office at New London until his death. Bishop Seabury assisted Bishop White in the revision of the Book of Common Prayer, and in framing the constitution of the Church which was adopted in 1789. Bishop Seabury was buried in a church-yard at New London, and over his grave was placed a plain monument



BISHOP SEABURY'S MONUMENT.

of marble, upon the recumbent slab of which, after the usual obituary record, are the following laudatory words: "Ingenuous without pride, learned without pedantry, good without severity, he was duly qualified to discharge the duties of the Christian and the bishop. In the pulpit he enforced religion; in his conduct he exemplified it. The poor he assisted with his charity; the ignorant he blessed with his instruction. The friend of men, he ever designed their good; the enemy of vice, he ever opposed it. Christian! dost thou aspire to happiness? Seabury has shown the way that leads to it."

Sea-guard, A BRITISH. The British navy was employed to enforce the Navigation Act in the American colonies in 1763. Admiral Colville, commanding the naval forces on the American coast from the St. Lawrence to the capes of Florida, became the head of a new corps of revenue officers. Each captain of his squadron was furnished with a Custom-house commission and instructions from the Lords of the Admiralty, and was empowered to enter harbors, after taking the usual oaths to do the office of Custom-house officers, and to seize persons suspected of being engaged in illicit trade. This measure aroused the most violent opposition in the colonies. (See *Writs of Assistance*.)

Seal of Massachusetts Bay Colony, THE, was elliptical in form, having as a device an almost nude Indian holding a bow in one hand and an arrow in the other, and a small shrub on each side of him. Around the border were the words, "SIGILLVM : GVB : ET : SOCIET : DE : MATACHVSETS : BAY : IN : NOVA : ANGLIA."

Seal of the President of the ContinentalSEAL OF THE PRESIDENT
OF CONGRESS.

Congress. At about the time of the adoption of the great seal of the United States, the Continental Congress ordered a small one for the official use of their president for the time being. It was elliptical in shape. Within a raised border was a circle of clouds with a clear space within, in which were seen thirteen stars. At a point in the clouds was the national motto—"E PLURIBUS UNUM"—"Many in one."

Seal of Virginia. On the 20th of October, 1619, the London Company appointed a committee to devise a coat-of-arms and a seal for Virginia. They met at the house of Sir Edwin Sandys, agreed upon a device, and on the 16th of November submitted it for inspection. It was presented to the king, when his majesty, perceiving on the reverse the figure of St. George slaying the dragon, with the motto, "FAS ALIUM SUPERARE DRACONEM," referring to the heathenism of the Indians, he ordered that the motto should not be used. The face of the seal was

free and independent states, they appointed a committee to report a device for a seal—the emblem of sovereignty. That committee and others, from time to time, presented unsatisfactory devices. Finally, in the spring of 1782, Charles Thomson, the secretary of Congress, gave to that body a device largely suggested to John Adams, then United States minister to the court of Great Britain, by Sir John Prestwich, an eminent English antiquary. This suggestion was made the basis of a design adopted by Congress June 20, 1782, and which is still the device of the great seal of our Republic. It is composed of a spread-eagle, the emblem of strength, bearing on its breast an escutcheon with thirteen stripes, alternate red and white, like the national flag. (See *Flag, National*.) In its right talon the eagle holds an olive-branch, the emblem of peace, and in its left thirteen arrows, emblems of the thirteen states ready for war should it be necessary. In its beak is a ribbon bearing the legend "E PLURIBUS UNUM"—"Many in one"—many states making one nation, a motto doubtless suggested by its appearance on the title-page of the London *Gentleman's Magazine*. Over the head of the eagle is a golden light breaking through a cloud surrounding thirteen stars,



FIRST GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES.*

an escutcheon quartered with the arms of England, France, Scotland, and Ireland. The crest was a maiden queen (Elizabeth) with flowing hair and an Oriental crown upon her head. The supporters were two armed men with halberds, and the motto, "EN DAT VIRGINIA QUINTAM." When Virginia became a state (1776), a new seal was adopted. The device on the face was a figure of Liberty with a Phrygian cap treading upon a prostrate monarch, whose crown has fallen from his head, and broken manacles lie across one arm. Liberty holds a halberd or spear in one hand, and a short sword in the other. Over her head is the word "VIRGINIA," and beneath, the motto "SIC SEMPER TYRANNIS."

Seal, THE GREAT, OF THE UNITED STATES.

When, on July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress declared the English-American colonies to be

forming a constellation on a blue field. On the reverse is an unfinished pyramid, emblematic of the unfinished republic, the building of which—the increase of states and territories—is still going on. In the zenith is an all-seeing eye surrounded by light, and over this eye the words "ANNUIT CŒPTIS"—"God favors the undertaking." On the base of the pyramid, in Roman numerals, is the date 1776, and below, the words "NOVUS ORDO SECLORUM"—"A new order of ages." This was for a pendant seal, now not used; the recumbent seal, the obverse above described, being always used.

* This is the size of the recumbent seal of the United States, which has been in use ever since the date of its adoption in 1782. Only the side containing the national arms is used. For a more minute history of the seal, with numerous illustrations, see a paper in *Harper's Magazine*, vol. xiii., p. 178, written by the author of this work.

Sears, ISAAC, was born at Norwalk, Conn., in 1729; died in Canton, China, Oct. 28, 1786. His ancestors were from Colchester, England, and were among the earlier emigrants to Massachusetts, landing at Plymouth in 1630. Isaac Sears was one of the most earnest, active, and pugnacious of the "Sons of Liberty" in New York. He was a successful merchant there, engaged in the European and West India trade, when political matters arrested his attention. He had commanded a privateer (1758-61), and was commonly known as Captain Sears. He lost his vessel in 1761, and then became a merchant. After the passage of the Stamp Act he became a prominent leader of the opposition to that measure. He was thoroughly hated by the government and the Tory party, and was in custody on a charge of treason when the news of the affair at Lexington reached New York. Because of his leadership, his enemies called him "King Sears." He was maligned, caricatured, satirized, and made the object of Tory squibs and epigrams like the following, which was published when the Committee of Fifty-one (which see) refused to recommend a revival of the Non-importation League:

"And so, my good masters, I find it no joke.
For York has stepped forward and thrown off the yoke
Of Congress, Committees, and even King Sears,
Who shows you good-nature by showing his ears."

Rivington abused him in his newspaper without stint. Sears retaliated by entering the city one day (Nov. 23, 1775) at the head of some Connecticut horsemen and destroying that publisher's printing establishment. In the spring of 1776 he was General Charles Lee's adjutant. When the war ended his business and fortune were gone. In 1785 we find him on the ocean as supercargo bound for Canton, China. He was very ill on his arrival there, and died soon afterwards. He was buried on French Island, and his companions placed a slab at his grave with a suitable inscription.

Seat of the National Government. From time to time there have been movements in favor of removing the seat of government from Washington city. The first movement of this kind was in 1808. The really miserable situation and condition of the city of Washington at that time rendered a removal desirable to most of the members of Congress, and the city of Philadelphia, anxious to win it back to the banks of the Delaware, offered to furnish every accommodation to Congress and the public offices at its own expense. The new Hall of Representatives, by its ill adaptation, whether for speakers or hearers, occasioned great dissatisfaction. A motion for removal occasioned much discussion in Congress and great excitement in the District of Columbia, especially among landowners. The Southern members objected to Philadelphia because they would there be continually pestered by anti-slavery politicians and other annoyances connected with the subject. A resolution for removal came within a very few votes of passing. It is believed that it would have been carried but for the opposition of the Southern men to Philadelphia.

Seceders' Convention at Baltimore. The old and new seceders of the Democratic Convention at Charleston (April, 1860) and Baltimore (June, 1860) assembled on Saturday, June 23, in the Maryland Institute Hall, a room (with a gallery) capable of seating 5000 people. It was almost full when the convention was permanently organized by the appointment of Mr. Cushing as chairman. On taking the chair he declared that the body there assembled formed the true National Democratic Convention, composed of representatives of more than twenty states. They resolved that the delegates from the convention at Richmond should be invited to unite with them, and they took seats accordingly. The majority report offered at the convention at Charleston (see *Democratic Convention at Charleston*) was adopted without dissent as the principles of the party—principles which declared that there was no legislative power, state or national, that could interfere with slavery, and that it was, virtually, a national institution. George B. Loring, of Massachusetts, nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for President, and he was chosen by a vote of eighty-one against twenty-four. Joseph Laue, of Oregon, was nominated for the Vice-Presidency. After a session of a few hours the business of the convention was ended and it adjourned. The South Carolina delegates left at Richmond formally assembled at Metropolitan Hall on June 21, and adopted the platform and candidates of the Seceders' Convention at Baltimore.

Seceders' Convention at Richmond. The seceders from the Democratic Convention at Charleston (which see), held in April, 1860, re-assembled at Richmond, June 11, 1860. Robert Toombs and other Southern Congressmen had issued an address from Washington, urging the Richmond Convention to refrain from all important action there, but to adjourn to Baltimore and there re-enter the convention from which they had seceded, and, if possible, defeat the nomination of Mr. Douglas. This extraordinary measure was resorted to; and when the Richmond Convention adjourned, most of the delegates hastened to Baltimore and claimed the right to re-enter the regular convention. The South Carolina delegates remained in Richmond to watch the course of events and manage the scheme. (See *Baltimore Convention*.)

Secession in New England. In 1747 the towns of Suffield, Somers, Enfield, and Woodstock, originally settled under Massachusetts grants, and assigned to that province in 1713, finding taxation there enhanced by its military operations, applied for annexation to Connecticut. They seemed to be clearly within the Connecticut charter. They asked permission of Massachusetts to withdraw. The request was refused. They then withdrew without the consent of Massachusetts, were annexed to Connecticut, and still remain part of that state. Massachusetts threatened an appeal to the king and council, but fearing she might, as in her controversy with New Hampshire, not only lose these towns, but other territory, nothing further was done.

Secession of States, RIGHT OF, ASSERTED. In 1810 a proposition was made to erect the Orleans Territory into a state. It was warmly opposed, especially by the Federalists of New England. Early in 1811 a bill for that purpose was introduced into Congress, when Josiah Quincy, of Massachusetts, in a speech of much power, expressed his deliberate opinion that such a measure would be a flagrant disregard of the Constitution, and would be a virtual dissolution of the bonds of the Union, freeing the states composing it from their moral obligation of adhesion to each other, and making it the right of all, as it would become the duty of some, to prepare definitely for separation—"amicably if they might, forcibly if they must!" This declaration—the first announcement on the floor of Congress of the doctrine of secession—produced a call to order from a delegate from Mississippi (Poindexter), who said no member of the House ought to be allowed to stimulate any portion of the people to insurrection and a dissolution of the Union. The Speaker (Varnum) decided that the suggestion of the right to dissolve the Union was out of order. The decision was reversed. Jealousy of the new states to be formed in the West, and the results of the census for 1810, which threatened the curtailment of the political weight of New England, was a powerful stimulant to the opposition to the erection of a new state on the Mississippi.

Secession of the City of New York Proposed. Fernando Wood was mayor of the city of New York at the beginning of 1861, and sympathized with the Southern Secessionists in their war upon the Union. On Jan. 7, 1861, Wood sent a message to the Common Council of New York city in which he proposed the secession of that city, and the establishment of a free and independent government of its own. This proposition was in the form of suggestive questions. "Why should not New York city," he asked, "instead of supporting by her contributions in revenues two thirds of the expenses of the United States, become, also, equally independent? As a free city, with but a nominal duty on imports, her local government could be supported without taxation upon her people. Thus we could live free from taxes, and have cheap goods nearly duty free. In this we should have the whole and united support of the Southern States, as well as of all other states, to whose interests and rights under the Constitution she has always been true. . . . New York, as a free city, may shed the only light and hope for a future reconstruction of our beloved Confederacy." A favorite writer for *De Bow's Review*, the most stately and pretentious organ of the slaveholders, pronounced this proposition of Mayor Wood "the most brilliant that these times have given birth to." Wood seems to have been startled by his own proposition, for he immediately added, "Yet I am not prepared to recommend the violence implied in these views." The Board of Aldermen, a majority of whom were Wood's political friends, ordered the printing of 3000 copies of this message in document form.

Second War for Independence, THE. This is an appropriate title for the conflict commonly known as "The War of 1812." Blessed with prosperity and dreading war, the people of the United States submitted to many acts of tyranny and insult from Great Britain and France, rather than become involved in armed conflicts with them. Consequently, the government of the United States was only nominally independent. Socially and commercially, the United States tacitly acknowledged their dependence on Europe, and especially upon England; and the latter was rapidly acquiring a dangerous political interest and influence in American affairs when the war broke out. The war begun in 1775 was really only the first great step towards independence; the war begun in 1812 first thoroughly accomplished the independence of the United States. Franklin once heard a person speaking of the Revolution as the war of independence, and reproved him, saying, "Sir, you mean the *Revolution*; the war of *independence* is yet to come. It was a war *for* independence, but not of independence."

Secret Committee of Correspondence. On Nov. 29, 1775, the Congress resolved, "That a committee of five be appointed for the sole purpose of corresponding with our friends in Great Britain, Ireland, and other parts of the world, and that they lay their correspondence before Congress when directed, and that all expenses that might arise by carrying on such correspondence, and for the payment of such agents as the committee might send on this service, should be defrayed by the Congress." This was the germ of our State Department, and the initial step in our foreign diplomacy. The members chosen were Benjamin Harrison, Dr. Franklin, Thomas Johnson, John Dickinson and John Jay. A correspondence was immediately opened with Arthur Lee, in London, and C. W. Dumas (a Swiss gentleman), residing in Holland.

Secret History of the First Continental Congress. In that first general Congress, which was only a large committee of conference, there was much diversity of opinion, which led to many debates and sometimes considerable feeling. John Adams wrote to his wife: "Every man in this assembly is a great man, an orator, a critic, a statesman, and, therefore, every man, upon every question, must show his oratory, his criticism, and his political abilities. The consequence is, that business is spun out to an immeasurable length." Suspicious and jealousies, owing to varied sectional interests, soon appeared. There was a similar state of feeling among the people. Many intelligent men, who had joined in protesting against the usurpation of power by the British Parliament, were not inclined to hasten a rupture with Great Britain. Joseph Galloway, who afterwards openly espoused the cause of the crown, anxious for reconciliation, proposed a union of the colonies, with a grand council authorized to regulate colonial affairs jointly with the British Parliament, each to have a negative on the other.

At first the plan was favorably considered, and, after a long debate, was rejected by only a majority of one of the colonies. The general feeling of the Congress was that matters might be and ought to be accommodated without an open rupture. The New England delegation were generally in favor of bold and decisive measures, and the Adamses, John and Samuel, were looked upon as desperate men having nothing to lose, and as having been too long engaged in a warm political struggle in Massachusetts with the officers of the crown to be safe guides to follow. But their zeal was overmatched by the impetuous and outspoken southern patriot Christopher Gadsden, who proposed to attack Governor Gage at Boston, and expel him from the town before he could be reinforced. But the Congress did not venture to assume any direct political authority. Even the "American Association" (which see), the nearest approach to it, was warmly opposed by Galloway of Pennsylvania and Duane of New York. All of the South Carolina delegation, excepting Gadsden, opposed it, chiefly because it would interfere with a portion of their planting interest. At the last moment that association was agreed to by Gadsden's colleagues when a concession had been made to their interests. As the sessions of Congress were held in secret, their proceedings went out to the world with the weight of apparent unanimity. The signing of the *Association* was the real beginning of the American Union.

Sectarian Influence (1775). The Episcopalian members of the Church of England had, through natural affection for the mother Church, an aversion to a severance, in any particular, from Great Britain; and a large number of these, especially of the clergy, took sides with the crown in the conflict that ensued. The other denominations, excepting the Friends, or Quakers, were generally among the friends of the colonists. The Congregational ministers of New England and their flocks were almost without exception Whigs, and the larger part of the Presbyterians, who derived their origin from the dissenting section of the Scotch Church, were in political sympathy with the Congregationalists. Both had opposed the scheme of the Anglican Church, through the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, to establish an Episcopacy in the colonies. These two branches of the English dissenting body cherished a traditionary opposition to British control, political or ecclesiastical, and the Congregationalists had just passed through a bitter controversy on the subject of the introduction of bishops into America. (See *Episcopacy in America*.) Witherspoon, who was at the head of the Presbyterian College of New Jersey, was sent as a delegate to the Continental Congress, and was very active in that body. The native-born Presbyterians were nearly all Whigs, while the Scotch Presbyterian emigrants, who were mostly in the Southern colonies, adhered to the crown. Such was the case of that class in the interior of New York, under the influence of the Johnson family in the Mohawk region. In Vir-

ginia, where Episcopacy was the established and prevailing form of religious organization and mode of worship, sectarian zeal had not been excited, and sectarianism had very little influence on political questions. Even the scheme for an American bishop was denounced by the Virginia Assembly as "the pernicious project of a few mistaken clergymen." The Friends, who, governed by their "peace principles," had, while having control of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, opposed all measures for the public defence of the province that seemed to involve the necessity for the use of weapons of war, now deprecated the action of the Whigs for the same reason, and they were almost universally Tories, though generally of the passive kind; yet there were many noble exceptions among them, who did what they could to promote the independence of the colonies. While the Provincial Convention of Pennsylvania was in session early in 1775, and after it had passed a resolution that, "if the British administration should determine to effect by force a submission to the late acts of Parliament, in such a situation we hold it an indispensable duty to resist, by force, and at every hazard to defend the rights and liberties of America"—a position strongly sustained by Thomas Mifflin, a Quaker member of the Convention—the Friends, in a yearly meeting assembled, put forth a testimony, in which the members of the society were called upon "to unite in abhorrence of every measure and writing tending to break off the happy connection of the colonies with the mother country, or to interrupt their just subordination to the king." They were not always passive Tories. This "testimony," which gave great offence to many Friends who were patriots, led to the arrest of several leaders and their banishment from the province, and the execution of two of them for active participation with the British. (See *Execution of Quakers in Philadelphia*.)

Sedgwick, JOHN, was born at Cornwall, Conn., Sept. 13, 1813; killed in battle near Spottsylvania Court-house, May 9, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1837; served in the Seminole War and the war against Mexico, where he became highly distinguished. He had also served in war with the Indians. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861. In May, 1862, he was promoted to major-general, and led a division in Sumner's corps in the Peninsula campaign immediately afterwards. At the battle of Antietam he was seriously wounded, and in December he was put in command of the Ninth Army Corps. In February, 1863, he took command of the Sixth Corps, and in the Chancellorsville campaign, in May, he made a brave attack upon the Heights of Fredericksburg, and carried them, but was compelled to retire. During the Gettysburg campaign he commanded the left wing of the army; and in November following, near the Rapid Anna in Virginia, he captured a whole Confederate division. He entered earnestly upon the Richmond campaign in the spring of 1864, and performed signal service in the battle of the Wilderness (which see). Afterwards, while super-

intending the planting of a battery, he was shot by a sharpshooter and instantly killed.

Sedgwick, ROBERT, was born in England; died in Jamaica, May 24, 1656. He was one of the first settlers of Charlestown, Mass. (1635); an enterprising merchant, and for many years a deputy in the General Assembly. Having been a member of an artillery company in London, he was one of the founders of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery (which see) in 1638, and was its captain in 1640. In 1652 he was promoted to the highest military rank in the colony. In 1643 he was associated with John Winthrop, Jr., in the establishment of the first furnace and iron-works in America. In 1654, being in England, he was employed by Cromwell to expel the French from the Penobscot; and was engaged in the expedition of the English which took Jamaica from the Spaniards. He was soon afterwards promoted to major-general.

Sedgwick, THEODORE, LL.D., was born at Hartford, Conn., in May, 1746; died in Boston, Jan. 24, 1813. He entered Yale College, and left it without graduating in 1765. Abandoning the study of divinity for law, he was admitted to the bar in 1766. An earnest patriot, he entered the military service and served as aid to General Thomas in the expedition to Canada in 1776, and was afterwards active in procuring supplies for the army. Before and after the Revolution he was a representative in the Massachusetts Legislature, and in 1785-86 he was a delegate in the Continental Congress, also of the national Congress from 1789 to 1797. Mr. Sedgwick performed efficient service in putting down Shays's insurrection; and he was one of the most influential advocates of the national Constitution, in the convention in Massachusetts, in 1788. He was United States Senator from 1796 to 1799, and from 1802 until his death was a judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

Seminole War, THE FIRST. Towards the close of 1817 a motley host, composed chiefly of Seminole Indians, Creeks dissatisfied with the treaty of 1814 (see *Creek Confederacy*), and runaway negroes, began murderous depredations upon the frontier settlements of Georgia and the Alabama Territory. These Indians resided chiefly south of the Flint River and within the Spanish territory of Florida. General E. P. Gaines, then in command of the garrison at Fort Scott, on the north bank of the Flint, was ordered to suppress these outrages. He demanded of the Indians on the opposite bank the surrender of certain alleged murderers; but they refused to give them up, on the ground that the Georgians had been the first aggressors. Under authority from the War Department to expel these Indians from the lately ceded Creek lands north of the Florida line, Gaines attacked an Indian village, a few miles below Fort Scott, in the night. Three or four of the inhabitants were killed or captured, the rest escaping into the woods. In another skirmish soon afterwards two or three were killed on both sides. This movement of Gaines aroused the fiercest anger of the Indians, who, it was ascertained, were

incited by British subjects protected by the Spanish authorities in Florida. The Indians revenged the attacks of Gaines by waylaying a boat ascending the Appalachicola with supplies for Fort Scott. Of forty men and a number of women and children on board, all were killed except six men and one woman. Gaines was in a perilous position. He received orders to carry the war into Florida if necessary, with directions, however, that if the Indians took refuge under any Spanish fort, not to attack it, but report to the War Department. For his own protection he called out a body of Georgia militia; and when news of the disaster on the Appalachicola reached the government, General Jackson, who commanded in the Southern Department, was ordered (January, 1818) to take the field in person. With one thousand Tennessee mounted volunteers, Jackson hastened to the aid of Gaines, and reached Fort Scott March 9, after a march of four hundred miles. These, with a body of Georgia militia and one thousand regulars at Fort Scott, made a force sufficient to invade Florida if necessary. The Secretary of War (Mr. Calhoun) had directed him to conduct the campaign according to his best judgment. He was joined by friendly Creeks, under their chief—McIntosh—who held the commission of a brigadier-general in the United States Army. So short were supplies in that region that Jackson had to depend upon provision-boats ascending the Appalachicola from New Orleans, and, as a depot for these supplies, he built a new fort on the site of the late Negro Fort (which see), and called it Fort Gadsden. On March 26 he marched eastward against the Seminole villages in the vicinity of the (present) town of Tallahassee, being joined on the way by a fresh body of friendly Creeks (April 1) and a few more Tennessee volunteers. The Seminoles made but slight resistance. Their villages were burned, and a considerable spoil in corn and cattle was obtained. Unrestrained by such orders as Gaines had received, and satisfied that the Seminoles were continually encouraged to make war by the British and Spaniards, he proceeded to the Spanish post of St. Mark's, the only one in that region, and its surrender being refused on his demand, he took it by force, though without bloodshed. There he found Alexander Arbuthnot, a Scotch trader with the Seminoles, whom he suspected of mischief, and held him a prisoner. An American armed vessel on the coast having hoisted the British flag, two refugee Creek chiefs were enticed on board, one of whom, the Prophet Francis, had lately visited England and excited some sympathy there. These chiefs Jackson hanged. From St. Mark's Jackson marched against an Indian town on the Suwannee River and burned it. The Indians and negroes there were led in its defence by Robert Ambrister, connected with Arbuthnot in trading enterprises, and he, too, was made prisoner. Returning to St. Mark's, Arbuthnot and Ambrister were tried (April 26) by a court-martial. Both were found guilty of stirring up the Indians to war, and executed. Meanwhile one or two other Indian towns were de-

stroyed by Georgians; and a rumor reaching Jackson of encouragement being given by the Spanish governor at Pensacola to Indian raids into Alabama, the general marched for that place. He was met on the way by a protest from the governor against the invasion of Florida, and his determination to resist it by force. But Jackson pressed on, and entered Pensacola the next day (May 24), with only a show of resistance. The governor fled to the fort at the Barrancas, which Jackson assailed with cannons, when the alarmed magistrate thought it prudent to surrender (May 27). The Spanish authorities and troops were sent to Havana. When Jackson's proceedings in Florida were made known in Washington the Spanish minister (Don Onís) protested against this invasion of Spanish territory. Jackson had ended the Seminole War, and the object of the government being accomplished, the President offered to restore Pensacola at once, and St. Mark's whenever Spain should have a force there competent to control the neighboring Indians. The Secretary of State (J. Q. Adams) justified Jackson's conduct, holding that the war with the Seminoles had originated entirely in the instigations of Arbuthnot and Ambrister, with the encouragement of the Spanish authorities.

Seminole War, THE SECOND. Towards the close of 1835 the Seminole Indians in Florida, guided by their head sachem, Micanopy, and led by their most active chief, Osceola, began a distressing warfare upon the frontier settlements of Florida. The cause of the outbreak was an attempt to remove them to the wilderness beyond the Mississippi. In his annual message in December, 1830, President Jackson recommended the devotion of a large tract of land west of that river to the use of the Indian tribes yet remaining east of it. Congress passed laws in accordance with this recommendation, and in May, 1832, some of the chiefs of the Creeks and Seminoles, in council, agreed to remove. Other chiefs and the great body of the nation refused to comply with the terms of the treaty, and trouble ensued. (See *Seminole War, the First*.) In 1834 the President sent General Wiley Thomson to Florida to make a forcible removal of the Seminoles if necessary. Osceola stirred up the nation to resistance. One day his insolent bearing and offensive words in Thomson's presence caused that general to put the chief in irons, and in a prison, for a day. Osceola's wounded pride called for vengeance, and it was fearfully wrought during a war that lasted about seven years. By bravery, skill, strategy, and treachery, he overmatched United States troops sent against him and commanded by some of the best officers in the service; but he was secured and subdued finally by an act of seemingly necessary perfidy on the part of a United States officer. The first blow was struck in December, 1835. Osceola, with all the cunning of a Tecumtha and the heroism of a Philip, began the war by an act of perfidy. He had agreed to fulfil treaty stipulations, and to send some horses and cattle to General Thomson; but at the very time he was to do so the barbarian was, with a

small war-party, murdering the unsuspecting white inhabitants on the borders of the everglades, which was a region mostly covered with water and grass, and affording a secure hiding-place for the Indians. At that time General Clinch was occupying Fort Drane with a small body of troops. That post was in the interior of Florida, forty miles eastward of the mouth of the Withlacoochee River, and the garrison was now exposed to much danger from the hostilities of the Indians. Major Dade, with more than one hundred soldiers, was sent from Fort Brooke, at the head of Tampa Bay, to the relief of Clinch, and, falling into an ambuscade (Dec. 28, 1835), he and his followers were all massacred excepting four men, who afterwards died from the effects of the encounter. That event occurred near Wahoo Swamp, on the upper waters of the Withlacoochee. On the same day Osceola and a small war-party, unobserved, stole up to a store a few yards from Fort King (about sixty miles southwest of St. Augustine), where General Thomson and five of his friends were dining, and murdered them. Osceola killed and scalped the general with his own hands, and so he enjoyed the revenge he had sought. Three days afterwards General Clinch had a sharp fight with the Seminoles on the Withlacoochee, and on the last day of February, 1836, General Gaines was assailed at the same place. The Creeks helped their Florida brethren by attacking white settlers within their domain in the spring of 1836. Being successful, they extended their forays into Georgia and parts of Alabama, attacking mail-carriers on horseback, stage-coaches on the land, and steamboats on the rivers; and finally they assailed villages, and thousands of men, women, and children were compelled to fly from their homes and seek places of safety from the tomahawk, the bullet, and the scalping-knife. General Winfield Scott, in chief command in the South, now prosecuted the war against the barbarians with so much vigor that the Creeks were speedily subdued, and during the summer of 1836 thousands of them were removed to lands west of the Mississippi. At about the middle of October Governor Call, of Florida, led about two thousand militia and volunteers from that state against the Seminoles. Near the place of the massacre of Dade and his command a detachment of them, about five hundred in number, had a severe battle with the savages on Nov. 25, but, like all other encounters with these Indians in their swamp fastnesses, it was not decisive. In that region the United States troops suffered dreadfully from miasmatic fevers, the bites of venomous serpents, and the stings of insects, and the year 1836 closed with no prospect of peace. The war continued all winter in that mild region. Finally, in March, 1837, several chiefs appeared before General Jesup (then in chief command in Florida), at his quarters at Fort Dade, and signed a treaty which was intended to secure an immediate peace and the instant departure of the Seminoles to the new home prepared for them beyond the great river. The wily Osceola caused this treaty to

be violated, and the war was renewed; and it continued all the summer of 1837, during which many troops perished in the swamps while pursuing the savages. At length Osceola, several chiefs, and seventy warriors appeared in Jesup's camp (Oct. 21), under the protection of a flag, with friendly pretensions. Jesup determined not to trust the treacherous Osceola any more. The conference was held in a grove of magnolias in a dark swamp. As the chief arose to speak Jesup gave a signal, when two or three of his soldiers rushed forward and seized and bound Osceola with strong cords. He made no resistance, but several of his excited followers drew their gleaming hatchets from their belts. They were restrained by the arms of Jesup's troops, and were dismissed without their leader. Osceola was sent to Charleston and confined in Fort Moultrie, where he died of fever Jan. 31, 1839. A small monument marks the place of his grave, near the main entrance to the fort. Jesup was severely censured for this violation of the sanctity of a flag of truce; but his plea in justification was that it was the only way to stop the distressing war, for Osceola could not be held by the most solemn obligations of a treaty. The "distressing war" had been created by the avarice and greed of the white people, who were seeking, by legal pretences or the unjust violence of the military arm, to drive an ancient nation from their rightful soil. Although the capture of Osceola was a severe blow to the Seminoles, they continued to fight for their country under other leaders, notwithstanding almost nine thousand United States troops were in their territory at the close of 1837. Their fastnesses in the everglades could not be penetrated by the troops, and they defied them, even after they had received severe chastisement from six hundred national troops under Colonel (afterwards President) Zachary Taylor, who had succeeded General Jesup in command. This chastisement was given them in a battle fought on Christmas-day (1837) on the northern border of Lake Macaco. After that, for more than two years, Taylor and his men endured great hardships in Florida in attempts to bring the war to a close. A treaty for the purpose was concluded in May, 1839; but so lightly did its obligations bind the Indians that they carried on their depredations whenever opportunity offered. It was not until 1842 that peace was permanently secured. This war, carried on almost seven years, cost the United States scores of valuable lives and millions of treasure.

Seminoles. A tribe of Florida Indians, made up of two bands of the Creeks (see *Creek Confederacy*) who withdrew from the main body in 1750 and remnants of tribes who had come in contact with the Spaniards. The Seminoles were hostile to the Americans during the Revolution and afterwards. The Creeks claimed them as a part of their nation, and included them in a treaty with the United States in 1790; but the Seminoles repudiated it and made war upon the Americans, and affiliated with the Spaniards in 1793. They were also enemies of the

United States in the War of 1812, when they were under Spanish rule. At that time they were divided into seven clans, and were rich in live-stock and negro slaves. The Creek war led to trouble between the Seminoles and the Georgians, and in 1817 they began hostilities. Thoroughly scourged by United States troops, they became subject and obedient to the laws of the United States after the purchase of Florida in 1819, when they numbered nearly 4000, with 800 negro slaves. By a treaty made in 1823, the Seminoles gave up nearly all their territory for a consideration; but some refused to accede, and were allowed to remain on small reserves, with the understanding that they were to hunt and deliver fugitive slaves. Dissatisfaction followed, and the Georgians clamored for their removal. An attempt to remove them by force caused the kindling of a fierce war in 1835, which cost the United States 1466 lives and \$10,000,000. (See *Seminole War, The Second.*) Then the Seminoles were removed to the Indian Territory, and only about 300 were in Florida in 1842. The negroes were taken from the Seminoles in their new home in such numbers that a large body of them went to Mexico. About half of those in Florida emigrated to the Indian Territory in 1858, and when joined by those in Mexico they numbered 2256. The tribe was divided on the breaking-out of the Civil War, and a large portion of them were seduced, by great promises, to become allies of the Confederates. The movement was disastrous to them. Finally, in 1866, they went upon a new reservation purchased by the United States of the Creeks, where, steady, sober, and industrious, they rank next to the Cherokees in their progress in civilization. There are yet some Seminoles and negroes in Mexico, and about 150 in the everglades of Florida.

Semmes, RAPHAEL, was born in Maryland in 1810. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman in 1826; commanded the Coast Survey steamer *Poinsett* in 1843, and the brig



RAPHAEL SEMMES.

Porpoise in 1846. In the war against Mexico, he was volunteer aid to General Worth, and was Secretary to the Light-house Board from 1859 to 1861. He accepted the command in the Con-

federate navy of the steamer *Sumter*, with which he depredated upon American commerce. In England the fast-sailing vessel *Alabama* (which see) was built, furnished, and chiefly manned for him, in which he put to sea in August, 1863, and made a destructive cruise against American vessels and American commerce. She was sunk by the *Kearsarge* off Cherbourg, June 19, 1864. Afterwards Semmes was appointed Professor of Moral Philosophy in the State Seminary of Louisiana, at Alexandria. He wrote a history of *The Cruise of the Alabama*. He died in 1877.

Senate, OPEN SESSIONS OF THE. The proceedings of the Senate of the United States had been held in secret until the session of 1793, when discussions as to Albert Gallatin's right to a seat therein were had with open doors. The opposition had urged this publicity from the beginning. The argument in favor of the custom was the due enforcement of the responsibility of the Senate and its individual members to the people, which secret debates tended to diminish; the prevention of those jealousies naturally aroused by secret legislation; and the greater confidence which publicity would inspire. A resolution was also passed that, after the termination of the present session, and so soon as suitable galleries should be provided, these galleries, except on special occasions requiring secrecy, should remain open while the Senate was engaged in legislative business.

Senecas. These formed the fifth nation of the Iroquois Confederacy (which see), and inhabited the country in New York west of Sodus Bay and Seneca Lake to the Niagara River. They called themselves Tsonnundawaono, or "dwellers in the open country." Tradition says that at the formation of the great confederacy Hiawatha said to them, "You, Senecas, a people who live in the 'open country,' and possess much wisdom, shall be the fifth nation, because you understand better the art of raising corn and beans and making cabins." (See *Hiawatha*.) The Dutch called them Sinnekaas, which the English spelled Senecas, and they were denominated the Western Door of the Long House—the confederacy. They were divided into five clans—viz., the Turtle, Snipe, Hawk, Bear, and Wolf, and were represented in the great council or congress by seven sachems. There was a small family on the borders of the Niagara River, called Neuters, whose domain formed the western boundary of the Seneca territory; also the Eriks, or Eries, south of Lake Erie. On the east they joined the Senecas. By the conquest of the Hurons, most of the Neuters, the Eries, and Andastes (or Susquehannas) were incorporated with the Senecas. The French Jesuits began a mission among them in 1657; and afterwards the Senecas permitted La Salle to erect a block-house on the site of Fort Niagara. They also allowed the French to build a fort on the same spot in 1712. The Senecas alone of the Six Nations (which see) joined Pontiac in his conspiracy in 1763. They destroyed Venango, attacked Fort Niagara, and cut off an army train on that frontier.

In the old war for independence they sided with the British, and their country was devastated by General Sullivan in 1779. After the war they made peace, by treaty, at Fort Stanwix (Fort Schuyler), on the site of Rome; and their land passed, by sale and cession, into the possession of the white people, excepting the reservations of Alleghany, Cattaraugus, and Tonawanda—sixty-six thousand acres—which the remnant of the nation still holds. They were the friends of the Americans in the War of 1812, and furnished men for the armies. A part of them, settled on Stony Creek, in Canada, and at Sandusky, O., joined the hostile tribes in the West, but made peace in 1815. These removed to the Indian Territory (which see), on the Neosho, in 1831. In 1870 the Senecas in New York numbered about three thousand, and those in the Indian Territory two hundred. Protestant missions have been in operation among them since the beginning of this century, and the Society of Friends has done much to aid and protect them. (See *Friendly Association*.)

Separation of Delaware and Pennsylvania. Under the clause of the Charter of Privileges given by William Penn, the separation of Delaware and Pennsylvania was made complete in 1702. (See *Delaware, The Colony and State of*.) An attempt was made for a reunion, but failed. Delaware even sent an agent to England to represent that Penn had no rights of jurisdiction over its territory, and to ask for a royal governor.

Servile Insurrection in South Carolina. In 1738, in consequence of liberty and protection being offered to the slaves of South Carolina by the Spaniards of St. Augustine, and the influence of Spanish emissaries among them, who persuaded them to take measures for securing their freedom, and to fly from slavery to Florida, an insurrection broke out in the heart of the province. A number of the negroes assembled at Stono, killed two men at a warehouse, and seized guns and ammunition. They chose a captain, and, with flag and drum, began a march towards the southwest, burning every house and killing every white person on their way. They compelled the negroes to join them. Governor Bull, returned to Charleston from the southward, hastened out of their way and spread the alarm. It reached a large congregation of Presbyterians at Walton, engaged in divine worship. They were all armed, as usual then. Leaving the women in the meeting-house, the men started in quest of the armed negroes, who had already spread desolation over a space of twelve miles in length. They attacked the negroes in an open field, killed some, and dispersed the rest. Most of the fugitives were captured. Those who had been compelled to join the insurgents were pardoned; the leaders and original insurgents were hanged. There were at that time about forty thousand negro slaves in South Carolina. The object of the Spanish interference was not to give the slaves freedom, but to destroy the English colony there.

Servile Insurrection Threatened. When

Admiral Cockburn began his marauding expedition on the American coast in the spring of 1813, he held out a promise of freedom to all slaves who should join his standard. Many were seduced on board his vessels, but found themselves wretchedly deceived. Intelligence of these movements reached the plantations farther south, and, in the summer of 1813, secret organizations were formed among the slaves to receive and co-operate with Cockburn's army of liberation, as they supposed it to be. One of these secret organizations met regularly on St. John's Island, near Charleston. Their leader was a man of great sagacity and influence, and their meetings were opened and closed by singing a hymn composed by that leader—a sort of parody of "Hail Columbia" (which see). They held meetings every night, and had arranged a plan for the rising of all the slaves in Charleston when the British should appear. At one of the meetings the question, "What shall be done with the white people?" was warmly discussed. Some advocated their indiscriminate slaughter as the only security for liberty, and this seemed to be the prevailing opinion, when the leader and the author of the hymn came in and said: "Brethren, you know me. You know that I am ready to gain your liberty and mine. But not one needless drop of blood must be shed. I have a master whom I love, and the man who takes his life must pass over my dead body." Had Cockburn been faithful to his promises to the negroes, and landed and declared freedom to the slaves of South Carolina, no doubt many thousand colored people would have flocked to his standard. But he was content to fill his pockets by plundering and carrying on a petty slave-trade for his private gain. The following is the last of the three stanzas of the hymn above alluded to:

Repeat. { "Arise! arise! shake off your chains!
Your cause is just, so Heaven ordains;
To you shall freedom be proclaimed!
Raise your arms and bare your breasts,
Almighty God will do the rest.
Blow the clarion's warlike blast;
Call every negro from his task;
Wrest the scourge from Buckra's hand,
And drive each tyrant from the land!"

CHORUS—Firm, united let us be.
Resolved on death or liberty!
As a band of patriots joined,
Peace and plenty we shall find."

Seton, ELIZA ANN, founder of the Sisters of Charity in the United States, was born in New York, Aug. 28, 1774; died at Emmetsburg, Md., Jan. 4, 1821. She was the daughter of Dr. Richard Bayley, and, at the age of twenty, married William Seton, who died at Leghorn in 1803, when she returned to America. She was soon afterwards received into the Roman Catholic Church, and, removing to Baltimore with her three children, she opened a school. In 1809 a gentleman named Cooper made an ample endowment, which enabled her to open a semi-conventual establishment at Emmetsburg. The first charge of the sisters outside of their own convent was that of an orphan-asylum in Philadelphia, to which three members were sent in 1814. An act of incorporation of this sisterhood

was passed in 1817 by the Legislature of Maryland.

Settlement, FIRST, IN KENTUCKY. In 1767 John Finley, an Indian trader, explored the country beyond the mountains westward of North Carolina. In 1769 he returned to North Carolina and gave glowing accounts of the fertile country he had left. He persuaded Daniel Boone, a native of Pennsylvania, settled on the Yadkin, and four others, to go with him to explore it. Boone had become a great hunter and expert in woodcraft. They reached the headwaters of the Kentucky, and, from lofty hills, beheld a grand vision of a magnificent valley, covered with forests, stretching towards the Ohio, and abounding in game of the woods and waters of every kind. They fought Indians—some of the tribes who roamed over Kentucky as a common hunting-ground. Boone was made a prisoner, but escaped. He determined to settle in the beautiful country between the upper Kentucky and Tennessee rivers, and, after remaining for a while the sole white man in that region, he returned for his wife and children in 1771. Two years later he started with his own and five other families for the paradise in the wilderness. Driven back upon settlements on the Clinch, he was detained a year and a half longer. He penetrated to the Kentucky, and, on the 14th of June, 1775, completed a log fort on the site of the present Boonesborough. He soon brought his family there, and planted the first permanent settlement in Kentucky. Mrs. Boone and her daughters were the first white women who ever stood on the banks of the Kentucky River.

Settlement, FIRST, IN TENNESSEE. Immigrants from North Carolina, led by James Robinson, settled on the Watauga River, one of the head streams of the Tennessee, in 1768. It was on lands of the Cherokees, from whom the settlers obtained an eight-year lease in 1771. They there organized themselves into a body politic, and adopted a code of laws signed by each adult individual of the colony. Others soon joined them and extended settlements down the valley of the Holston, and over intervening ridges to the Clinch and one or two other streams, while others penetrated Powell valley and began a settlement in the southwest corner of Virginia.

Settlements within the borders of the original thirteen United States were made, as productive germs of colonies, in the following order of time: St. Augustine, Fla., was settled by Spaniards, under Menendez, in 1565, and is the oldest settlement by Europeans within the domain of the United States. It was permanently occupied by the Spaniards, excepting for a few years, until Florida passed from their control. (See *Florida* and *St. Augustine*.) Virginia was first settled by the English temporarily. (See *Raleigh, Sir Walter*.) The first permanent settlement was made by them in 1607, under the auspices of London merchants, who that year sent five ships, with a colony, to settle on Roanoke Island. Storms drove them into the entrance to Chesapeake Bay, when they ascended

the Powhatan River fifty miles, landed, and built a hamlet, which they called Jamestown. The stream they named James River—both in compliment to their king. After various vicissitudes, the settlement flourished, and, in 1619, the first representative Assembly in Virginia was held at Jamestown. Then were laid the foundations of the State of Virginia. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) Manhattan Island (now New York Island) was discovered by Henry Hudson in 1609, while employed by the Dutch East India Company. Dutch traders were soon afterwards seated there and on the site of Albany, one hundred and fifty miles up the Hudson River. The government of Holland granted exclusive privilege to Amsterdam merchants to traffic with the Indians on the Hudson, and the country was called New Netherland. The Dutch West India Company was formed in 1621, with unrestricted control over New Netherland. They bought Manhattan Island of the Indians for about \$24, paid chiefly in cheap trinkets, and in 1623 thirty families from Holland landed there and began a settlement. Then were laid the foundations of the State of New York, as New Netherland was called after it passed into the possession of the English. (See *New York, Colony of*.) Late in 1620 a company of English Puritans (see *Puritans*) who had fled from persecution to Holland, crossed the Atlantic and landed on the shores of Massachusetts, by permission of the Plymouth Company. (See *Plymouth Company*.) They built a town and called it New Plymouth; they organized a civil government and called themselves "Pilgrims." Others came to the shores of Massachusetts soon afterwards, and the present foundations of the State of Massachusetts were laid at Plymouth in 1620. (See *Pilgrims*.) In 1622 the Plymouth Company granted to Mason and Gorges a tract of land bounded by the rivers Merrimac and Kennebec, the ocean, and the St. Lawrence River, and fishermen settled there soon afterwards. Mason and Gorges dissolved their partnership in 1629, when the former obtained a grant for the whole tract, and laid the foundations for the commonwealth of New Hampshire. (See *New Hampshire, Colony of*.) King James of England persecuted the Roman Catholics in his dominions, and George Calvert, who was a zealous royalist, sought a refuge for his brethren in America. King James favored his project, but died before anything of much consequence was accomplished. His son Charles I. granted a domain between North and South Virginia to Calvert (then created Lord Baltimore). Before the charter was completed Lord Baltimore died, but his son Cecil received it in 1632. The domain was called Maryland, and Cecil sent his brother Leonard, with colonists, to settle it. (See *Calvert, George*.) They arrived in the spring of 1634, and, at a place called St. Mary, they laid the foundations of the commonwealth of Maryland. (See *Maryland, Colony of*.) The Dutch navigator Block (see *New York, Colony of*), sailing east from Manhattan, explored a river some distance inland, which the Indians called Quon-eh-ti-cut, and in the valley watered by that river a number of Puritans from Plymouth

began a settlement in 1633. The first permanent settlement made in the valley of the Connecticut was planted by Puritans from Massachusetts (near Boston), in 1636, on the site of Hartford. In 1638 another company from Massachusetts settled on the site of New Haven. The two settlements were afterwards politically united, and laid the foundations of the commonwealth of Connecticut in 1639. (See *Connecticut, Colony of*.) Meanwhile, elements were at work for the formation of a new settlement between Connecticut and Plymouth. Roger Williams, an eccentric minister, was banished from Massachusetts in 1636. He went into the Indian country at the head of Narraganset Bay, where he was joined by a few sympathizers, and they seated themselves at a place which they called Providence. Others (men and women) joined them, and they formed a purely democratic government. Others, persecuted at Boston, fled to the Island of Aquidag, or Aquitneck (now Rhode Island), in 1638, and formed a settlement there. The two settlements were consolidated under one government, called the Providence and Rhode Island Plantation, for which a charter was given in 1644. So the commonwealth of Rhode Island was founded. (See *Rhode Island, Colony of*.) A small colony from Sweden made a settlement on the site of New Castle, Del., and called the country New Sweden. The Dutch claimed the territory as a part of New Netherland, and the governor of the latter proceeded against the Swedes in the summer of 1655, and brought them under subjection. It is difficult to draw the line of demarcation between the first settlements in Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, owing to their early political situation. The (present) State of Delaware remained in possession of the Dutch, and afterwards of the English, until it was purchased by William Penn, in 1682, and annexed to Pennsylvania. So it remained until the Revolution as "the Territories," when it became the State of Delaware. (See *Delaware, The Colony and State of*.) The first permanent settlement in New Jersey was made at Elizabethtown in 1644. (See *New Jersey, Colony of*.) A province lying between New Jersey and Maryland was granted to William Penn, in 1681, for an asylum for his persecuted brethren, the Quakers, and settlements were immediately begun there, in addition to some already made by the Swedes within the domain. (See *Pennsylvania, Colony of*.) Unsuccessful attempts to settle in the region of the Carolinas had been made before the English landed on the shores of the James River. Some settlers went into North Carolina from Jamestown, between the years 1640 and 1650, and in 1663 a settlement in the northern part of North Carolina had an organized government, and the country was named Carolina, in honor of Charles II., of England. In 1668 the foundations of the commonwealth of North Carolina were laid at Edenton. (See *North Carolina, Colony of*.) In 1670 some people from Barbadoes sailed into the harbor of Charleston and settled on the Ashley and Cooper rivers. (See *South Carolina, Colony of*.) The benevolent general Oglethorpe, commiserating the condition of the

prisoners for debt, in England, conceived the idea of founding a colony in America with them. The government approved the project, and, in 1732, he landed, with emigrants, on the site of the city of Savannah, and there planted the germ of the commonwealth of Georgia. (See *Georgia, Colony of*.) The following table shows the date of settlement, where first settled, by whom, and the date of admission of each state into the Union to 1887:

STATES.	SETTLED.			ADMITTED.
	When.	Where.	By whom.	
Virginia.....	1607	Jamestown....	English....	1776
New York.....	1614	New York.....	Dutch.....	"
Massachusetts..	1620	Plymouth....	English....	"
New Hampshire..	1623	Little Harbor..	English....	"
Connecticut.....	1633	Windsor.....	English....	"
Maryland.....	1634	St. Mary.....	English....	"
Rhode Island....	1636	Providence....	English....	"
Delaware.....	1638	Wilmington...	Swedes....	"
North Carolina..	1650	Chowan River..	English....	"
New Jersey.....	1664	Elizabeth.....	English....	"
South Carolina..	1670	Ashley River..	English....	"
Pennsylvania....	1682	Philadelphia...	English....	"
Georgia.....	1733	Savannah....	English....	"
Vermont.....	1724	Fort Dummer..	English....	1791
Kentucky.....	1775	Boonesborough.	English....	1792
Tennessee.....	1757	Fort Loudon...	English....	1796
Ohio.....	1788	Marietta.....	English....	1802
Louisiana.....	1699	Iberville.....	French....	1812
Indiana.....	1730	Vincennes....	French....	1816
Mississippi.....	1716	Natchez.....	French....	1817
Illinois.....	1720	Kaskaskia....	French....	1818
Alabama.....	1711	Mobile.....	French....	1819
Maine.....	1625	Bristol.....	French....	1820
Missouri.....	1764	St. Louis.....	French....	1821
Arkansas.....	1685	Arkansas Post..	French....	1836
Michigan.....	1670	Detroit.....	French....	1837
Florida.....	1565	St. Augustine..	Spaniards..	1845
Texas.....	1692	S. A. De Bexar.	Spaniards..	"
Iowa.....	1833	Burlington....	English....	1846
Wisconsin.....	1669	Green Bay....	French....	1848
California.....	1769	San Diego.....	Spaniards..	1850
Minnesota.....	1846	St. Paul.....	Americans..	1858
Oregon.....	1811	Astoria.....	Americans..	1859
Kansas.....	Americans..	1861
West Virginia...	1863
Nevada.....	Carson City...	Americans..	1864
Nebraska.....	1867
Colorado.....	Americans..	1876

Settlements on Indian Lands Forbidden.

In 1783 the Continental Congress, in conformity to the ninth article of the Articles of Confederation (which see), vesting Congress with the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the trade and managing all affairs with the Indians not members of any of the states, issued a proclamation at Princeton in September prohibiting all persons from making settlements on lands inhabited or claimed by Indians, without the limits or jurisdiction of any particular state; and from purchasing or receiving any gift or cession of such lands or claims, without the express authority and directions of the representatives of the United States in Congress assembled.

Seven Pines, or Fair Oaks, BATTLE AT. General Fitz-John Porter was sent by General McClellan with a considerable force to keep the way open for McDowell's army to join him, which he persistently demanded, in order to venture on a battle for Richmond. Porter had some sharp skirmishes near Hanover Court-house, and cut all railway connections with Richmond, excepting that from Fredericksburg. Meanwhile General McClellan telegraphed to the Secretary of War that Washington was in no danger, and that it was the duty and policy of the

government to send him "all the well-drilled troops available." When these raids on the Confederate communications had been effected, Porter rejoined the main army on the Chickahominy, and McClellan telegraphed again to the Secretary, "I will do all that quick movements can accomplish, but you must send me all the troops you can, and leave me full latitude as to choice of commanders." Three days afterwards General Johnston, perceiving McClellan's apparent timidity and the real peril of the National army, then divided by the Chickahominy, marched boldly out of his intrenchments and fell with great vigor upon the National advance, under General Silas Casey, lying upon each side of the road to Williamsburg, half a mile beyond a point known as the Seven Pines, and six miles from Richmond. General Couch's division was at Seven Pines, his right resting at Fair Oaks Station. Kearny's division of Heintzelman's corps was near Savage's Station, and Hooker's division of the latter corps was guarding the approaches to the White Oak Swamp. General Longstreet led the Confederate advance, and fell suddenly upon Casey at a little past noon, when a most sanguinary battle ensued (May 31, 1862). Very soon the Confederates gained a position on Casey's flanks, when they were driven back to the woods by a spirited bayonet charge by Pennsylvania, New York, and Maine troops, led by General Naglee. Out of the woods immediately the Confederates swarmed in great numbers, and the battle raged more fiercely than ever. The Nationals fell back to the second line, with a loss of six guns and many men; yet, notwithstanding the overwhelming numbers of the Confederates, and exposed to sharp enfilading fires, Casey's men brought off full three fourths of their artillery. Keyes sent troops to aid Casey, but they could not withstand the pressure, and the whole body of Nationals were pushed back to Fair Oaks Station, on the Richmond and York railway. Reinforcements were sent by Heintzelman and Kearny, but these were met by fresh Confederates, and the victory seemed about to be given to the latter, when General Sumner appeared with the division of Sedgwick and Richardson. Sumner had seen the peril, and, without waiting for orders from McClellan, had moved rapidly to the scene of action in time to check the Confederate advance. The battle continued to rage fiercely. General Johnston was severely wounded, and borne from the field; and early in the evening a bayonet charge by the Nationals broke the Confederate line and it fell back in confusion. The fighting then ceased for the night, but was resumed in the morning (June 1), when General Hooker and his troops took a conspicuous part in the struggle, which lasted several hours. Finally the Confederates, foiled, withdrew to Richmond, and the Nationals remained masters of the field at Seven Pines, or Fair Oaks. The losses in this heavy battle were about the same on both sides—seven thousand men each. It was nearly one half of both combatants, for not more than fifteen thousand men on each side were engaged. In this battle General O. O. Howard

lost his right arm. Casey's division, that withstood the first shock of the battle, lost one third of its number.

Sevier, JOHN (Xavier), was born in the Shenandoah valley, Va., in 1745; died near Fort Decatur, Ga., Sept. 23, 1815. He went to the Holston River, East Tennessee, with an exploring party, in 1769, and built Fort Watauga. He was in the battle of Point Pleasant (which see); settled in North Carolina; was a member of its Legislature in 1777; fought the Indians on the frontiers, and was one of the leaders (as colonel) in the battle at King's Mountain (which see). For his services there he was rewarded by North Carolina with public thanks and a sword. He was afterwards attached to Marion's command, and was a brigadier-general at the close of the war. Sevier was active among the secessionists of western North Carolina, who formed the independent state of Franklin, or Frankland, over which he was elected governor in 1784. When Tennessee was organized, in 1788, he was made governor until 1801. He was again governor from 1803 to 1809, and in 1811 he was a member of Congress. In 1815 he accepted a mission to the Creek Indians, and died while in performance of it.

Sewall, Adams, and Ruggles. The American Association brought matters to a crisis in the colonies. Men were compelled to take sides. Jonathan Sewall, Attorney-general of Massachusetts and Judge of Admiralty, in a series of articles in a Boston paper, made a vigorous effort to convince his countrymen of the folly and danger of further resistance. To these articles John Adams promptly and effectually replied. Timothy Ruggles, who had presided at the Stamp Act Congress in New York (which see), got up a counter-association, and persuaded a few persons to sign it; but the act made them so obnoxious to the public that it became necessary for the military to protect them from personal violence.

Sewall, JONATHAN, LL.D. (loyalist), was born in Boston, Aug. 24, 1728; died at St. Johns, N. B., Sept. 26, 1796. He graduated at Harvard University in 1748, and in early life was the intimate associate and friend of John Adams. Like Adams, he was a school-teacher; became a lawyer in 1767; and was appointed Attorney-general of Massachusetts. In 1769 he began a suit for the freedom of a negro-slave, and was successful, two years before the settlement of the case of the negro Somerset, which Blackstone commended so highly, and Cowper commemorated in poetry. He and Adams finally differed in politics, Sewall taking sides with the crown. When the war broke out, in 1775, he was residing in the house, at Cambridge, which Washington afterwards occupied as his headquarters, for Sewall went to England, and was among the proscribed in Massachusetts in 1779. In 1788 Sewall went to New Brunswick, where he was Judge of the Admiralty Court until his death.

Sewall, SAMUEL, was born at Bishopstoke, Eng., March 28, 1652; died Jan. 1, 1730. He graduated at Harvard University in 1671. His

father (Henry) began the settlement at Newbury in 1634; returned to England, and finally settled permanently at Newbury in 1651. Samuel studied divinity, preached awhile, came into the possession of great wealth by marrying the daughter of a Boston goldsmith, became an Assistant (which see) in 1684, and was annually chosen a member of the Council from 1692 until 1725. He was a judge from 1712 until 1718, when he became Chief-justice of Massachusetts, resigning in 1728, in consequence of age and infirmities. Judge Sewall shared in the general belief in witches and witchcraft, and concurred in the condemnation of many of the accused persons (see *Witchcraft, Salem*), but afterwards publicly acknowledged his error. He seems to have been the first outspoken "Abolitionist" in our country, having written a tract against slavery, in which he gave it as his opinion that there would "be no progress in gospelling" until slavery should be abolished.

Seward, SECRETARY, ATTEMPTED MURDER OF. According to a proclamation (May 2, 1865) of Andrew Johnson, President Lincoln's official successor, there was "evidence in the Bureau of Military Justice that there had been a conspiracy formed by Jefferson Davis, Jacob Thompson, Clement C. Clay, Beverly Tucker, George N. Saunders, William C. Cleary, and other rebels and traitors, against the government of the United States, harbored in Canada," to assassinate the President and the Secretary of State. Circumstances seemed to warrant a suspicion that the same fate was intended for other officers of the government, also for General Grant and leading Republicans; hoping, in some way, that the Confederate leaders, in the confusion of the trying moment, might seize the reins of the national government. On the same evening when Mr. Lincoln was mortally hurt by a pistol-bullet (April 14, 1865), Lewis Payne Powell, a Confederate soldier of Florida, went to the house of Secretary Seward, who was then severely ill, with the pretence that he was a messenger from the minister's physician. Refused admission by the porter, he rushed in, and up two flights of stairs, to Mr. Seward's chamber, at the door of which he was met by his son, Frederick Seward, who resisted him. The assassin felled the younger Seward to the floor with the handle of a pistol, fracturing his skull and making him insensible. Miss Seward, the Secretary's daughter, was attracted to the room-door, when the ruffian rushed past her, sprang upon Mr. Seward's bed, and inflicted three severe wounds with a dagger upon the Secretary's neck and face. Mr. Robinson, an invalid soldier attending as nurse, seized the assassin, and while they were struggling Miss Seward shouted murder from the open window, and the porter cried for help from the street. Finding his position perilous, the miscreant escaped from Robinson, ran down-stairs, and sped away on a horse he had in readiness. Other persons were accused of complicity with Booth and Lewis Payne Powell in their murderous raid upon men high in office. The assassin was soon arrested; also suspected accomplices of Booth. Three of these (with Pow-

all) were found guilty and hanged. Their names were David E. Herrold, George A. Atzerott, and Mary E. Surratt. The house of the latter was proved to have been a place of resort for Booth and his accomplices. Three others were sentenced to imprisonment, at hard labor, for life, and one for six months. President Johnson offered \$100,000 reward for the arrest of Jefferson Davis; \$25,000 apiece for the arrest of Jacob Thompson, C. C. Clay, G. N. Saunders, and Beverly Tucker; and \$10,000 for the arrest of W. C. Cleary, late a clerk of C. C. Clay.

Seward, WILLIAM HENRY, LL.D., was born at Florida, Orange Co., N. Y., May 16, 1801; died at Auburn, N. Y., Oct. 10, 1872. He graduated at Union College in 1820; became a lawyer; began practice at Auburn in 1823, and soon ac-



WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD.

quired a high reputation, especially in the criminal practice. He first appeared conspicuously in politics as president of a state convention of young men who favored the re-election of John Quincy Adams as President of the United States. From 1830 to 1834 he was a member of the State Senate, and became a leader of the Whig party, opposed to the administration of Jackson. In 1838 Mr. Seward was elected Governor of New York, and again in 1840. In 1842 he resumed the practice of his profession, and gained an extensive business, chiefly in United States courts. In 1849 he was elected United States Senator, which position he held until 1861, when he was called to the cabinet of President Lincoln as Secretary of State. In that position he conducted, with great wisdom and sagacity, the foreign affairs of our government, through all the critical period of the Civil War, and continued in Johnson's cabinet, filling the same office, until 1869. He was a conspicuous opposer of slavery for many years, in and out of Congress. He opposed the Compromise Acts (see *Omnibus Bill, The*) of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska bill of 1854, and was one of the founders of the Republican party. The two most important subjects of his diplomacy during the Civil War were the liberation of Mason and Slidell and the French invasion of Mexico. Early in April, 1865, he was confined to his bed by an accident, when, an as-

sassin forced his way into his house and attacked him with murderous intent. (See *Seward, Secretary, Attempted Murder of*.) He was severely wounded, but as soon as he recovered sufficiently he resumed the duties of Secretary of State. He never recovered fully from the shock of the accident and the assassin's attack. Retiring from public life in March, 1869, he made an extended tour through California and Oregon to Alaska (which see); and in August, 1870, accompanied by some of his family, he set out upon a tour around the world, returning to Auburn in October, 1871. He had been everywhere received with marks of high consideration. His recorded observations were edited by his adopted daughter, and published. Mr. Seward's *Works*, in four volumes, contain his speeches in legislative debates, eulogies in the Senate of several of his colleagues, occasional addresses, orations, etc.

Seward's Circular Letter. Seward, believing, after the battle of Gettysburg (which see), that the war for the Union would soon cease and the republic be spared, sent (Aug. 12, 1863) a cheering circular letter to the United States diplomatic agents abroad, in which he recited the most important events of the war to that time. He declared that "the country showed no signs of exhaustion of money, material, or men;" that the national loan was "purchased at par by our citizens at the average of \$1,200,000 daily," and that gold was selling at twenty-three to twenty-eight per cent. premium, while in the insurrectionary region it commanded twelve hundred per cent.

Seward's (Secretary) Instructions. So early as March, 1861, when it was known that the head of the Southern League had sent emissaries abroad to seek recognition and aid for their cause, Mr. Seward, President Lincoln's Secretary of State, addressed the American ministers in Europe, conjuring them to use all diligence to "prevent the designs of those who would invoke foreign intervention to embarrass and overthrow the Republic." President Lincoln had appointed Charles Francis Adams minister to the British court, and on April 10, 1861, Secretary Seward instructed him concerning the manner in which he should oppose the agents of the Confederates. He directed him to stand up manfully as the representative of his *whole* country, and that as a powerful nation, asking no favors of others. "You will, in no case," said Mr. Seward, "listen to any suggestions of compromise by this government, under foreign auspices, with its discontented citizens. If—as the President does not at all apprehend—you shall unhappily find her majesty's government tolerating the application of the so-called Seceding States, or wavering about it, you will not leave them to suppose for a moment that they can grant that application and remain the friends of the United States. You may even assure them promptly, in that case, that if they determine to recognize they may at the same time prepare to enter into an alliance with the enemies of the Republic. You, alone, will represent your coun-

jor-general of a division of the National Guard of the State of New York.

Shawmut, a peninsula with three hills which caused it to be called "Tri-mountain," on which Boston was built, was discovered by the Pilgrims in 1621. A boat with ten men was sent to explore Massachusetts Bay. Towards the south they saw the blue hills from which the Indian name Massachusetts was derived. Two or three rivers entered the bay, and peninsulas jutted into it; and so attractive were its shores that the Pilgrims regretted they had not seated themselves there. When Winthrop and a large colony came (1630), they landed at Salem, and some of them settled at Charlestown. Sickness prevailed among them. Observing a fine spring of water on Shawmut, and believing its high ground to be more healthy than at Charlestown, Winthrop settled there and founded Boston. (See *Boston, First Settlement of*.)

Shawnoese, or Shawnees. This was a once powerful family of the Algonquin nation, supposed to have been originally of the Kickapoo tribe, a larger portion of whom moved eastward, and a part removed in 1648 to the Fox River country, in Wisconsin. The Iroquois drove them back from the point of emigration south of Lake Erie, when they took a stand in the basin of the Cumberland River, where they established their great council-house and held sway over a vast domain. Some of them went south to the region of the Carolinas and Florida, where those in the latter region held friendly relations with the Spaniards for a while, when they joined the English in the Carolinas, and were known as Yamasees and Savannahs. At about the time when the English settled at Jamestown (1607), some southern tribes drove the Shawnoese from the Cumberland region, when some of them crossed the Ohio and settled on the Scioto River, at and near the present Chillicothe. Others wandered into Pennsylvania, where, late in the seventeenth century, and also in 1701, they made treaties with William Penn. They also made treaties with the Iroquois after joining the Eries and Audastes in war against the Five Nations in 1672, when the Shawnoese were defeated and fled to the land of the Catawbias in South Carolina, but from which they were soon expelled, taking refuge with the Creeks. Finally, they joined their kindred in Ohio when those in Pennsylvania went thither. The Iroquois, who claimed sovereignty over them, drove them farther westward, where they joined the French and were active in the events of the French and Indian War. (See *French and Indian War*.) They continued hostile to the English after the conquest of Canada, and were of Pontiac's confederacy (see *Pontiac*). Afterwards they made war on the Virginia frontier in connection with other western tribes. In 1774 they had a severe battle with the Virginia militia at Point Pleasant. Under English influences they took part with the Miamis in the war from 1790 until 1795, and participated in the treaty at Greenville in 1795. (See *Greenville, Treaty at*.) At that time the main body of the Shawnoese were on the

Scioto River, but some passed into Missouri and received land from the Spaniards. Tecumtha and his brother, the Prophet, were Shawnoese, and attempted to confederate western tribes against the white people in 1811, but most of his people in Ohio remained loyal to the United States then and in the War of 1812. Those in Missouri ceded their lands to the United States in 1825, and those in Ohio did the same in 1831. The Shawnoese proper now number less than one thousand, on a large reservation in the Indian Territory.

Shawomet (R. I.), WAR AT. Gorton, the restless disturber of the peace in New England, had been whipped from colony to colony, and was settled at Shawomet (Warwick), R. I., on land ceded to him and a few followers by Miantonomoh. The settlement consisted of twelve men and their wives and children. Two Indian chiefs, claiming to be independent, protested against the cession, and appealed to the authorities at Boston. These were seconded by Benedict Arnold, who appears to have been moved by personal animosity. He entered complaints against the Shawomet settlers. Massachusetts assumed authority over that portion of Rhode Island. They summoned Miantonomoh to Boston, and on incompetent testimony it was adjudged that he had no right to sell the land. Then the Gorton colony were summoned to Boston. They replied that they were not responsible to Massachusetts, but to the government of England. A second summons was sent, with the same result. Commissioners were appointed to go to Shawomet. They were warned by Gorton that if they should come to exercise force they would be met by force. "We strictly charge you," he wrote, "that you set not a foot upon our lands in any hostile way, but upon your peril; and that if any blood be shed, upon your own heads shall it be." The commissioners went with a minister, a band of soldiers, and some Indians. On their approach, alarm spread through the hamlet. The men prepared themselves for fight; the women, with their children, for flight. The latter, when the Boston party came, ran—some to the woods, and others to the water to a friendly boat. The men took refuge in a fortified log cabin. The commissioners demanded an instant surrender. It was refused; for, as the besieged said, they owed no allegiance to Massachusetts. They proposed to submit the case to arbitration, and a truce was agreed upon until word could be received from Boston. The truce was delusive. Before the messenger sent to Boston could return, the houses of Gorton's people were broken open and plundered. Even the women and children returning from the woods were fired upon. The Bostonians besieged the Gortonians for several days. At length it was proposed to Gorton that he and his fellow-defenders should go to Boston, not as prisoners, but as "free men and neighbors." As soon as the besiegers entered the house, Gorton and his friends were disarmed and marched off to Boston as prisoners. Their property was left behind, a prey to plundering Indians, and their wives and children were scattered, and some of them died. On the way to Boston,

try at London, and you will represent the whole of it there. When you are asked to divide that duty with others, diplomatic relations between the government of Great Britain and this government will be suspended, and will remain so, until it shall be seen which of the two is most strongly intrenched in the confidence of the respective nations and of mankind." The high position taken in the name of his government in that letter of instruction was, doubtless, one of the most efficient causes, together with the friendly attitude afterwards assumed by Russia towards the United States, of the fortunate delay of Great Britain in the matter of recognizing the independence of the Confederates.

Sewell's Point. At Sewell's Point, at the mouth of the Elizabeth River, Virginia, the insurgents had erected a redoubt, with three heavy rifled cannons, in the middle of May, 1861, for the purpose of sweeping Hampton Roads. The battery was masked by a sand-hill, but it was discovered by Captain Henry Eagle, of the National armed schooner *Star*, who sent several shot among the workmen on the Point on May 19. The fire was returned; five shots struck the *Star*, and she was compelled to withdraw. That night about two thousand insurgent troops were sent down to the Point from Norfolk, and these were there on the morning of the 20th, when the *Freeborn*, Captain Ward, opened her guns upon them. The battery was soon silenced, and the insurgents driven away. This was the first offensive operation against the insurgents in the Civil War.

Sewing-machines. Unsuccessful efforts were made in England, in the latter half of the last century, to relieve sewers from the drudgery of the needle. In 1830 Barthelmy Thimonier, a Frenchman, patented a sewing-machine, and eighty of them, in operation in Paris, were destroyed by a mob, composed chiefly of women. In 1848 he constructed improved machines, which made two hundred stitches a minute, and these were also destroyed by a mob, he barely escaping with his life. So early as 1834 Walter Hunt, of New York, invented a sewing-machine that made what is called a "lock-stitch." He neglected to pursue it to perfection, and lost a grand chance for fame and fortune; and when, in 1854, he applied for a patent, it was essentially covered by a patent obtained by Elias Howe, Jr., eight years before (September, 1846). Mr. Howe amassed a large fortune by his royalty on machines manufactured by others using his invention. Many improvements have been made by American inventors. In 1870 there were forty-nine establishments in the United States for the manufacture of sewing-machines, employing a capital of about \$8,000,000. The total annual product of the sewing-machine business in the United States, in 1870, was probably not less in value than \$20,000,000. The aggregate product of thirteen of the principal establishments for the same year was a little more than three hundred and sixty-two thousand machines, valued at more than \$14,000,000.

Seymour. TRUMAN, was born at Burlington,

Vt., Sept. 24, 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1846. He served in the war against Mexico, and also in the last Florida war (1856-58), and became captain of artillery in 1860. He was in Fort Sumter during the siege in the spring of 1861; joined the Army of the Potomac in March, 1862, and was made chief of artillery of McCall's division. Late in April of that year he was made brigadier-general, and commanded a brigade in the Peninsular campaign. He led a brigade in the battles at Groveton, South Mountain, and Antietam, and commanded a division in the assault on Fort Wagner, where he was severely wounded (July 18, 1863). In February, 1864, he commanded an expedition to Florida, and fought a battle at Olustee (which see). He commanded divisions at the beginning of the Richmond campaign of 1864, and in the Shenandoah valley the same year. He was in the Richmond campaign from December, 1864, to the surrender of Lee at Appomattox (which see), and was breveted major-general of the United States Army "for services during the Rebellion."

Shaftesbury, EARL OF. Anthony Ashley Cooper, first Earl of Shaftesbury, was born at Wimborne (St. Giles's House), Dorsetshire, England, July 22, 1621; died in Amsterdam, Jan. 22, 1683. He represented Tewkesbury in the Short Parliament in 1640. He first supported Charles I. in the civil war, but in 1644 joined the Parliament troops, acted with vigor, served in Cromwell's parliaments, and was one of the Councilors of State. He retired in 1654, and in Parliament was a leader of the opposition to Cromwell's measures. Active in the overthrow of the Second Protectorate, he was one of the commissioners who went to Breda to invite Charles II. to come to England. The grateful king made him Governor of the Isle of Wight, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and one of the Privy Council. In 1661 he was created Baron Ashley, and was one of the commission for the trial of the regicides (see *Regicides*, *The*), whom he zealously prosecuted. Charles had granted to him and several other favorites the vast domain of Carolina (1663), and he was employed with Locke in framing a scheme of government for the domain. He was created Earl of Shaftesbury in 1672, and made Lord-chancellor of the Realm, for which he was unfitted. Opposing the government, the king dismissed him (1673). Accused of treason, he fled to Holland in 1682, where he died.

Shaler, ALEXANDER, was major of the famous New York Seventh Regiment before the breaking-out of the Civil War, and became lieutenant-colonel of the Sixty-fifth New York Volunteers in June, 1861. He served in the Peninsular campaign, and under Pope in Virginia and McClellan in Maryland as colonel. In May, 1863, he was made a brigadier-general, and commanded a brigade in the battle of Fredericksburg (which see). In the battle of the Wilderness (which see) he was taken prisoner, and was confined at Charleston, S. C. Exchanged in August (1864), he afterwards commanded a division in Arkansas (January, 1865). He was breveted major-general, and in January, 1867, he was made ma-

clergymen in villages called the people to prayers on the street, to give thanks for the victory of the Bostonians. In Boston the troops were drawn up in front of Governor Winthrop's house. The commissioners made their report, and the governor came out to welcome back the valiant troops who had gained a victory over twelve men, whose most heinous offence was disagreement in opinion with the Church and State of Massachusetts. Their trial was a sort of theological tilt. The ministers and magistrates wished to hang the prisoners, but sensible representatives of the people consented only to the punishment of being put at hard labor, each with "irons upon one leg," and commanded that they should not "by word or writing maintain any of their blasphemous or wicked errors upon pain of death." The Narragansets, under the lead of Miantonomoh, took up the quarrel in their way, and it proved the ruin of that chief. (See *Miantonomoh*.)

Shays, DANIEL, made famous by rebellion, was born at Hopkinton, Mass., in 1747; died at Sparta, N. Y., Sept. 29, 1825. He was an ensign in Woodbridge's regiment at the battle of Bunker's Hill, and became a captain in the Continental army. His place in history was obtained by his leadership of an insurrection in Massachusetts in 1786-87. He fled to New Hampshire, and thence to Vermont, where he remained about a year. His petition for pardon was granted, when he removed to Sparta, N. Y. He received a pension for his services in the Revolution.

Shays's Rebellion. In other portions of the Union, discontents like those which produced the State of Frankland (which see) caused revolutionary movements. A convention of the people of Maine, sitting at Portland (September, 1786), considered the expediency of erecting themselves into an independent state, but nothing came of it. In Massachusetts a more formidable movement took place. The General Court had voted customs and excise duties to produce a revenue sufficient to meet the interest on the state debt. Besides this burden laid upon them, the people were suffering from private indebtedness. There were taxes to meet the instalments to be paid on the principal of the state debt, and, also, responses had to be made to requisitions of Congress for the proportion of money required from Massachusetts for carrying on the general government. The taxes of the state amounted annually to \$1,000,000. Many of the farmers had fallen behind in their payments. A multitude of lawsuits were pending in the courts. Conventions were called, especially in the southern and western counties, to consider their grievances, and these were sometimes followed by armed mobs which prevented the courts from sitting. The poverty and exhaustion of the country in consequence of the war was complete. Artful demagogues stirred up the people of one class against those of another. The working-men were arrayed against the capitalists. The government of Massachusetts was held responsible for every evil; and these demagogues, seeking notoriety,

so inflamed the people that large masses were ready to take up arms for the overthrow of the commonwealth. In this disturbed state of the public mind, the governor of Massachusetts (Bowdoin) called (September, 1786) a special session of the Legislature. Unsuccessful attempts were made to pacify the malcontents, when the governor called out the militia to protect the courts in the southwestern counties. The Congress, fearing the dissatisfied people might seize the government armory at Springfield, voted to enlist 1300 men (October, 1786) under pretext of acting against Indians in the northwest; but before these troops could be raised, an insurrection had already broken out. Daniel Shays, who had been a captain in the Continental army, at the head of 1000 men or more, took possession of Worcester (Dec. 5, 1786) and prevented a session of the Supreme Court in that town. He repeated this act at Springfield (Dec. 25). The insurrection soon became so formidable that Governor Bowdoin was compelled to call out several thousand militia, under General Lincoln, to suppress it. They assembled at Boston (Jan. 17, 1787) in the depth of winter, and marched for Worcester and Springfield. Two other bodies of insurgents were then in the field under the respective commands of Luke Day and Eli Parsons. United, they numbered about 2000. Shays demanded the surrender (Jan. 25) of the arsenal at Springfield, and approached to take it. Colonel Shepherd, in command there, first fired cannons over their heads. When the pieces were pointed at the insurgents, they cried "Murder!" and fled in confusion. Upon Lincoln's approach (Jan. 27) the insurgents retreated. Finally, he captured 150 of them at Petersham; the rest were dispersed and fled into New Hampshire. Lincoln then marched into the districts west of the Connecticut River, where the insurgents were numerous. Their power was speedily broken. A free pardon was finally offered to all persons who had engaged in the insurrection. Several of the leaders were tried and sentenced to death, but none were executed; for it was perceived that the great mass of the people sympathized with them. So ended Shays's Rebellion.

Sheaffe, SIR ROGER HALE, was born in Boston, July 15, 1763; died in Edinburgh, July 17, 1851. Earl Percy made his headquarters at the house of the mother of young Sheaffe, and he provided for the lad a military education and a commission in a regiment of foot in 1773. Sheaffe performed various military service in Europe, and in 1812 came to Canada with the rank of major-general. After the fall of Brock at Queenstown (which see), Sheaffe took command of the forces and gained a victory there. For this service he was knighted (Jan. 16, 1813). In April of the same year he defended York (which see), and was made a full general in 1828.

Shelburne (Lord) and the Americans. Lord Shelburne, an old and valued friend of Dr. Franklin, had always been a supporter of the Americans during the long and, at last, sanguinary conflict, and yet his personal worth was so great that the

king highly esteemed him, and leaned upon him for advice. On the downfall of North's administration and the accession of that of the Marquis of Rockingham, Shelburne, as his own choice, took that position in the cabinet which made him specially cognizant of American affairs, and to him were intrusted the arrangements for establishing peace. The humane Sir Guy Carleton was put in command of the army in America in place of Sir Henry Clinton, and Oswald was sent to Paris to talk about peace with Dr. Franklin. (See *Preliminary Treaty of Peace*.) On the death of Rockingham (July 1, 1782) he became prime-minister.

Shelby, EVAN, EXPEDITION OF. About one thousand Southern Indians had assembled at Chickamunga and Chattanooga, in upper Georgia, to join the Northern Indians in Hamilton's conspiracy. (See *Hamilton, Governor, at Detroit*.) To restrain their ravages, the governments of North Carolina and Virginia appointed Evan Shelby to the command of one thousand men, called into service chiefly from the region west of the mountains. These were joined by a regiment of twelve-month men who had been enlisted to reinforce Clark in Illinois. In the middle of April, 1779, they went down the Tennessee River in canoes and pirogues so rapidly that the savages were surprised, and fled to the hills and woods, pursued by the white troops. Forty of the barbarians were killed. Their towns were burned, their cultivated fields were laid waste, and their cattle were driven away. For the rest of the year there was peace among

leader in the defeat of Ferguson at King's Mountain (which see), and was in other engagements, serving under Marion in 1781, and subsequently joining Greene with five hundred mounted vol-



ISAAC SHELBY.

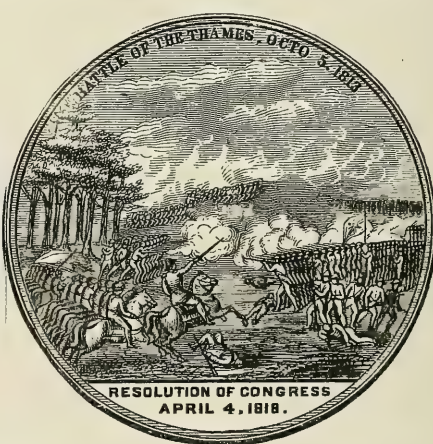
unteers. He received from the Legislature of North Carolina a vote of thanks and a sword (delivered to him in 1813) for the victory at King's Mountain. In 1788 he settled at "Traveler's Rest," where he died. Shelby was governor of Kentucky from 1792 to 1796, and again from 1812 to 1816. At the head of four thousand troops, he joined General Harrison in an invasion of Canada in 1813, and fought at the battle of the Thames. For his conduct there Congress gave him a gold medal. He declined the offer



THE SHELBY MEDAL.

the Western settlements, and a stream of emigrants flowed through the mountains into Kentucky, increasing the number of settlements.

Shelby, ISAAC, was born near Hagerstown, Md., Dec. 11, 1750; died in Lincoln County, Ky., July 18, 1826. He was of Welsh lineage, and in early life became a surveyor in western Virginia. His father, Evan, was a captain in the battle at Point Pleasant (which see) in 1774, and Isaac was a private in his company. He became a captain in 1776, and commissary in 1777, rising to the rank of colonel in 1780. He was a chief



of a seat in Monroe's cabinet as Secretary of War on account of his age. His last public act was serving as a commissioner with General Jackson in forming a treaty with the Chickasaw Indians.

Shepley, GEORGE FOSTER, son of Chief-justice Shepley, of Maine, was born at Saco, Me., Jan. 1, 1819. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1837; studied at the Harvard Law School and at Portland; and began the practice of law at Bangor. President Polk appointed him United States District attorney, which position he

held until 1861, when he became colonel of a Maine regiment, and took part in General Butler's expedition against New Orleans. On the surrender of that city he was made its commandant. In July he became a brigadier-general, and was military governor of Louisiana from July 2, 1862, until 1864. On the surrender of Richmond (April, 1865), he was made military governor of that city. He resigned in July, and resumed the practice of law in Portland. In 1871 he was appointed United States Circuit Judge of the First Circuit.

Sheridan, PHILIP HENRY, was born at Somerset, Perry Co., O., March 6, 1831, and graduated at West Point in 1853. He served with much credit in Texas and Oregon, doing good service in the latter region, and settling difficulties



PHILIP HENRY SHERIDAN.

with the Indians. He was made captain in May, 1861, and during the summer he was president of a military commission to audit claims in Missouri. In December he was made chief commissary of the Army of the Southwest, and was on the staff of General Halleck at Corinth, performing the same duties. In May, 1862, he was made colonel of a Michigan regiment of cavalry; defeated Forrest's cavalry on June 6; and on July 1 repulsed and defeated a superior Confederate force under Chalmers at Booneville, Miss. He was then at the head of a brigade of cavalry, and was made brigadier-general. In August he defeated Faulkner's cavalry in Mississippi. Late in September he took command of a division in the Army of the Ohio, and led another division at the battle of Perryville (which see). He also commanded a division with great efficiency in the battle at Stone's River (which see), and for his services there he was made (Dec. 31) major-general of volunteers. He afterwards rendered signal service in the battles of Chickamauga and Missionaries' Ridge, when he was transferred to the Army of the Potomac (April, 1864) as chief of cavalry. In the campaign against Richmond until August, 1864, he did signal service in making destructive raids on Lee's communications. On Aug. 1 he was detached to the valley of the Shenan-

doah, where he defeated the Confederates in several engagements (see *Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek, Battles of*); and finally, in 1865, he contributed largely to the success of the campaign against Petersburg and Richmond by his services in the final events which culminated in the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court-house. After the war he was in command in Louisiana and Texas, and enforced the "reconstruction" acts there, for which he was removed by President Johnson in Aug., 1867. He was made lieutenant-general in March, 1869, and general of the army of the U. S., June 1, 1888. He died Aug. 5, 1888.

Sheridan's Raid (1864). When the National army emerged from the Wilderness (which see), General Sheridan was sent to cut Lee's communications with Richmond. This was the first of the great raids of that leader in Virginia, and was a short but destructive one. He took with him a greater portion of the cavalry led by Merritt, Gregg, and Wilson, crossed the North Anna on May 9, and struck the Virginia Central Railroad, capturing Beaver Dam Station. He destroyed ten miles of the railway, its rolling-stock, one million and a half of rations, and released four hundred Union prisoners on their way to Richmond. There he was attacked by Stuart and his cavalry, but was not much impeded thereby. He pushed forward, and on the morning of the 11th captured Ashland Station, on the Fredericksburg road, a few miles from Richmond, where he destroyed the railroad for six miles and a large quantity of stores. He was charged with menacing Richmond and communicating with the Army of the James, under General Butler. A few miles from Richmond he had another sharp contest with Stuart, and drove him and his cavalry towards Ashland. Stuart was killed, and General Gordon was mortally wounded. Sheridan still pressed on, and made a dash upon the outer works at Richmond. Custer's brigade carried them at that point and made one hundred prisoners. The inner works were too strong for cavalry. The Confederates gathered, and in a fight Sheridan was repulsed. He led his command across the Chickahominy, fighting a Confederate force at Meadow Bridge; destroyed a railway bridge; rested three days at Haxhall's Landing, on the James, and procured supplies; and then, by way of the White House, leisurely returned to the Army of the Potomac.

Sheridan's Raid (1865). (See *Petersburg, Final Struggle at.*) General Sheridan left Winchester on Feb. 27, 1865, with about 10,000 men, composed of the divisions of cavalry of Merritt and Custer. To the latter division was added a brigade of West Virginia troops under Colonel Capeheart. Sheridan's troops were all mounted. They moved rapidly up the Shenandoah valley towards Staunton. On the way they met Rosser, with 400 men, who was disposed to dispute the passage of a fork of the Shenandoah; but he was soon chased away, and the column moved on to Staunton and Rockfish Gap. Early, with 2500 men behind strong intrenchments, was at Waynesborough to dispute

their passage. Custer soon routed him, capturing 1600 of his men, with 11 guns, 17 battle-flags, and 200 loaded wagons. Custer lost less than a dozen men. This finished Early as a military leader. The raiders destroyed Confederate property in the vicinity valued at \$1,000,000. During that night Sheridan went over the Blue Ridge in a drenching rain, and entered Charlottesville late the next day, where he waited for his pontoons and ammunition to come over the mountains. In the meantime his troops destroyed bridges, factories, depots, and the railway in the direction of Lynchburg for about eight miles. Satisfied that the latter place was too strong for him, he divided his force and pushed for the James River. Rains had so swollen the river that his pontoons would not span it. Proceeding eastward, he destroyed the James River Canal (then the chief channel of supplies for Richmond) and numerous bridges. This produced the greatest consternation in Richmond. The Confederate government prepared to fly, and the families of officials "packed" for a journey. The Congress, made nervous, wanted to adjourn and depart, but they were persuaded to remain. From Columbia, where Sheridan rested a day, he dashed off to the Virginia Central Railway, which they destroyed for the distance of fifteen miles. Then Custer in one direction, and Devin in another, made complete destruction of railways and bridges, as well as supplies, in Lee's rear, inflicting a more serious blow to the Confederate cause than any victory during the last campaign. Then Sheridan swept around by the White House, and joined the army before Petersburg on March 26. He had disabled fully two hundred miles of railway, destroyed a vast number of bridges, and property to the value of several million dollars.

Sherman, JOHN, statesman, brother of General William T., was born at Lancaster, O., May 10, 1823, and was admitted to the bar in 1844. He was elected to Congress in 1854, and served therein until 1861, when he became United States Senator. He was a leading member of the Finance Committee of the Senate during the Civil War. He and Thaddeus Stevens were the framers of the bill passed in 1866-67 for the reorganization of the so-called "seceded states." He was also the author of a bill providing for the resumption of specie payments on Jan. 1, 1879; and on March 4, 1877, President Hayes called him to his cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury. He has been a member of the Senate since 1881.

Sherman, ROGER, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Newton, Mass., April 19, 1721; died at New Haven, Conn., July 23, 1793. In early life he was a shoemaker, and after the death of his father (1741) he supported his mother and several younger children by his industry, at the same time employing all his leisure time in acquiring knowledge, especially of mathematics. In 1743 he joined an elder brother in keeping a small store in New Milford, Conn., and the next year was appointed county surveyor of lands. For several years

(1748-60) he furnished the astronomical calculations for an almanac published in New York. Meanwhile he had studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1754. He was elected to the Connecticut Assembly several times, and in 1759 became a judge of the Court of Common Pleas. Removing to New Haven in 1761, he became a judge of the same court there in 1765, holding the office until 1789. He was also chosen an assistant in 1766, and held the office nineteen years. In 1774 he was chosen a delegate to the First Continental Congress. He continued in Congress until his death, nineteen years afterwards, at which time he was in the United States Senate. Mr. Sherman was one of the committee appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence; served on the most important committees during the war; from 1784 until his death was Mayor of New Haven; and was chiefly instrumental in securing the ratification of the national Constitution by Connecticut. Roger Sherman was one of the most useful men of his time. Jefferson declared that he "never said a foolish thing in his life."

Sherman, THOMAS W., was born at Newport, R. I., March 26, 1813; died there, March 16, 1879. He graduated at West Point in 1836; served with General Taylor in the war against Mexico, in command of a battery; and was breveted major. He commanded a division in the battle of Bull's Run, and led the land forces in the Port Royal expedition (which see), landing at Hilton Head Nov. 7, 1861. In March, 1862, he was superseded by General Hunter, and joined the army under Halleck at Corinth. He did excellent service in the region of the Lower Mississippi in 1862-63, commanding a division in the siege of Port Hudson, and receiving (March 13, 1865) the brevet of major-general United States Army for services there and during the war.

Sherman, WILLIAM TECUMSEH, LL.D., was born at Mansfield, O., Feb. 8, 1820, and graduated at West Point in 1840. His father died in



WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

1829, when he was adopted by Thomas Ewing, whose daughter Ellen he married in 1850. He

served in the Seminole War, and in September, 1850, was made commissary, with the rank of captain. In 1853 he resigned, became a broker in California, and, practising law for a while in Kansas, was made superintendent of a new military academy established by the State of Louisiana. When the convention of that state passed the Ordinance of Secession, Captain Sherman resigned; was made colonel of United States infantry in May, 1861; and commanded a brigade at the battle of Bull's Run, having been made brigadier-general of volunteers in May. In October, 1861, he succeeded General Anderson in the command of the Department of Kentucky. The Secretary of War asked him how many men he should require. He answered, "Sixty thousand to drive the enemy from Kentucky, and two hundred thousand to finish the war in this section." This estimate seemed so wild that he was reputed to be insane, and was relieved of his command; but events proved that he was more sane than most other people. After the capture of Fort Donelson (which see) he was placed in command of a division of Grant's Army of the Tennessee, and performed signal service in the battle of Shiloh (which see). "To his individual efforts," said Grant, "I am indebted for the success of that battle." There he was slightly wounded, and had three horses shot under him, and in May was made major-general. From July to November, 1862, he commanded at Memphis; and throughout the campaign against Vicksburg (December, 1862, to July, 1863) his services were most conspicuous and valuable. He commanded one of the three corps in that siege. After the fall of Vicksburg he operated successfully against General J. E. Johnston. In October, 1863, he was made commander of the Department of the Tennessee, and joined Grant at Chattanooga in the middle of November; was in the battle of Missionaries' Ridge (Nov. 25); and then moved to the relief of Burnside in East Tennessee. Early in 1864 he made a destructive march eastward from Vicksburg. In March he was appointed to command the expedition against Atlanta, which he led with great skill and success, from Chattanooga (May 6) to the capture of Atlanta in September. He commanded in that campaign the armies of the Cumberland, the Tennessee, and the Ohio, numbering nearly one hundred thousand men, with two hundred and fifty-four cannons. He chased General Hood into northern Alabama, and, returning to Atlanta, marched to the sea, taking possession of Savannah late in December. Then he pushed northward through the Carolinas, encountering Confederate forces here and there under Johnston, and in April, 1865, received the surrender of that leader and his army at Durham Station. General Sherman had been made major-general United States Army in August, 1864, and was promoted to lieutenant-general in July 1866. On March 4, 1869, he succeeded General Grant as general-in-chief of the armies of the United States. He was retired at his own request, Feb. 8, 1884, on full pay. He died Feb. 14, 1891.

Sherman's Campaign in Georgia. Lieutenant-general Grant arranged two grand campaigns for the year 1864. One, under his own immediate direction, was for the seizure of Richmond, the Confederate capital; the other was for the seizure of Atlanta, Ga., the focus of several converging railways. The latter expedition was led by General W. T. Sherman. His army numbered nearly one hundred thousand men. Sherman had succeeded Grant in command of the military division of the Mississippi. His force was composed of the Army of the Cumberland, led by General George H. Thomas; the Army of the Tennessee, commanded by General J. B. McPherson; and the Army of the Ohio, led by General J. M. Schofield. When, on May 6, 1864, Sherman began to move southward from the vicinity of Chattanooga, his army was confronted by a Confederate force of fifty-five thousand men, led by General Joseph E. Johnston, and arranged in three corps, commanded respectively by Generals Hardee, Hood, and Polk. This army then lay at Dalton, at the parting of the ways—one leading into East Tennessee, and the other into West Tennessee. To strike that position in front was, at least, perilous; so Sherman began a series of successful flanking movements. When he flanked the Confederates at Dalton, they fell back to Resaca Station, on the Oostenauna River, on the line of the railway between Chattanooga and Atlanta. There a sharp battle was fought on May 15. Johnston took his next position at Allatoona Pass, and Sherman massed his troops at Dallas, westward of that post, where a severe battle was fought May 25. Johnston finally pressed on to Marietta and Atlanta, where, towards the middle of July, he was succeeded by Hood. The latter city was captured by Sherman, who entered it Sept. 2, 1864. Late in October Sherman prepared for a march through Georgia from Atlanta to Savannah. He moved from Atlanta Nov. 14, and, marching eastward with very little opposition, reached Savannah and entered it Dec. 21.

Sherman's March to the Sea. (See *Atlanta to the Sea*.)

Sherman's Raid in Mississippi. When General Sherman was called to Chattanooga, he left General J. B. McPherson in command at Vicksburg; but soon after Bragg was driven southward from Chattanooga Sherman suddenly reappeared in Mississippi. At the head of 20,000 troops, he made a most destructive raid (February, 1864) from Jackson to the intersection of important railways at Meridian, in that state. His object was to inflict as much injury on the Confederate cause and its physical strength as possible. He believed in the righteousness and efficacy of making such a war terrible, and the line of his march eastward presented a black path of desolation. No public property of the Confederates was spared. The station-houses and rolling-stock of the railways were burned. The track was torn up, and the rails, heated by the burning ties cast into heaps, were twisted and ruined. Sherman intended

to push on to Montgomery, Ala., and then, if circumstances appeared favorable, to go southward and attack Mobile. He waited at Meridian for General W. S. Smith to join him with a considerable force of cavalry, but that officer was held back by the Confederate forces under Forrest and others. After waiting in vain for a week, Sherman laid Meridian in ashes, and returned to Vicksburg with 500 prisoners and 5000 liberated slaves. This raid created great consternation, for General Polk, with his 15,000 men, made but a feeble resistance. Sherman's loss was 171 men.

Sherman's Visit to General Grant. After his long march from the Chattahoochee to the sea, and from the Savannah to the Neuse, General Sherman proceeded by water from Morehead City to visit Grant at the junction of the Appomattox and the James. He left the chief command of the army during his absence to General Schofield. At City Point he met several of the leading officers of the Army of the Potomac and of the James, and President Lincoln. After consultation about the future and learning the "general state of the military world," he returned to Goldsborough on March 30.

Shields, JAMES, was born in Tyrone County, Ireland, in 1810; died at Ottumwa, Iowa, June 1, 1879. He emigrated to America about 1826, and began the practice of law about 1833, at Kaskaskia, Ill. He held a seat in the Legislature in 1836; was State Auditor in 1839; and Judge of the Supreme Court in 1843. In 1845 he was Commissioner of the General Land-office; and when the war with Mexico began President Polk commissioned him a brigadier-general of the United States Army (1847). In two battles he was severely wounded. He was appointed Governor of Oregon Territory in 1848. This office he soon resigned, and from 1849 to 1855 he represented Illinois in the United States Senate. He afterwards resided in Minnesota, and was United States Senator from that state from 1858 to 1860, and then went to California. In August, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and performed gallant services in the Shenandoah valley, receiving a severe wound in the battle of Kernstown (which see).

Shiloh, BATTLE AT. After the capture of Fort Donelson (which see), General Grant had prepared to push towards Corinth, an important position at the intersection of the Charleston and Memphis, Mobile and Ohio railways. Possession of that point would give the National troops control of the great railway communications between the Mississippi and the East, and the border slave-labor states and the Gulf of Mexico. Passing up the Tennessee River, the main body of Grant's troops were encamped, at the beginning of April, between Pittsburgh Landing, on that stream, and Shiloh Meeting-house, in the forest, two miles from the river bank. General Beauregard, under the supreme command of General A. Sidney Johnson, was straining every nerve to resist this movement. He confronted the Nationals

near Shiloh Meeting-house, where he was assisted by Generals Polk, Hardee, Bragg, and Breckinridge. With these expert leaders the Confederates had come up from Corinth in a heavy rain-storm, in separate columns, and so stealthily that they were within four miles of the National camp before they were discovered by Grant's sentinels. There they halted (April 5, 1862) to await the arrival of Van Dorn and Price, who were approaching Memphis with a large force from Central Arkansas. The Confederate army now numbered about 40,000 men. Grant had made his headquarters at Savannah, on the Tennessee, and he there continued until the first week in April, having very little apprehension of an attack from the Confederates. General Sherman's division was just behind Shiloh Meeting-house. General Prentiss was encamped across the road to Corinth, with General McClelland's division behind his right. Their three divisions formed the advanced line. In the rear, near the river, lay General Hurlbut's division and that of General Smith, under the command of General W. H. L. Wallace, of Illinois. General Stuart's brigade, of Sherman's division, lay on the Hamburg road, and the division of General Lew. Wallace was at Crump's Landing, below Pittsburgh Landing. Such was the disposition of the National army on Sunday morning, April 6. Buell had been marching very tardily across Tennessee in the direction of Corinth. Hearing of his approach, Johnston resolved not to wait for Van Dorn and Price, but to strike the Nationals before Buell's arrival. At a council of war (April 5) that made this decision, Beauregard said: "Gentlemen, we sleep in the enemy's camp to-morrow night." Almost the first intimation of the near presence of the Confederates was the wild cry of pickets, flying into camp, and the sharp attack upon Sherman's troops by Hardee's division, before daylight had fairly appeared on Sunday morning, April 6. It was a surprise. Screaming shells dashed through the forest, and bullets whistled among the tents. The Confederates had rushed into the camp, driving half-dressed, half-armed soldiers before them, dealing death and terror in every direction. Prentiss's division was next attacked; his column was shattered, and he, with a large portion of his followers, were made prisoners, his camp being occupied by the Confederates. The struggle soon became general, and for ten hours the battle raged with varying fortune on both sides. General W. H. L. Wallace, of the Nationals, and General A. S. Johnston, of the Confederates, had been killed. On both sides the slaughter was severe, and the National army was pushed back to the river, then brimful with a spring flood. The day was fairly lost to the Union troops. All the Union camps were occupied by the Confederates but one—that of General Wallace, of which General McArthur was now in command. In the rear of this the smitten army had gathered at twilight, in a space not more than four hundred acres in extent, on the verge of the river. They could be pushed back no farther. Beauregard telegraphed to

Richmond a shout of victory. The Nationals were in a most perilous position. A single vigorous blow then given would have justified this shout. Beauregard gave feeble ones that were parried by two gunboats on the river, which had just arrived, and by a hastily formed battery on the shore. That evening the van of Buell's army also appeared on the opposite side of the river; and at midnight, General Lew. Wallace, who had been detained by misinformation, arrived. In the morning twilight (April 7) Wallace's troops opened the battle anew on the Confederate left, where Beauregard commanded in person. Others soon joined in the battle, and it became general all along the line. The Confederates fought gallantly, but were speedily pushed back by a superior force. When they perceived that all was lost, they fled in the direction of Corinth, in a blinding storm of rain and sleet, and halted on the heights of Monterey, covered in their retreat by a rear-guard of 12,000 men, led by General Breckinridge. The Confederates had lost over 10,000 men in the engagement and retreat. Fully 3000 died during the flight to the heights of Monterey. The National loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was about 15,000. The slain on the battle-field were buried; the dead horses were burned. The hospital vessels sent down the Tennessee were crowded with the sick and wounded. Beauregard's shattered army fell back to Corinth, and Grant was about to pursue and capture it, when General Halleck, his superior in rank, came up and took the chief command, and caused the army to loiter until the Confederates, recuperated, were ready for another battle.

Ship-building and Commerce in New England was begun at Salem about 1640, when Hugh Peters was active in getting up a company to engage in the fisheries on the Eastern coasts, which had been hitherto carried on extensively by the people of Old England. The General Court made an order that all property engaged in that business should be free from taxation for seven years. Peters was active in promoting the building of vessels; and in the course of two years six large vessels were built, in which voyages were undertaken to Madeira, the Canaries, and soon afterwards to Spain, with cargoes of staves and fish, which found a ready market. These vessels brought back wines, sugar, and dried fruit. So began the career of navigation and commerce which has specially distinguished the New England States.

Ship-building in the United States began at the dawn of American commerce, but the restrictions placed upon the commerce of the American colonies (see *Navigation Acts*) by Great Britain almost stifled this industry at its birth. The commerce of the colonies, if left free, would have fostered an extensive business in ship-building. An English author, in 1670, wrote: "Our American plantations employ nearly two thirds of our English shipping, and thereby give constant subsistence to, it may be, 200,000 persons here at home." Notwithstanding these restrictions, there were built, in the aggre-

gate, in 1771, in the thirteen colonies, 128 square-rigged vessels and 241 sloops and schooners, with an aggregate tonnage of 24,068. Ship-building had become a very extensive industry in our country when the Civil War (1861-65) broke out. The Anglo-Confederate cruisers drove much of our carrying-trade into foreign bottoms, and ship-building in our country has since been a much-depressed business. The total number of merchant-vessels of the United States afloat at the close of June, 1875, was 32,576, of which 4000 were steam-vessels.

Shippen, WILLIAM, M.D., was born in Philadelphia in 1735; died at Germantown, July 11, 1808. He graduated at Princeton in 1754; studied medicine in London and Edinburgh, and began its practice in Philadelphia in 1762. In the autumn of that year he began the first course of anatomical lectures ever given in this country. In 1765 he was chosen professor of anatomy and surgery in a Philadelphia medical school, of which he was the founder. In 1776 he entered the medical department of the army, and, from April, 1777, to January, 1781, was its director-general. He withdrew from the practice of his profession in 1798.

Shirley, WILLIAM, colonial governor of Massachusetts, was born in Sussex, Eng., in 1693; died at Roxbury, Mass., March 24, 1771. Bred a lawyer, he came to Boston in 1734, where he practised his profession. At the time he was



WILLIAM SHIRLEY.

appointed governor (1741) he was a commissioner for the settlement of the boundary between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. As governor he was superior to his contemporaries in the same office in America. He planned the expedition against Louisburg in 1745; and was appointed one of the commissioners at Paris (1750) for settling the limits of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, and other controverted rights of the English and French in America. In 1754 he made a treaty with the Eastern Indians and explored the Kennebec, erecting some forts upon its banks. In 1755 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. The expedition against Fort Niagara was planned by him, and led as far as Oswego. In 1759 he was commissioned a lieu-

tenant-general. He was governor of one of the Bahama islands afterwards, but returned to Massachusetts in 1770 and built a spacious mansion at Roxbury, which he never occupied, dying early the next year after his arrival there.

Short, WILLIAM, diplomatist, was born at Spring Garden, Va., Sept. 30, 1759; died in Philadelphia, Dec. 5, 1849. He was educated at the College of William and Mary. He became a member of the Virginia Executive Council while very young, and in 1784 he accompanied Jefferson to France as secretary of legation. In 1789 Washington appointed him *Chargé d'Affaires* to the French Republic on the retirement of Jefferson from his post in France. This was the first commission signed by President Washington, and Short had the honor of being the first public officer appointed under the national Constitution. He was successively minister-resident at the Hague and minister to Spain. Mr. Short was a faithful and very able diplomatist.

Shoshones, or Snakes. These, it is believed, formed a distinct nation of North American Indians, inhabiting a portion of the country west of and among the Rocky Mountains. They embrace a number of warlike tribes, among whom the Comanches (which see), who are east of these mountains, are best known in our history. According to their traditions, they came from the South. When Lewis and Clarke saw them, in 1805, they had been driven beyond the Rocky Mountains. They are wide-spread, and were generally very peaceful until within twenty years. The bands of Shoshones have gone by various names. The overland emigrants to California met them in the Great Salt Lake region, on the Humboldt River, and at other places. Soon after that emigration began, these bands assumed a hostile attitude towards the white people, and in 1849 some of them were engaged in open war. Short periods of peace were obtained by treaties, and, finally, in 1864, some of the Shoshones ceded their lands to the United States. The non-fulfilment of the agreement on the part of the latter caused the Indians to begin hostilities again. In 1867 a treaty was made at Fort Bridger, after which the United States government attempted to gather the scattered Shoshone bands on reservations, and partially succeeded. One reservation (Fort Hall) in Idaho contained at one time 1200 of the tribe; and 800 were on a reservation in Wyoming Territory, exposed to attacks from the Sioux. The Northwestern Shoshones, in Nevada, numbered about 2500 in 1872. At the reservation in Wyoming the Episcopalians have a mission, and other denominations are endeavoring to enlighten other bands.

Shubrick, WILLIAM BRANFORD, was born Oct. 31, 1790; died in Washington, D. C., May 27, 1874. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1806; was made lieutenant in January, 1813, and in June assisted, by managing a small battery on Crane Island, in repulsing the British. (See *Crane Island, Repulse of the British at.*) Shubrick was lieutenant of the *Constitution* in her action with the *Cyane* and *Levant* (which see). He commanded a squadron in the Pacific in

1847, and captured some ports from the Mexicans. In 1859 he was in command of the Brazil squadron and the Paraguay Expedition, and from 1860 to 1870 was chairman of the Light-



WILLIAM BRANFORD SHUBRICK.

house Board. He was made rear-admiral on the retired list in July, 1862.

Siamese Twins, THE. Chang and Eng were born in a small village on the coast of Siam in 1811. Their mother bore seventeen children; once she had three at a birth, and never less than two. These two children were the only deformed ones among them. They were united by a strong band of flesh, three or four inches in diameter, at the anterior part of the chest. Their parents lived by fishing, and the boys sold shellfish until they were eighteen years of age, when they were brought to the United States and exhibited as curiosities. They were shown in different cities of the Union, and also went to England and France, where they attracted the attention of scientific men. They were very agile, and so accommodated themselves to their situation that they could run, leap, and, when crossing the ocean, climb to the masthead as quickly as any sailor. The twins finally settled in North Carolina, where they purchased an estate. Each was married (their wives were sisters) and had several children, none of whom were deformed. They died within a few hours of each other, Jan. 17, 1874, at the age of 63 years.

Sibley, HENRY H., was born in Louisiana in 1815, and graduated at West Point in 1838, entering the dragoons and serving in the Seminole War (which see). He served in the war against Mexico. In February, 1861, he was made major of dragoons, and was serving against Indians in New Mexico; but in May he joined the insurgents, accepted the commission of brigadier-general in the Confederate army, and led a force from Texas for the conquest of New Mexico. At

Fort Craig (see *Valverde*) he was repulsed (June 5, 1862) and was driven over the mountains into Texas. In 1870 he entered the service of the ruler of Egypt as brigadier-general. Died 1891.

Sickles, DANIEL EPHRAIM, was born in New York city Oct. 20, 1822, and was admitted to the bar in 1844. In 1847 he became a member of the Legislature, and was soon a prominent leader in the Democratic party. He went to England with



DANIEL EPHRAIM SICKLES.

Minister Buchanan as secretary of legation. In 1855 he was elected State Senator, and the next year he was a member of Congress. He shot Philip Barton Key (Feb. 27, 1859), in Washington city, for alleged unlawful intimacy with his wife; was tried for murder, but acquitted, and was re-elected to Congress in 1860. When the Civil War broke out, he raised the Excelsior (New York) Brigade; was made colonel, and was commissioned brigadier-general, September, 1861. He commanded a brigade on the Peninsula, took command of General Hooker's troops when that officer was placed at the head of an army corps, and had a division at Antietam and Fredericksburg. At Chancellorsville he commanded an army corps; also at Gettysburg, where he lost a leg. He was made major-general of volunteers 1862; relieved from the military service in 1869, he was soon afterwards sent as United States minister to Spain, which office he resigned in 1874. He was afterwards President of the State Board of Civil Service Com., and Congressman, 1893—

Siege of Boston. With the efficient aid of General Gates, adjutant-general of the Continental army, order was soon brought out of great confusion among the forces at Cambridge. Washington determined to prepare for a regular siege of Boston, and to confine the British troops to that peninsula or drive them out to sea. The siege continued from June, 1775, until March, 1776. Fortifications were built, a thorough organization of the army was effected, and all that industry and skill could do, with the materials in hand, to strike an effectual blow was done. All through the remainder of the summer and the autumn of 1775 these preparations went on,

and late in the year the American army around Boston, 14,000 strong, extended from Roxbury, on the right, to Prospect Hill, two miles northwest of Breed's Hill, on the left. The right was commanded by General Artemas Ward, and the left by General Charles Lee. The centre, at Cambridge, was under the immediate command of Washington. The enlistments of many of the troops would expire with the year. Many refused to re-enlist. The Connecticut troops demanded a bounty; and when it was refused, because the Congress had not authorized it, they resolved to leave camp in a body. Many did go, and never came back. But at that dark hour new and patriotic efforts were made to keep up the army, and at the close of the year nearly all the regiments were full, and 10,000 minute-men in New England stood ready to swell the ranks. On the 1st of January (1776) the new army was organized, and consisted of about 10,000 men. The British troops in Boston numbered about 8000, exclusive of marines on the ships-of-war. They were well supplied with provisions, and, having been promised ample reinforcements in the spring, they were prepared to sit quietly in Boston and wait for them. They converted the old South Meeting-house into a riding-school, and Faneuil Hall into a theatre, while Washington, yet wanting ammunition to begin a vigorous attack, was chafing with impatience to "break up the nest." He waited for the ice in the rivers to become strong enough to allow his troops and artillery to cross over on it and assail the enemy; but the winter was mild, and no opportunity of that kind offered until February, when a council of officers decided that the undertaking would be too hazardous. Finally Colonel Knox, who had been sent to Ticonderoga to bring away cannons and mortars from that place, returned with more than fifty great guns. Powder began to increase. Ten militia regiments came in to increase the strength of the besiegers. Heavy cannons were placed in battery before Boston. Secretly Dorchester Heights were occupied by the Americans, and fortified in a single night. Howe saw, for the first time, that he was in real danger, for the cannons at Dorchester commanded the town. First he tried to dislodge the provincials. He failed. A council of war determined that the only method of securing safety for the British army was to fly to the ocean. He offered to evacuate the town and harbor if Washington would allow him to do so quietly. The boon was granted, and on Sunday, March 17, 1776, the British fleet and army, accompanied by more than 1000 loyalists, who dare not brave the anger of the patriots, whom they had oppressed, left the city and harbor, never to return in force. The event gave great joy to the American people, and the Continental Congress caused a medal of gold to be struck, with appropriate devices, and presented to Washington, with the thanks of the nation.

Siege of Boston, DISTRESS OF INHABITANTS DURING THE. When the British rear-guard left Boston, March 17, 1776, the vanguard of the American army marched in, and were received

by the inhabitants with demonstrations of great joy. They had endured dreadful sufferings for more than sixteen months—hunger, thirst, cold, privations of every kind, and the outrages and insults of insolent soldiers, who treated them as rebels, without rights which the British were bound to respect. The most necessary articles of food had risen to enormous prices, and horseflesh was welcomed, when it could be procured, as a savory dish. For a supply of fuel, the pews and benches of churches and the partitions and counters of warehouses were used, and even some of the meaner uninhabited dwellings were demolished for the same purpose.

Siege of Charleston (1780). Sir Henry Clinton sailed from New York on Christmas-day, 1779, for the purpose of invading South Carolina. He took with him the main body of his army, leaving General Knyphausen in command in New York. The troops were borne by a British fleet, commanded by Admiral Arbuthnot, who had two thousand marines. They encountered heavy storms off Cape Hatteras, which scattered the fleet. One vessel, laden with heavy battery-cannons, went to the bottom. Another, bearing Hessian troops, was driven across the Atlantic, and dashed on the shore of England. The troops landed on islands below Charleston, and it was late in February before the scattered British forces appeared on John's Island, in sight of the wealthy city, containing a population of fifteen thousand inhabitants, white and black. The city was then defended by less than two thousand effective troops, under General Lincoln, who had cast up intrenchments across Charleston Neck. Commodore Whipple had sunk some of his armed vessels in the channels of the harbor, after transferring the cannons and seamen to the land fortifications. Fort Moultrie was well garrisoned. The invading troops appeared before the defences of Charleston March 29, and the fleet entered the harbor, unmolested, April 9. On the following day Clinton and Arbuthnot demanded the surrender of the city, which was promptly refused, and a siege began. On the 13th Lincoln and a council of officers considered the propriety of evacuating the city to save it from destruction, for the American troops were too few to hope for a successful defence. It was then too late, for cavalry, sent out to keep open communications with the country, had been dispersed by the British troopers. The arrival of Cornwallis (April 19) with three thousand fresh troops rendered an evacuation impossible. The siege continued about a month. Fort Moultrie surrendered on May 6, when a third demand for the surrender of the city was made and refused. Late on the succeeding evening a severe cannonade was opened upon it from land and water. All night long the thunder of two hundred heavy guns shook the city, and fiery bombshells were rained upon it, setting the town on fire in different places. At two o'clock on the morning of the 12th Lincoln proposed to yield, and on that day the city and garrison were surrendered, and the latter, as well as the adult citizens, became prisoners of war. The latter were paroled; and by this extraor-

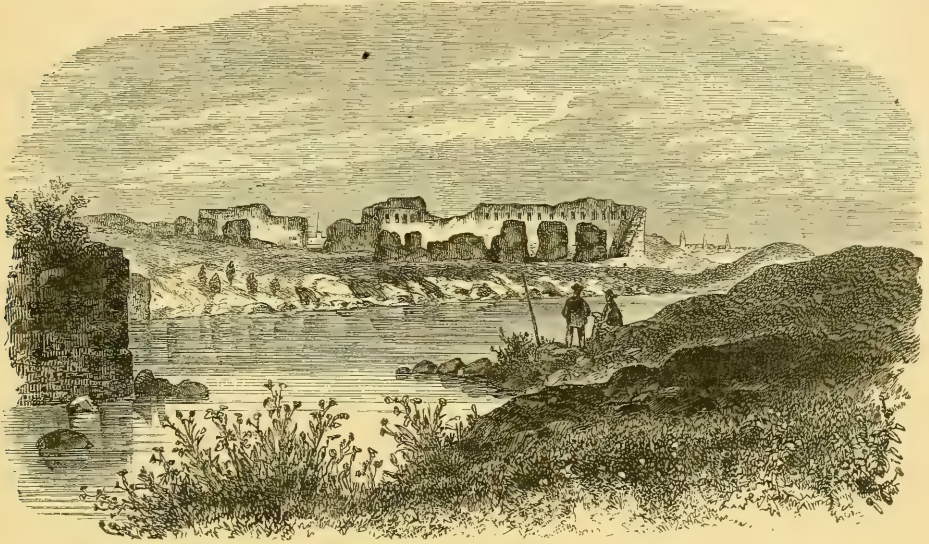
dinary proceeding Clinton could boast of over five thousand captives. The city was given up to pillage by the British and Hessian troops. When the whole amount of plunder was appraised for distribution, it aggregated in value \$1,500,000. Clinton and his major-generals each received about \$20,000. Houses were rifled of plate, and slaves were seized, driven on board the ships, and sent to the West Indies to sell, so as to swell the money-gains of the conquerors. Over two thousand men and women, without regard to the separation of families, were sent at one embarkation; and only upon the promise of unconditional loyalty to the crown was British protection offered to citizens. In utter violation of the terms of surrender, a large number of the leading men of Charleston were taken from their beds (August) by armed men, and thrust on board filthy prison-ships, under the false accusation of being concerned in a conspiracy to burn the town and murder the loyal inhabitants.

Siege of Fort Erie. Lieutenant-colonel Drummond, with about five thousand men, began a siege of Fort Erie Aug. 4, 1814. The fort was an indifferent affair, small and weak, standing upon a plain twelve or fifteen feet above the waters of Lake Erie, at its foot. A battery nearer the water, and various earthworks, had been thrown up by the Americans since its capture in July. Redoubts, traverses, and abatis had been constructed. At the southwestern extremity of the line of works a sort of bastion, twenty feet high, had been erected, on which five heavy guns were mounted. It was called Towson's Battery. In the lake, near by it, were three armed schooners—*Porcupine*, *Somers*, and *Ohio*. Drummond perceived the importance of capturing the American batteries at Black Rock and seizing or destroying the armed schooners in the lake. A force twelve hundred strong, that went over to Black Rock, were repulsed by riflemen, militia, and volunteers, under Major Morgan. Meanwhile Drummond had opened fire on Fort Erie with some 24-pounders. From the 7th to the 14th of August (1814) the cannonade and bombardment was almost incessant. General Gaines had arrived on the 5th, and taken the chief command as Brown's lieutenant. On the morning of the 7th the British hurled a fearful storm of round-shot upon the American works from five of their heavy cannons. Day by day the siege went steadily on. On the 13th Drummond, having completed the mounting of all his heavy ordnance, began a cannonade, bombardment, and rocketeering, which continued through the day, and were renewed on the morning of the 14th. When the attack ceased that night, very little impression had been made on the American works. Satisfied that Drummond intended to storm the works, Gaines made disposition accordingly. At midnight an ominous silence prevailed in both camps. It was soon broken by a tremendous uproar. At two o'clock in the morning (Aug. 15) the British, fifteen hundred strong, under Lieutenant-colonel Fischer, made a furious attack upon Towson's battery and the abatis, on the extreme left, between

that work and the shore. They expected to find the Americans slumbering, but were mistaken. At a signal, Towson's artillerists sent forth such a continuous stream of flame from his tall battery that the British called it the "Yankee Light-house." While one assailing

ty-four wounded, and one hundred and eighty-six prisoners. The loss of the Americans was seventy killed, fifty-six wounded, and eleven missing. Both parties immediately prepared for another struggle.

Sigel, FRANZ, was born at Zinsheim, Baden,



RUINS OF FORT ERIE, 1860.

column, by the use of ladders, was endeavoring to capture the battery, the other, failing to penetrate the abatis, because Miller and his brave men were behind it, attempted to gain the rear of the defenders. Both columns failed. Five times they made a gallant attack, when, after fearful loss, they abandoned the enterprise. Meanwhile another British column made a desperate attack on the fort, when the exasperated Drummond ordered his men to "give the Yankees no quarter" if the fort should be taken, and had actually stationed some Indians near to assist in the execution of the savage order. He obtained partial possession of the weak fort, and ordered his men to attack the garrison with pike and bayonet. Most of the officers and many of the men received deadly wounds. No quarter was given; but very soon the officer who gave the order was killed by the side of Lieutenant Macdonough, who had asked him for quarter, but was shot dead by him. The battle raged furiously a while longer. The British held the main bastion of the fort in spite of all efforts to dislodge them. Finally, just as the Americans were about to make a more furious attack, the bastion blew up with tremendous force. A column of flame, with fragments of timber, earth, stones, and the bodies of men, rose to the height of nearly two hundred feet in the air, and fell in a shower of ruins to a great distance around. This appalling explosion was followed by a gallant cannonade, when the British fled to their intrenchments, leaving on the field two hundred and twenty-one killed, one hundred and seven-

Nov. 8, 1824. Graduated at the Military School of Carlsruhe; entered the Baden service, but resigned in 1848, when he became a champion of German unity and republicanism. The Revolutionary government appointed him Secretary of War. At the head of a beaten and dispirited force, after a defeat by the Prince of Prussia, he made a skilful retreat within the walls of the fortress of Rastadt. Upon the flight of the provisional government, in July, Sigel withdrew to

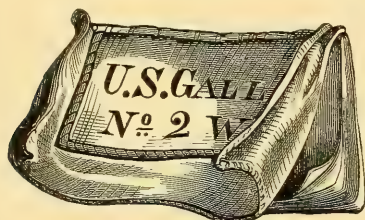


FRANZ SIGEL.

Switzerland, and, being expelled by the Swiss government, he came to New York in 1850; taught mathematics, interested himself in the state militia, became major of a regiment, and

in September, 1858, he removed to St. Louis, and became teacher in a college there. When the Civil War broke out he became colonel of a regiment of Missouri volunteers, assisted Lyon in the capture of Camp Jackson (which see), and afterwards did signal service in southwestern Missouri, at Carthage (which see), Wilson's Creek, and Springfield (which see). Made a brigadier-general, he commanded a division in Frémont's army. In command of a division, early in 1862, he bore a conspicuous part in the battle of Pea Ridge (which see). Made a major-general, he was placed in command at Harper's Ferry in June, 1862, and late in that month he succeeded to the command of Frémont's army corps, and served through the campaign in Virginia under Pope. In September he was placed at the head of the Eleventh Army Corps. Early in 1864 he was put in command of the Department of West Virginia. Defeated by Breckinridge at New Market (which see), he was relieved of command by General Hunter. He performed some other military service on the Upper Potomac. In 1871 he was elected Register of the City and County of New York.

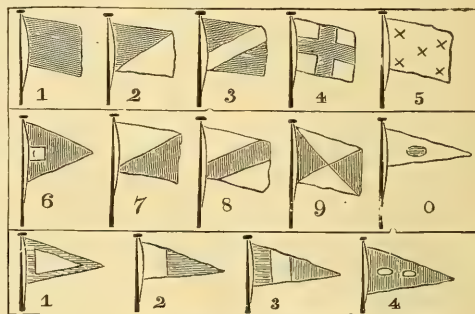
Signals were used in the navies of Greece and Carthage, and were not unlike those used in our present military and naval service. A regular code of day and night signals was arranged by Admirals Howe and Kempenfelt about 1790, and



SIGNAL-BOOK.

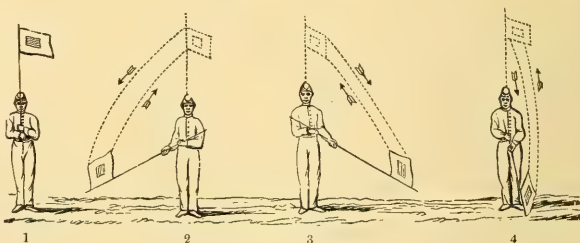
in 1812 Captain Rodgers, of the United States Navy, arranged an admirable signal system for its use. This consisted of flags of various forms and colors, to be displayed in different positions, so as to indicate words or sentences to be transmitted long distances. The signal-officers at each terminus have a key which interprets the message. That key is a "signal-book," which, when in actual service, is covered with canvas, in which is a plate of lead or sink the book in case a vessel is about to strike her colors. As each nation has its peculiar "signal-books," this precaution is necessary, so as not to have the secret of one revealed to the other. Certain flags indicate certain numbers, from 1 to 9; and these numerals, by combination, indicate sentences which are given in the key by corresponding numbers. The pennants represent *duplicate*. In the engraving here given (No. 1) are nine different flags, with their numbers, and four pennants. With these

flags and pennants about 100,000 different signals may be given. A frequent change in the arrangement of signal-flags is necessary for obvious reasons. The code of signals used in the United States Navy just previous to the late Civil War was proposed by a board of naval officers, and adopted by the Navy



SIGNALS.—No. 1.

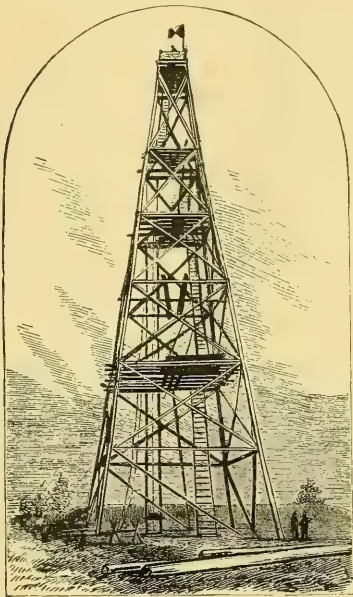
Department in 1857. Another board, in 1859 tested and approved a system of night-signals invented by B. F. Coston, of the United States Navy; and in October, 1861, these signals were adopted in the United States Army. A new system of signals, for both the army and navy, was invented by Major (afterwards General) Albert J. Myer, which was in use in both branches of the service, night and day, on land and on water, during the Civil War. It is so simple and flexible that it may be used through the medium of sounds, forms, colors, and motions, all of which are regulated and understood by a code. The engraving below (No. 2) shows the method of signalling with flags by day, and with torches by night, by motions, each motion indicating words or sentences. The arrows show the direction of the motion. The position of figure 1 (flag-signals) indicates "make ready;" figure 4, the numeral "3;" figure 3, the numeral "2;" and figure 2, the numeral "1." These, combined, make the number 321. Its corresponding number in the key gives a sentence—for example, "The brigade has moved;" or, "Two steamers



DAY SIGNALS BY FLAGS.—No. 2.

are in sight." During the Civil War signal-towers were erected for temporary use. The one delineated on the next page was at Point of Rocks, on the Appomattox, and was one hundred and twenty-five feet in height. From its top the writer (in 1864) saw the spires of

Richmond, nearly twenty miles distant. It was built of pine timber.



SIGNAL-TOWER.

Signers of the Declaration of Independence. New Hampshire—Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton; Massachusetts—John Hancock, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry; Rhode Island—Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery; Connecticut—Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott; New York—William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris; New Jersey—Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark; Pennsylvania—Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross; Delaware—Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas McKean; Maryland—Samuel Chase, Thomas Stone, William Paca, Charles Carroll of Carrollton; Virginia—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton; North Carolina—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn; South Carolina—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton; Georgia—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton. In the group of portraits on page 1292 are included all of whom any portrait has been obtainable. The name of each will be found attached, excepting those included in the wreath, in the centre. They are the members of the committee appointed to draft the Declaration. On the right hand is Franklin; next to him is Jefferson; then Sherman, then Adams, and behind is seen Robert R. Livingston. These are from Trumbull's pictures, and show them all as younger men than they are usually represented

in portraits. The fac-similes of the signatures given on pages 1293 and 1294 were carefully copied from the original document.

Signers of the National Constitution. George Washington (President), of Virginia; John Langdon and Nicholas Gilman, of New Hampshire; Nathaniel Gorham and Rufus King, of Massachusetts; William Samuel Johnson and Roger Sherman, of Connecticut; Alexander Hamilton, of New York; William Livingston, David Brearley, William Paterson, and Jonathan Dayton, of New Jersey; Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Thomas Fitzsimons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, and Gouverneur Morris, of Pennsylvania; George Read, Gunning Bedford, Jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, and Jacob Broom, of Delaware; James McHenry, Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer, and Daniel Carroll, of Maryland; John Blair and James Madison, of Virginia; William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, and Hugh Williamson, of North Carolina; John Rutledge, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Charles Pinckney, and Pierce Butler, of South Carolina; William Few and Abraham Baldwin, of Georgia. Only Edmund Randolph and George Mason, of Virginia, and Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, refused to sign. (See *Federal Convention*, and page 472 for fac-similes of their signatures.)

Silk-culture and Manufactures. James I. tried to establish the silk-culture in the American colonies, but failed. He sent silk-worms to Virginia and offered a bounty for silk cloth manufactured there; but the planters found the cultivation of tobacco more profitable. Some silk fabric was sent to Charles II. in 1668. Early in the last century it was introduced into Louisiana, and the industry was also undertaken in Georgia. In 1734 Oglethorpe took eight pounds of cocoons with him to England. Sir Thomas Lombe manufactured it into organzine, of which Queen Caroline had a gown made in which she appeared at a court levee on her husband's birthday. The business became considerable, but finally declined, and the last lot of Georgia silk offered for sale was in 1790. Before the Revolution, silk was grown and manufactured in New England. Governor Law, of Connecticut, wore a silk coat and stockings of New England production in 1747, and three years afterwards his daughter wore the first silk dress of New England manufacture. A silk-manufactory was established at Mansfield, Conn., in 1776, where the manufacture is yet carried on. The Legislature incorporated a silk-manufacturing company in 1788, and the same year President Stiles, of Yale College, appeared at "commencement" in a gown woven from Connecticut silk. After that the silk-culture and silk-manufacture were carried on in different parts of the Northern and Eastern States, and were fostered by legislative action. About 1836 to 1839 there was a mania for the cultivation of silk and of the *Morus multicaulis*, or mulberry-tree, on which the caterpillar feeds. As high as \$100 were paid for a single plant. The bubble soon burst, but the silk



PORTRAITS OF THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

John Hancock
 Sam^l Adams Elih. Livingston
 Rob^t Treat Paine W^m Lloyd
 John Adams Fran.^s Lewis
 Elbridge Gerry
 Josiah Bartlett Rich^d Stockton
 Sam^l Huntington
 Ste^p Hopkins John Hart
 Abra^m Clark Lewis Morris
 John Morton
 Matthew Thornton
 Roger Sherman John Penn
 W^m Whipple Jas^o Witherspoon
 William Ellery W^m Hooper
 Oliver Wolcott Rob^t Morris
 Ben^j Franklin W^m Williams
 Wm. Paca
 Tra^s Hopkinson Tho^s Stone
 Charles Carroll of Carrollton

Th Jefferson Geo Taylor
 Edward Rutledge Joseph Hewes
 Jas Smith Geo Ross
 Geo Lymer Tho M. Kean
 Bullon Gwinnett Geo Keed
 James Wilson
 Thomas Lynch Jun^r
 Samuel Chas George Wythe
 Benjamin Rush Lyman Hall
 Richard Henry Lee
 Arthur Middleton Tho Nelson
 Casar Rodney Carter Braxton
 Meny Harrison Geo Walton
 Francis Lightfoot Lee
 Tho Beyward Jun^r

culture and manufacture have gone on moderately ever since. There were in 1880 in the United States 152 silk-manufacturing establishments, and the value of the annual product was over \$34,000,000.

Sillery, BATTLE NEAR. After the fall of Quebec (September, 1759) the French army repaired to Montreal. M. de Levi, who succeeded Montcalm, resolved to attempt the recovery of Quebec in the spring of 1760. He went down the St. Lawrence in April with a large force marching by land, and artillery, military stores, and baggage in boats, under convoy of six frigates, and rested at Pointe au Trembles, a few miles above Quebec. At the latter place General Murray had been left with 5000 troops to maintain the conquest of Canada, but sickness and priva-

tion had reduced the effective force of the garrison to about 3000. With this force he went out (April 28, 1760) to meet the approaching foe. Near Sillery, about three miles above Quebec, he attacked the French with great impetuosity. After a severe struggle, finding himself outflanked and in danger of being surrounded by superior numbers, he retreated to the city. In that encounter the English lost 1000 men, the French still more. Then the English were besieged by the French. At about the middle of May a British fleet arrived at Quebec, and M. de Levi was compelled to abandon the siege and fly in haste back to Montreal.

Silliman, BENJAMIN, LL.D., was born at North Stratford, Conn., Aug. 8, 1779; died in New Haven, Nov. 24, 1864. He graduated at Yale Col-

lege in 1796, and was a tutor there from 1799 to 1804. He studied law and was admitted to practice in 1802, but in that year he was appointed professor of chemistry in Yale, then a science in its infancy, comparatively, in the United States. After studying the science with Dr. Woodhouse for the next two years, he gave, in the winter of 1804-5, his first full course of lectures, and soon afterwards went to England, visiting the mining districts there and attending lectures in London and Edinburgh. He also visited Holland, and published an account of his European experiences. He made a partial geological survey of Connecticut after his return, which is believed to be the first of such explorations made in the United States. In 1813 he published an account of his experiments with the oxyhydrogen blow-pipe of Dr. Hare, by which he (Silliman) had greatly extended the list of bodies known to be fusible. He founded the *American Journal of Science and Art* in 1810, of which for twenty-eight years he was an editor, and twenty years of that time sole editor. His son, Benjamin Silliman, Jr., became associate editor in 1838, and in 1846 the editorship was transferred to Professors J. D. Dana and Benjamin Silliman, Jr. Besides giving lectures on chemistry and geology in most of the large cities of the Union, Professor Silliman published scientific essays, a text-book on chemistry, and books of travel. In 1820 his *Account of a Journey between Hartford and Quebec* attracted much attention. In 1853 he resigned his professorship in Yale and was made Professor Emeritus.

Silliman, BENJAMIN, JR., M.D., son of the preceding, was born in New Haven, Conn., Dec. 4, 1816, and graduated at Yale College in 1837. From 1838 to 1847 he was instructor in that institution in chemistry, mineralogy, and geology. In 1846 he was appointed professor of chemistry applied to the arts, in the scientific school of the college. For about five years (1849-54) he was professor of medical chemistry and toxicology in the University of Louisville, Ky. In 1854 he succeeded his father in the chair of chemistry at Yale. The younger Silliman bore well the mantle of his father in all departments of learning. He died in 1885.

Silver Dollar, THE. Among the coins to be struck at the United States Mint (which see) under the provisions of the act approved April 2, 1792, was a silver dollar of the weight of 416 grains. It was enacted that all silver coins of the United States should be 1485 parts fine to 179 parts alloy; the former to be of pure silver and the latter of pure copper. The silver dollar was not coined until 1794. It was adorned with a beautiful head of Liberty, which, in its execution, has never been surpassed. These dollars continued to be coined at the Mint until the close of the year 1803, when their coinage was stopped, it is said, by President Jefferson, because it stimulated the exportation of silver from the country. Yet during the years 1804-5 there were issued from the Mint silver dollars of the coinage of former years to the amount of \$19,891. The dies had been prepared for issuing

the dollar of 1804, but not more than twenty pieces were struck. These are held in the most sacred reverence by the few fortunate collectors of coins who possess them. Because of the cessation in the coinage of the silver dollar, there was a steady increase in the coinage of the half-dollar and other fractions of the dollar until 1834, when \$3,260,000 in halves were coined and issued. And yet the public demand for a metallic currency so continually increased that Congress passed an act (Jan. 25, 1834) making the dollars of Mexico, Peru, Chili, and Central America, of a given weight and certain fineness, a legal tender in payment of debts. The object was, as we were not then silver-producers, to economize the importation and use of the silver of other countries. The act approved June 28, 1834, left the silver dollar at its original weight and fineness; but in 1837 there was a radical change made by act approved Jan. 18, 1837. The change was in the fineness of both the gold and the silver coins. By increasing the fineness, a corresponding decrease in the weight of each piece was effected. The standard thus established in both the gold and the silver coins was to make each to consist of 1000 parts, of which 900 parts were to be pure gold or silver and 100 parts pure copper alloy. Under this act the silver dollar was reduced from 416 grains to 412½ grains. The decreased weight in the dollar of 1837 was caused by decreasing the weight of the copper alloy. For more than a year the authorities of the Mint were preparing dies for the new dollar, and a few pattern-dollars were struck. Several devices were abandoned, and a sitting figure of Liberty was adopted, the same as we have now. In 1840 the Mint coined 61,000 of the new design of the silver dollar. There was no popular demand for this coin; but the dollar was issued from the Mint from time to time until April 1, 1873, when the dollar of 1792 and 1837 ceased to have a place in our national coinage, the issue having been discontinued by act of Congress passed Feb. 12, 1873. The trade-dollar, weighing 420 grains, and 900 fine, contained 7½ grains more than the dollar of 1837. It was not intended for circulation at home, but for trade with Japan and other Eastern countries. The object of issuing it was to compete, if possible, with the dollars of Mexico and Old Spain, and to encourage the shipment of our silver to the East Indies, for we had suddenly become a silver-producing people. In 1878 an act was passed providing for the coinage of a silver dollar weighing 412.5 grains, and declaring the trade-dollar not a legal tender for any sum. The latter almost immediately disappeared from circulation. The silver dollar which took its place was placed legally on an equality with gold. The unpopularity of the old silver dollar is made manifest by the fact that of the total silver coinage of \$145,141,884, issued between 1794 and 1873, only \$8,045,835 were in dollar pieces. A large portion of these were issued for manufacturers. But of the new silver dollar the total coinage in the year 1890 was \$380,988,466, and of this amount 56,278,749 dollar pieces were in actual circulation.

Simcoe, JOHN GRAVES, was born near Exeter, England, Feb. 25, 1752; died at Torbay, Oct. 26, 1806. He entered the army in 1770; came to America with a company of foot, with which he fought in the battles of Brandywine and Monmouth (which see). He raised a battalion which he called "The Queen's Rangers," disciplined them for light and active service, and with them performed important services, especially in the South. In June, 1779, Clinton gave him the local rank of lieutenant-colonel. His light corps was always in advance of the army and engaged in gallant exploits. His corps was disbanded after the war, and its officers were placed on half-pay. Simcoe was governor of Canada (1791-94). He was made major-general in 1794, and lieutenant-general in 1798. He was governor and commander-in-chief of Santo Domingo in 1796-97.

Simmons, FRANKLIN, American sculptor, was born in the State of Maine in 1841, and passed his boyhood on the banks of the Kennebec. Early in life he showed a passionate love for art, and during his college career spent much time in drawing and modelling. It was not until he had made his first visit to Boston that he saw a statue or had any idea of the art of sculpture, there being, at that time, few examples in New England. On leaving college, having made some portrait-busts with success, he decided to devote himself to sculpture. The Civil War now burst upon the country, and Mr. Simmons sought the field of operations, not as a soldier, but as a commemorator of the leading soldiers and statesmen of the day. During several years spent in Philadelphia and Washington, some thirty generals and statesmen sat to him for their busts, among them Lincoln, Grant, Sheridan, Meade, Seward, and Chase, which gave great satisfaction. Having received a commission from the State of Rhode Island to make a statue of Roger Williams for the Capitol at Washington, he went to Rome, where he has since resided. He has also made for the national Capitol a statue of William King, of Maine; a second statue of Williams for a monument in the city of Providence, R. I.; an ideal statue of the Mother of Moses; Abdiel, the Israelite Woman; Viewing the Promised Land; the Hymn of Praise, and others.

Simpson, JAMES H., was born in New Jersey, about 1812, and graduated at West Point in 1832, entering the artillery corps. He was aid to General Eustis in the Seminole War, and in 1838 became a lieutenant in the corps of topographical engineers. He was colonel of a New Jersey volunteer regiment in the Pensacola campaign, and was afterwards chief engineer of the Department of the Ohio. In March, 1865, he was breveted brigadier-general in the United States Army. Having been on surveying expeditions in the West, he published a *Journal of a Military Reconnaissance from Santa Fé to the Navajo Country*, and a *Report on the Union Pacific Railroad and its Branches*.

Sinking-fund, THE FIRST NATIONAL. Everything was done by the first Congress that could be to raise and sustain the public credit. For

this purpose a sinking-fund for the reduction of the public debt was provided for. The Funding Act (see *Hamilton's Report on the Finances*) required the interest on the public debt to be converted into capital. This left a considerable unappropriated sum to accumulate in the national Treasury. Congress provided that all the surplus in the Treasury on the last day of December (1790), after payment of the appropriations of the current session, should be applied to the reduction of the public debt. This sum, with \$2,000,000 more which the President was authorized to borrow, was made to constitute a fund to be employed under the management of a board composed of the Chief-justice, the President of the Senate, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Attorney-general, in the purchase of the securities of the United States at their market value, if not above par. The securities so purchased were to be vested in the board, and the interest thereon, by the provisions of a subsequent act, was to be applied to the purchase of further securities, with a reserve, however, towards the discharge of the borrowed \$2,000,000, principal and interest. This measure was intended to raise the stock market so as to prevent the transfer of securities to Europe at depreciated rates.

Sioux. (See *Dakotas, or Sioux*.)

Sitting Bull, WAR WITH THE SIOUX UNDER. A region known as the "Black Hills," in portions of Dakota and Wyoming territories, had been set apart by the government as a reservation for the use of the powerful and warlike Sioux Indians, who could muster ten thousand warriors if their entire strength should be put forth. The region had been reported as one of great attraction in floral beauty and wealth in the precious metals. The cupidity of the white people was excited, and very soon prospecting miners appeared in that domain. Taught by experience, the Indians beheld these intruders as harbingers of dispossession, and the jealousy of the barbarians was aroused. Their suspicions were well founded, for at the close of 1874 a bill was introduced into Congress which provided for the extinguishment of the Indian title to so much of the Black Hills reservation as lay within the Territory of Dakota. Six companies of cavalry and two of infantry escorted a surveying-party to that region. The Indians prepared for war to defend their rightful domain. So threatening was the aspect of affairs there that at the beginning of 1876 a strong military force was sent into the region of the Yellowstone, in Montana Territory and the adjoining regions, to watch the movements of the armed barbarians. A campaign was organized against them a little later, under the command of General Alfred H. Terry. It moved in three columns, under the immediate command of Generals Terry, Crook, and Gibbon. General George A. Custer was sent across the country from the Missouri to the Yellowstone to drive the Indians towards Gibbon's column, while Crook was to scout the Black Hills and drive out any hostile Sioux that might be found there. After some skir-

mishing at different points, Custer discovered an immense Indian camp on a plain. In his eagerness he attacked them without waiting for other forces to come up, according to positive orders. A terrible struggle ensued (June 25, 1876) between Custer's three hundred men (the rest of his command was at another point) and five times as many Indians commanded by Sitting Bull, an educated, bold, and skilful chief. Custer and almost his entire command were slain. Sitting Bull and his followers withdrew to the British Possessions. They returned in 1880. In the troubles which arose among the Sioux Indians in 1890, Sitting Bull was active in encouraging hostilities. On December 15, he was arrested in his camp by an Indian police, and in the struggle which followed he was killed. (See *Supplement*, article *Sioux Outbreak*.)

Six Nations. The Five Nations—Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas—were joined by their Southern brethren, the Tuscaroras, after the latter were signally defeated by the Carolinians in 1712. They came North in 1714, and after that the confederacy was known as the Six Nations. (See *Iroquois Confederacy*.)

Six Nations, DEPREDACTIONS OF THE. The Senecas and the Tories among them, who had taken refuge at Fort Niagara, continued depredations on the frontiers of civilized New York and Pennsylvania. The Onondagas professed neutrality, but it was believed they shared in the hostilities of the Senecas. To chastise them for their suspected perfidy, a detachment was sent out from Fort Stanwix (which see), which smote them suddenly and destroyed their villages. The Indians retaliated by devastating the settlements in Schoharie County and the western border of Ulster County, N. Y. The Pennsylvania frontier, particularly in the vicinity of Pittsburgh, was exposed to similar assaults from the barbarians of western New York. A grand campaign against the hostile Six Nations was now planned, and the expedition was led by General Sullivan. (See *Sullivan's Campaign*.)

Six Nations, TREATIES WITH THE. This confederacy had always claimed and enjoyed the right of free passage through the great valley west of the Blue Ridge. Some backwoodsmen of Virginia had penetrated that valley, and, in 1743, came into collision with the Iroquois. War with the French was then threatened, and hostilities between any of the colonists and the Six Nations, at that juncture, might be perilous. Governor Clinton, of New York, hastened to secure the firm friendship of the confederacy by liberal presents, for which purpose, in conjunction with commissioners from New England, he held a meeting at Albany in June. The commissioners proposed an association of the five Northern colonies for mutual defence; but the Assembly of New York, hoping to secure the same neutrality enjoyed during the previous war, declined the proposition. The next year the difficulties between the Six Nations and the Virginians were settled by a treaty concluded at

Lancaster (July 2, 1744), to which Pennsylvania and Maryland were parties. By the terms of this treaty, in consideration of \$2000, the Iroquois relinquished all title to the valley between the Blue Ridge and the central chain of the Alleghany Mountains. The lands in Maryland were, in like manner, transferred to Lord Baltimore, but with definite limits. By the deed to Virginia, the claim of that colony was extended indefinitely in the West and Northwest.

Sixteenth Amendment Proposed. In his annual message, in December, 1875, President Grant recommended an amendment of the Constitution to secure the public schools from sectarian influence. Mr. Blaine offered a joint resolution to that effect in the House of Representatives. It was passed by the House by an almost unanimous vote. Carried to the Senate, it lay undisturbed several months, when Senator Frelinghuysen moved (Aug. 7, 1876) that it be referred to the Judiciary Committee. A substitute was submitted by that committee, embodying the substance of Mr. Blaine's proposition. Meanwhile, certain religionists had raised a clamor against it outside of Congress that had an effect on one of the political parties; and this amendment to more effectually separate the Church and State was defeated in the Senate by a strict party vote—twenty-eight Republicans to sixteen Democrats—the votes of two thirds being necessary to carry the measure.

Skene, PHILIP, entered the British army in 1739, and served against Porto Bello and Carthagena; also in Great Britain in the Rebellion of 1745. He came to America in 1756, and was wounded in the attack on Ticonderoga. He was afterwards placed in command at Crown Point, and projected a settlement at the head of Lake Champlain, on the site of Whitehall. In the storming of Morro Castle (1762) he was one of the first to enter the breach. His settlement at the head of Lake Champlain was called Skenesborough, and in 1770 he made his residence there. Adhering to the crown, he was arrested in Philadelphia, but was exchanged in 1776. He accompanied Burgoyne's expedition, and was with the British force defeated at Bennington. He was taken prisoner at Saratoga. The Legislature confiscated his property in 1779. He died in Bucks, Eng., Oct. 9, 1810.

Skenesborough and St. John, CAPTURE OF (1775). After the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, Arnold was joined by about fifty recruits, who had seized a schooner and some canons, with several prisoners, at Skenesborough (now Whitehall), at the head of Lake Champlain. [This place was founded by Colonel Philip Skene, a British officer, who was then in England soliciting the command of Ticonderoga.] In the captured schooner Arnold went down the lake, entered the Sorel River (its outlet), and, capturing an armed vessel and some valuable stores there, returned with them to Crown Point. A superior force at Montreal compelled Arnold to abandon St. John.

Skinner, CORTLANDT, loyalist, was grandson of Stephen Van Cortlandt, of Van Cortlandt's

Manor, N. Y. In 1775 he was attorney-general of New Jersey. He organized three battalions of loyalists, called "New Jersey Volunteers." He went to England after the war, where he received compensation for losses as a loyalist. He died at Bristol, Eng., in 1799, aged 71 years.

Skimmers. A predatory band in the old war for independence who professed to be Whigs, who plundered the Tory families living on the Neutral Ground, in Westchester County, N. Y., between the British and American lines. They were not very scrupulous in their choice of victims, plunder being their chief aim. (See *Cowboys*.)

Skrælings. The name given by the Northmen (which see) to the Esquimaux, in contempt, as it implies chips or dwarfs. Thorwald, a successor of Lief, in a voyage to America, spoke of finding Skrælings, who, because of a grave offence committed by the Northmen, attacked that navigator and his followers and compelled them to leave the beautiful country where they intended to settle. Thorwald was mortally wounded during the fray and was buried on the shore. Did the Esquimaux occupy the shores of Massachusetts before the Indians found by post-Columbus Europeans occupied that land? The boats engaged in the attack on the Northmen were made of skins, like those used by the Esquimaux now.

Slater, SAMUEL, cotton manufacturer, was born at Belper, Derbyshire, Eng., June 9, 1768; died at Webster, Mass., April 20, 1835. He was apprenticed to cotton-spinning under Strutt, partner of Arkwright, the great inventor of spinning machinery. One of the first acts of the national Congress in 1789 was for the encouragement of American manufactures, and the Legislature of Pennsylvania offered a bounty for the introduction of the Arkwright patents. Young Slater was a favorite of his master, aiding him, with his inventive genius, in making improvements in his mills. He heard of the action of the Pennsylvanians, and believed that his thorough mastery of Arkwright's machinery would enable him to build a machine without models or drawings. When his apprenticeship had ended he hastened to America with the treasures of his brain. He landed in New York in November, 1789. Heavy penalties deterred any one from making a model, or drawing, and sending it out of the country. Slater accidentally learned that Moses Brown, of Rhode Island, had made some attempts at cotton-spinning by machinery there. He wrote to Mr. Brown, informing him of what he could do. "If thou canst do this thing," wrote the earnest manufacturer, "I invite thee to come to Rhode Island and have the credit and the profit of introducing cotton-manufacture into America." Slater went, and, with the aid of the Brown family, succeeded in producing machinery, by the close of 1790, that made cotton-yarn equal in quality to the best then made in England.

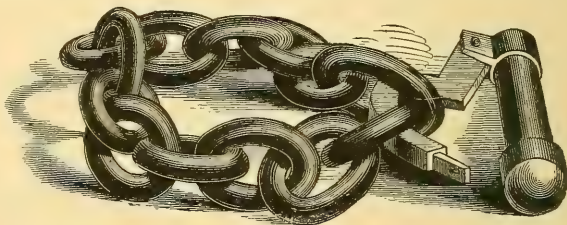
Slater secured both the "credit and the profit" of introducing cotton-manufacture into the United States. And this enterprising man, within six years, had many persons at work for him, and established a Sabbath-school for



SAMUEL SLATER.

the benefit of these and their children. His first mill was set up at Pawtucket. In 1812 he began the building of mills at Oxford (now Webster), and there grew up a large establishment.

Slave-chain in Maryland. THE LAST. Slavery was abolished in Maryland Oct. 13, 1864, when the people of that state ratified a new state constitution that guaranteed freedom for all persons. Evil-disposed slaveholders tried to evade the law. A Freedmen's Bureau was established in Maryland in November, and all persons within the limits of the Middle Department who had been slaves but made free were placed under special military protection. General Lew. Wallace, in command of the Department, liter-



LAST SLAVE-CHAIN IN MARYLAND.

ally removed the last slave-chain in the state. That slave was a young girl, nineteen years of age, named Margaret Toogood. She had left her former master on gaining her freedom and gone to Baltimore. That master procured her arrest on a charge of theft. She was taken back, when he withdrew the charge, his object being accomplished in getting her into his possession. To prevent her going away again he put an iron chain about her neck and fastened it with a rude clasp, which a blacksmith had prepared. Hearing of this, Wallace ordered the girl to be brought to Baltimore, where, in the office of the provost-marshal, the

chain was removed. It was made of rough iron, its links being two inches in length, and its entire weight, with the clasp, was nearly four pounds. The girl had worn this horrible neck-lace seven weeks.

Slave-Laws, FIRST, IN MARYLAND. In 1663 the Maryland Legislature enacted a law that "all negroes and other slaves within the province, and all negroes and other slaves to be thereafter imported into the province, should serve during life; and all children born of any negro should be slaves, as their fathers were, for the term of their lives." The same law recited that "divers free-born Englishwomen, forgetful of their free condition, and to the disgrace of the nation, did intermarry with negro slaves," and it was enacted for deterring from such "shameful matches" that, during their husbands' lives, white women so intermarrying should be servants to the masters of their husbands, and that the issue of such marriages should be slaves for life.

Slave-Laws, FIRST, IN VIRGINIA. In 1662 the Virginia Assembly passed a law that children should be held, bond or free, "according to the condition of the mother." This was to meet the case of mulatto children, born of black mothers, in the colony. It was thought right to hold heathen Africans in slavery; but, as mulattoes must be part Christians, a knotty question came up, for the English law in relation to serfdom declared the condition of the child must be determined by that of the father. The Virginia law opposed this doctrine in favor of the slaveholders. Some of the negroes brought into Virginia were converted to Christianity and baptized. The question was raised, Is it lawful to hold Christians as slaves? The General Assembly came to the relief of the slaveholders by enacting a law that slaves, though converted and baptized, should not therefore become free. It was also enacted that killing a slave by his master by "extreme correction" should not be esteemed a felony, since it might not be presumed that "malice prepense" would "induce any man to destroy his own estate." It was also enacted, as an evasion of the statute prohibiting the holding of Indians as slaves, "that all servants, not being Christians, imported by shipping, shall be slaves for life." Indian slaves, under this law, were imported from New England and the West Indies. Freed slaves were now subjected to civil disabilities.

Slave-Laws in Maryland. In 1681 the Legislature of Maryland passed a new act to remedy the evils of intermarrying of whites and blacks. The preamble recited that such matches were often brought about by the instigation or connivance of the master or mistress, who took advantage of the former law to prolong the servitude of their white feminine servants, and at the same time to raise up a brood of mulatto slaves. The new law enacted that all white feminine servants intermarrying with negro slaves were free, at once, after the nuptials, and their children also; and that the minister celebrating and the master or mistress promot-

ing or conniving at such marriages, were subject to a fine of ten thousand pounds of tobacco.

Slave-Laws in Virginia. In 1682 the slave code received additions. It was enacted that runaways who refused to be arrested might be lawfully killed. Slaves were forbidden to carry arms, offensive or defensive, or to go off the plantations of their masters without a written pass, or to lift a hand against a Christian, even in self-defence. The condition of slavery was imposed upon all servants, whether "negroes, Moors, mulattoes, or Indians, brought into the colony by sea or land, whether converted to Christianity or not, provided they were not of Christian parentage or country, or, if Turks or Moors, in amity with his majesty."

Slavery, ABOLITION OF, IN NEW JERSEY. On Feb. 15, 1804, the Legislature of New Jersey, by an almost unanimous vote, passed an act to abolish slavery in that state by securing freedom to all persons born there after the 4th of July next ensuing, the children of slave parents to become free, masculine at twenty-five years of age, feminine at twenty-one.

Slavery, ABOLITION OF, IN NEW YORK. The Legislature of the State of New York, sitting at Albany, enacted a law in April, 1799, for the gradual abolition of slavery within its domains. Those who were slaves at the passage of the act were to continue so for life. All their children born after the 4th of July then following were to be free, but were to remain with the owner, the masculine until they were twenty-eight years of age and the feminine until they were twenty-five. The exportation of slaves was forbidden, under a pecuniary punishment, the slave upon whom the attempt should be made to become free at once. Persons settling in the state might bring slaves with them whom they had owned for a year previously, but slaves so brought in could not be sold.

Slavery Forced upon Virginia. The statesmen and leading inhabitants of Virginia had long sought a way to rid the colony of the curse of negro slavery by passing laws restraining the importation of negroes from Africa; but these laws were disallowed by the crown, for the traffic was profitable to England. The king in council, on Dec. 10, 1770, issued an instruction, under his own hand, commanding the Governor of Virginia, "upon pain of the highest displeasure, to assent to no law by which the importation of slaves should be in any respect prohibited or obstructed." In 1772 the Virginia Assembly earnestly discussed the question, "How shall we get rid of the great evil?" Jefferson, Henry, Lee, and other leading men anxiously desired to rid the colony of the evil. "The interest of the country," it was said, "manifestly requires the total expulsion of them." The Assembly finally resolved to address the king himself on the subject, who, in council, had cruelly compelled the toleration of the traffic. They pleaded with him to remove all restraints upon their efforts to stop the importation of slaves, which they called "a very pernicious commerce." In this matter Virginia represented

the sentiments of all the colonies, and the king knew it; but the monarch "stood in the path of humanity and made himself the pillar of the colonial slave-trade." Ashamed to reject the earnest and solemn appeal of the Virginians, he evaded a reply. The conduct of the king caused Jefferson to write as follows in his first draft of the Declaration of Independence: "He has waged cruel war against human nature itself, violating its most sacred rights of life and liberty in the persons of a distant people who never offended him, capturing and carrying them into slavery in another hemisphere, or to incur a miserable death in their transportation thither. This piratical warfare, the opprobrium of infidel powers, is the warfare of the *Christian King of Great Britain*. Determined to keep open a market where MEN should be bought and sold, he has prostituted his negative for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or to restrain this execrable commerce." This paragraph was stricken out of the Declaration of Independence before the committee submitted it to a vote of the Congress.

Slavery (African) in America. Slavery was first introduced into the Spanish colonies in the West Indies, and was begun within the domain of the United States in 1619, when a Dutch trader sold twenty negroes to the Virginia settlers. It was not only sanctioned, but promoted, by the English government, as it had been by the Spanish and Portuguese governments for a hundred years before. Ferdinand of Spain, in 1513, issued a decree, contrary to the known feelings of his dead queen, Isabella, "that the servitude of the Indians in America is warranted by the laws of God and man." And two hundred years afterwards a British queen and Spanish monarch were equal partners in a company in carrying on the slave traffic. (See *Slave-trade in America*.) An English attorney-general had given an official opinion fifty years before, that negroes, being *pagans*, might justly be held in slavery, even in England; and this opinion was sustained by British courts until 1772, when Chief-justice Mansfield decided, in the famous Somerset case, that, by the law of England, no man could be held in slavery there. That judgment has never since been disturbed. The Trustees of the colony of Georgia at first prohibited slavery there, but finally permitted it; and when the war for independence broke out in 1775 all the colonies had slavery within their borders. At that time there were about seven hundred thousand slaves in the thirteen English-American colonies. A Georgia convention protested against the system in 1775; and in 1776 Jefferson, in the Declaration of Independence (drawn by him), pronounced against it, but the clause was stricken out. Many of his contemporary patriots were opposed to it, and desired to have the slave-trade forbidden by the national Constitution framed in 1787. The cotton-culture was made so profitable by Whitney's cotton-gin that slavery became a cherished institution in the cotton-growing states. It became overshadowing in our national politics. Anti-slavery societies were formed in the free-labor states

(see *Abolition Convention*), and violent sectional strife was aroused by the discussion of slavery from time to time, and legislation growing out of it. (See *Missouri Compromise* and *Fugitive Slave Law*.) It was the principal cause of the Civil War, during which—on Jan. 1, 1863—slavery was abolished in every state and territory of the Republic, where rebellion existed, by a proclamation issued by President Lincoln. About four million slaves were liberated by that proclamation.

Slavery in Connecticut. The Legislature of Connecticut, early in 1784, passed an act that no negro or mulatto child born within that state after the 1st day of March that year should be held in servitude longer than until the age of twenty-five years.

Slavery Introduced into Georgia. The unwise regulations of the Trustees of Georgia which crushed incentives to industry and thrift (see *Georgia, Colony of*), and other causes which exist in all new settlements, made that colony languish. The settlers saw the prosperity of their neighbors in South Carolina, and attributed the difference to the positive prohibition of slavery in Georgia. This became their leading grievance, and even Whitefield advocated the introduction of slavery, under the old (and later) pretence of propagating, in that way, Christianity among the heathen Africans. Habersham, too, advocated the introduction. "Many of the poor slaves in America," he wrote, "have already been made freemen of the heavenly Jerusalem." The Germans were assured by their friends in Germany of its harmlessness. Word came to them in 1749: "If you take slaves in faith and with the intent of conducting them to Christ, the action will not be a sin, but may prove a benediction." So it was that avarice subdued conscience. Already slaves had been introduced into Georgia from South Carolina as hired servants, under indentures for life, or for ninety-nine years; and at Savannah the continual toast was, "The one thing needful," which meant negro slaves. Leading men among the Scotch and Germans who opposed the introduction of slavery were threatened and persecuted. Under great pressure, the Trustees yielded, and slavery was introduced on the condition that all masters should be obliged to compel the negroes to "attend, at some time on the Lord's day, for instruction in the Christian religion." In 1752 the charter was surrendered to the crown, the colony had all the privileges accorded to others, and flourished. Slavery had really existed in Georgia for some time, under the false pretence of hiring slaves during their natural lives, and making them Christians, the planters there hiring negroes from South Carolina masters for the term of ninety-nine years.

Slavery of White People Decreed in Massachusetts. Lawrence and Cassandra Southwick were banished from the colony of Massachusetts in 1658, under penalty of death if they should return. Their crime was the embracing of the principles and mode of worship of the Quakers. Their two children remained behind in extreme poverty. They were fined for non-

attendance upon the public worship carried on by their persecutors. The magistrates insisted that the fine must be paid, and passed the following order: "Whereas, Daniel Southwick and Provided Southwick, son and daughter of Lawrence Southwick, absenting themselves from the public ordinances, having been fined by the courts of Salem and Ipswich, pretending they have no estates, and resolving not to work, the Court, upon perusal of a law which was made upon account of debts, in what should be done for the satisfaction of the fines, resolves, That the treasurers of the several counties are and shall be fully empowered to sell said persons to any of the English natives at Virginia or Barbadoes to answer the said fines." Endicott, it is said, urged the execution of the measure with vehemence; but, to the honor of the marine service, not a sea-captain in the port of Boston could be induced to become a slave-dealer to please the General Court. They were spared the usual brutal whipping of contumacious persons as a special mark of humanity.

Slavery Recognized by Law—in Virginia in 1620; in Massachusetts in 1641; in Connecticut and Rhode Island about 1650; in New York in 1656; in Maryland in 1663; in New Jersey in 1665. There were few slaves in Pennsylvania. Some were there so early as 1690, and were chiefly in Philadelphia. At about the same time a few appeared in Delaware, and in the Carolinas at the time of their settlement. By an evasion of law they were introduced into Georgia to some extent soon after its settlement; and in 1652, when it became a royal province, the institution was legalized.

Slaves, DUTY ON, PROPOSED. On May 12, 1789, the Tariff bill having been reported to Congress (see *Revenue System*), and being under discussion on the question of its second reading, Parker, of Virginia, moved to insert a clause imposing a duty of ten dollars on every slave imported. "He was sorry," he said, "the Constitution prevented Congress from prohibiting the importation altogether. It was contrary to revolutionary principles, and ought not to be permitted." A warm debate ensued. It called forth the opposition of South Carolinians and Georgians particularly. Jackson, of Georgia, made a vehement speech in opposition, in the course of which he said he hoped the proposition would be withdrawn, and that if it should be brought forward again it would comprehend "the white slaves as well as the black imported from all the jails of Europe—wretches convicted of the most flagrant crimes, who were brought in and sold without any duty whatever." This was not a fair allusion to the indentured white servants who were sold by the captains of vessels on their arrival here to pay the cost of their passage (see *Redemptioners*), a practice which had been put a stop to by the old war for independence, but partially revived. The motion was finally withdrawn.

Slaves, FIRST COMMERCE IN, IN AMERICA. A Flemish favorite of Charles V. of Spain obtained from that king a patent (1517) for sending four

thousand negroes annually to Santo Domingo, Cuba, Jamaica, and Porto Rico. He sold his patent to some Genoese merchants, who first made the slave-trade between Africa and America a regular commercial transaction.

Slaves in England. James Somerset, a negro slave of James Stewart, had been brought from Virginia to England, where he refused to serve his master any longer. Stewart caused him to be arrested and put on board a vessel to be conveyed to Jamaica. Being brought before Chief-justice Mansfield on a writ of *habeas corpus* (December, 1771), his case was referred to the full court, where it was argued for the slave by the great philanthropist, Granville Sharp. The decision would affect the estimated number of fourteen thousand slaves then with their masters in England, involving a loss to their owners of \$3,500,000. After a careful judicial investigation of the subject in its legal aspects, Chief-justice Mansfield gave the decision of the court that slavery was contrary to the laws of England—that slavery could not exist there. "Whatever inconveniences, therefore, may follow from the decision," he said, "I cannot say this case is allowed or approved by the law of England, and therefore the black must be discharged." How could the colonial assemblies, in the face of this decision, enact laws in favor of slavery, when they were restricted, either by charter or the royal commissions under which they met, to the enactment of laws "not repugnant to those of England?"

Slaves in New Netherland. The West India Company was largely engaged in the slave-trade, and during the administration of Stuyvesant a number of negroes were imported into New Netherland from Africa. Most of them, however, remained the property of the company. The more trusty and industrious, after a certain period of labor, were allowed small farms, paying, in lieu of all services, a stipulated amount of produce. This emancipation did not extend to the children, and so perpetual slavery was introduced. Slavery in New York was always of a mild type—a sort of patriarchal system.

Slaves in the Confederate Army. In his annual message to the Confederate Congress (Nov. 7, 1864), President Davis drew a gloomy picture of the condition of the Confederate finances and the military strength. He showed that the Confederate debt was \$1,200,000,000, without a real basis of credit, and a paper currency depreciated several hundred per cent. It had been recommended, as the enlistments and conscriptions of the white people failed to make up losses in the Confederate army, to arm the slaves; but this was considered too dangerous, for they would be more likely to fight for the Nationals than for the Confederates. Davis was averse to a general arming of the negroes, but he recommended the employment of forty thousand of them as pioneer and engineer laborers in the army, and not as soldiers, excepting in the last extremity. "Should the alternative ever be presented," he said, "of a subjugation, or the employment of the slave as a soldier,

there seems to be no reason to doubt what should then be the decision;" and he suggested the propriety of holding out to the negro, as an inducement for him to give faithful service, even as a laborer in the army, a promise of his emancipation at the end of the war. These propositions and suggestions disturbed the slaveholders, for they indicated an acknowledgment on the part of "the government" that the cause was reduced to the alternative of liberating the slaves and relying upon them to secure the independence of the Confederacy, or of absolute subjugation. There was wide-spread discontent; and when news of the re-election of Mr. Lincoln, by an unprecedented majority, reached the people, they lost hope, and yearned for peace rather than for independence.

Slave-trade. The question of prohibiting the African slave-trade by a provision in the national Constitution caused much and warm debate in the convention that framed that instrument. A compromise was agreed to by the insertion of a clause (article I., section 9, clause 1) in the Constitution, as follows: "The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight; but a tax, or duty, may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person." The idea of prohibiting the African slave-trade, then warmly advocated, was not new. In 1774 the Continental Congress, while releasing the colonies from other provisions of the American Association (which see), had expressly resolved "that no slave be imported into any of the United States." Delaware, by her constitution, and Virginia and Maryland by special laws, had prohibited the importation of slaves. Similar prohibitions were in force in all the more northern states; but they did not prevent the merchants of those states from carrying on the slave-trade elsewhere, and already some New England ships were engaged in a traffic from the African coast to Georgia and South Carolina. These states were forgetful of or indifferent to the pledges they had made through their delegates in the face of the world by their concurrence in the Declaration of Independence, and seemed fully determined to maintain not only the slave system of labor, but the nefarious slave-trade. North Carolina did not prohibit the traffic, but denounced the further importation of slaves into the state as "highly impolitic," and imposed a heavy duty on future importations.

Slave-trade, ABOLITION OF THE. In 1807 an act was passed for the abolition of the slave-trade on the first of January, 1808, the time fixed by the national Constitution. It imposed a fine of \$20,000 upon all persons concerned in fitting out any vessel for the slave-trade, with the forfeiture of the vessel; likewise a fine of \$5000, with forfeiture, also, of the vessel, for taking on board any negro, mulatto, or person of color in any foreign country, with the purpose of selling such person within the jurisdiction of the

United States as a slave. For actually transporting and selling as a slave any such person within the United States, the penalty was imprisonment for not less than five nor more than ten years, and a fine not to exceed \$10,000 nor less than \$1000. There were minor penalties for minor offences in the matter. Altogether the law was very stringent. The act was violently denounced by John Randolph of Virginia, as laying the axe at the root of all Southern property, and he asked leave to bring in an explanatory bill. "If this proposition shall be rejected," said Randolph, "I doubt if this House will ever again see any Southern delegate on this floor. I for one would say, let us secede at once, and go home." Leave was granted to the fiery Virginian. In its preamble his explanatory bill disavowed any right in Congress to abridge, modify, or affect the right of property in slaves not illegally imported into the United States. This referred to a provision in the act forbidding any vessel, less than forty tons burden, to take any slave on board except for transportation on the inland bays and rivers of the United States. The bill was referred in the usual way, and was not reached at that session. It slept forever, and yet the Union remained undissolved.

Slave-trade (African) in America. In 1562 John Hawkins, an English navigator, seeing the want of slaves in the West Indies, determined to enter upon the piratical traffic. Several London gentlemen contributed funds liberally for the enterprise. Three ships were provided, and with these and one hundred men Hawkins sailed to the coast of Guinea, where, by bribery, deception, treachery, and force, he procured at least three hundred negroes and sold them to the Spaniards in Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo, and returned to England with a rich freight of pearls, sugar, and ginger. The nation was shocked by the barbarous traffic, and the queen (Elizabeth) declared to Hawkins, that, "if any of the Africans were carried away without their own consent, it would be detestable, and call down the vengeance of heaven upon the undertakers." He satisfied the queen and continued the traffic, pretending, as all abettors of slavery have done, that it was for the good of the souls of the Africans, as it introduced them to Christianity and civilization. Already negro slaves had been introduced by the Spaniards into the West Indies. They first enslaved the natives, but these were unequal to the required toil, and they were soon almost extinguished by hard labor and cruelty. Charles V. of Spain granted a license to a Fleming to import four thousand negroes annually into the West Indies. He sold his license to Genoese merchants, who began a regular trade in human beings between Africa and the West Indies. These were found to thrive where the native laborers died. The benevolent Las Casas (see *Las Casas, Bartolome de*) and others favored the system as a means for saving the Indian tribes from destruction; and the trade was going on briskly when the English, under the influence of Hawkins, engaged in it in 1562. Ten years before a few negroes had been sold in England, and it is said that Queen Elizabeth's scru-

ples were so far removed that she shared in the profits of the traffic carried on by Englishmen. The Stuart kings of England chartered companies for the trade; and Charles II. and his brother James were members of one of them. After the revolution of 1688 the trade was thrown open, and in 1713 an English company obtained the privilege of supplying the Spanish colonies in America, South and Central, for thirty years, stipulating to deliver one hundred and forty-four thousand negro slaves within that period. One quarter of the stock of the company was taken by King Philip V. of Spain, and Queen Anné of England reserved for herself the other quarter. So the two monarchs became great slave-dealers. The first slaves were introduced into the English-American colonies by a Dutch trader, who, in 1619, sold twenty of them to the settlers at Jamestown, Va. After that the trade between North America and Africa was carried on quite vigorously; but some of the colonies remonstrated, and in the Continental Congress, and also in the public mind, there was a strong desire evinced to abolish the slave-trade. When the national Constitution was framed, Congress was prohibited from interfering with it under twenty years. Then it was denounced as piracy. The State of Georgia prohibited it in 1798. Feeble attempts were made just before the Civil War in America to reopen the trade. The inter-state slave-trade was carried on vigorously until the breaking-out of the Civil War. When the Confederate government threatened to cut off that trade with any slave-labor state that did not join their Confederacy, a Richmond journal urged Virginia to hasten to be annexed, because its people were receiving from thirteen to twenty million dollars annually from the sale of their slaves to the cotton-planters.

Slave-trade in Massachusetts. In 1788 the captain of a vessel in Boston seized three colored persons, took them to the West Indies, and sold them there for slaves. This event caused the Legislature of Massachusetts to pass a law to prevent the slave-trade in that state, and for granting relief to the families of such persons as may be kidnapped or decoyed from the commonwealth. The law subjected to a heavy penalty any person who should forcibly take or detain any negro for the purpose of transportation as a slave, and the owner of the vessel in which such kidnapped man should be carried away incurred, also, a heavy penalty. The insurance on the vessel was made void; and the relatives of the person kidnapped, if the latter were sold into slavery in a distant country, were allowed to prosecute for the crime.

Slave-trade in the United States Abolished. The national Constitution, Article I., section 9, clause 1, provided for the continuation of the slave-trade, by permission, until the year 1808. This was one of the "compromises of the Constitution"—a provision which, if denied, would have caused the rejection of that instrument by the convention that formed it. In 1807 Congress, by statute, forbade the importation of slaves after the 1st of January, 1808, and that

traffic was subsequently denominated *piracy* by an act of Congress in 1820.

Slave-trade Made Piracy. By an act of Congress passed in 1820, for the suppression of piracy, the name of "piracy" and the punishment of death was extended to the detention or transportation as a slave, in any vessel, of any negro or mulatto "not held to service under the laws of some one of the states."

Slave-trade Reopened. By a provision of the national Constitution the foreign slave-trade in the United States was abolished, and Congress declared it to be "piracy." Encouraged by the practical sympathy of the national government, the friends of the slave-labor system formed plans for its perpetuity, which practically disregarded the plain requirements of the fundamental law. They resolved to reopen the African slave-trade. Africans were kidnapped in their native country, brought across the sea and landed on our shores as in colonial times, and placed in perpetual slavery. In Louisiana, leading citizens engaged in a scheme for legalizing the traffic, under the guise of what they called the "African Labor-supply Association," of which the late J. B. De Bow, editor of *De Bow's Review*, published in New Orleans, was president. His *Review* was the acknowledged organ of the slaveholders, and wielded extensive and powerful influence when the flames of the late Civil War were a-kindling. In Georgia, negroes from Africa were landed and sold, and when a grand jury at Savannah was compelled by law to find several bills against persons engaged in the traffic, or charged with complicity in the slave-trade, they protested against the law they were compelled to support. "We feel humbled," they said, "as men, conscious that we are born free-men but in name, and that we are living, during the existence of such laws, under a tyranny as supreme as that of the despotic governments of the Old World. Heretofore the people of the South, firm in their consciousness of right and strength, have failed to place the stamp of condemnation upon such laws as reflect upon the institution of slavery, but have permitted, unrebuked, the influence of foreign opinion to prevail." The *True Southron*, published in Mississippi, suggested the "propriety of stimulating the zeal of the pulpit by founding a prize for the best sermon on free-trade in negroes." This proposition was approved, and pulpits exhibited zeal in the cause. James H. Thornwell, D.D., President of the Presbyterian Theological Seminary at Columbus, S. C., asserted his conviction that the African slave-trade formed the most worthy of all missionary societies. Southern legislatures and conventions openly discussed the subject of reopening the slave-trade. The "Southern Commercial Convention," held at Vicksburg, Miss., May 11, 1859, resolved, by a vote of forty-seven to sixteen, that "all laws, State or Federal, prohibiting the African slave-trade ought to be abolished." It was warmly advocated by several men who became Confederate leaders in the late Civil War. The late John Slidell of Louisiana (a native of New York) urged in the

United States Senate the propriety of withdrawing American cruisers from the coasts of Africa, that the slave-trade might not be interfered with by them. By an arrangement between the governments of the United States and Great Britain, the cruisers of each nation were empowered to board vessels of either party suspected of being engaged in the slave-trade. When, in the summer of 1858, it was known that the traffic was to be carried on actively by the "African Labor-supply Association," the British cruisers in the Gulf of Mexico were unusually vigilant, and in the course of a few weeks boarded about fifty American vessels suspected of being slave-ships. The influence of the slaveholders was brought to bear so powerfully upon the administration that the government protested against what it was pleased to call the "odious British doctrine of the right of search." The British government, for "prudential reasons," put a stop to the practice and laid the blame on the officers of the cruisers.

Slave-trade, REVIVAL OF THE, IN SOUTH CAROLINA. In 1804 a provision was inserted into the act organizing the Territory of Orleans, that no slaves should be carried thither, except from some part of the United States, by citizens removing into the territory as actual settlers, this permission not to extend to negroes introduced into the United States since 1793. The object of this provision was to guard against the effects of an act recently adopted by the Legislature of South Carolina for reviving the slave-trade after a cessation of it, as to that state, for fifteen years, and of six years as to the whole Union. This was a consequence of the vast increase and profitableness of the cotton-culture, made so by Whitney's cotton-gin (which see).

Slave-trade, THE, OPPOSED IN VIRGINIA. Never had England carried on the slave-trade with greater vigor and persistence than at the close of the French and Indian War. The remonstrances of the colonies were unheeded. Obedience to the instructions of the Board of Trade and Plantations kept every American port open as markets for the traffic. Virginia had often tried to suppress it, and in 1761 it was proposed in her Legislature to suppress the importation of Africans by levying a prohibitory duty. Danger to the political interest of that colony was foreboded by her wisest men in the continuance of the trade. An act for levying the tax was passed by the Assembly, but in England it met the fate of similar bills from other colonies to suppress the nefarious traffic. It was sent back with a veto.

Slave-trade, TREATY FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF THE. On April 7, 1862, a treaty was concluded between the United States and Great Britain for the suppression of the African slave-trade, and signed at the city of Washington, D. C. By it, ships of the respective nations should have the right of search of suspected slave-ships; but that right was restricted to vessels of war authorized expressly for that object, and in no case to be exercised with respect to a vessel of the navy of either of the powers, but only

as regards merchant vessels. Nothing was done under this treaty, as the Emancipation Proclamation (which see) and other circumstances made action unnecessary.

Slemmer, ADAM J., was born in Montgomery County, Penn., about 1828; died at Fort Laramie, Kansas, Oct. 7, 1868. He graduated at West Point in 1850, and was promoted for gallant conduct in the Seminole War. He was for a while assistant professor of ethics and mathematics at West Point. He was in command of a small garrison at Fort McRee, near Pensacola, when the Civil War broke out. He took his men and supplies to stronger Fort Pickens, and held it against the perseverance and brute force of the Secessionists until relieved by Colonel Brown. (See *Fort Pickens*.) He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862, was severely wounded in the battle of Stone's River, and was disabled from further active service. In March, 1865, he was breveted brigadier-general in the United States Army.

Slidell, JOHN, was born in New York city in 1793; died in London, July 29, 1871. He graduated at Columbia College in 1810, and settled, as a lawyer, in New Orleans, where, in 1829-30,



JOHN SLIDELL.

he was United States District-attorney. He served in the State Legislature, and from 1843 to 1845 he was in Congress. In the last-named year he was appointed United States Minister to Mexico, and in 1853 he was elected to the United States Senate, where he remained, by re-election, until February, 1861. He was a very conspicuous Secessionist, and withdrew from the United States Senate to engage in furthering the insurrection then begun. He was sent as a commissioner of the Confederacy to France, in the fall of 1861, when he was captured by a cruiser of the United States. (See *Mason and Slidell, Capture of*.) After his release from Fort Warren, he sailed for England (Jan. 1, 1862), where he resided until his death.

Slocum, HENRY WADSWORTH, was born at Syracuse, N. Y., Sept. 24, 1827. He graduated at West Point in 1852; resigned in 1856, and settled in Syracuse as a lawyer. Early in the Civil War he was colonel of a New York volun-

teer regiment; joined McDowell's troops, and took part in the battle of Bull's Run (which see), where he was shot through the thigh. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, and commanded a brigade in Franklin's division. He served with distinction in the campaign on the Peninsula, in 1862, and on July 4, 1862, he was made major-general. In the battle of Groveton (or second battle of Bull's Run), at South Mountain, and Antietam, he was engaged, and in October, 1862, was assigned to the command of the Twelfth Corps, which he led at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg. At the latter he commanded the right wing of Meade's army. From September, 1863, to April, 1864, he guarded the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, and in the Atlanta campaign he commanded the Twentieth Corps. In the march to the sea he commanded one of the grand divisions of Sherman's army; also through the Carolinas, until the surrender of Johnston (which see). General Slocum resigned Sept. 28, 1865. From 1869 to 1873, and from 1883 to 1885 he was a member of Congress from Brooklyn.

Small-pox, INOCULATION FOR. In 1721 the small-pox made great havoc in Boston and its vicinity. There were nearly six thousand cases in New England, and about one thousand deaths. Inoculation for the disease, so as to mitigate its malignity, had just been introduced into England by Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, whose son had been inoculated at Constantinople. Her daughter was the first person inoculated in England. An account of inoculation had been previously published in the transactions of the Royal Society. Dr. Cotton Mather, having read the account, recommended the physicians of Boston to try the operation. None dared attempt it excepting Dr. Zabdiel Boylston, who, to show his confidence of success, began with his own family, and continued the practice against violent opposition. Pious persons denounced it as an interference with the prerogatives of Jehovah—an attempt to thwart God, who sent the small-pox as a punishment for sins, and whose vengeance would thus be provoked more. Other physicians denounced the practice, and many sober people declared that if any of Dr. Boylston's inoculated patients should die he ought to be tried for murder. An exasperated mob paraded the streets with halters in their hands, threatening to hang the inoculators, and Dr. Boylston's family was hardly safe in his own house. A lighted grenade was thrown into the chamber of an inoculated patient in the house of Dr. Cotton Mather. The select-men of Boston took strong ground against inoculation; so, also, did the popular branch of the Legislature. The violent opposition of the physicians, led by a Scotchman named Douglas, was the chief cause of the excitement. When news arrived of the success attending the operation on Lady Mary's daughter (performed the same month that Dr. Boylston introduced it in Boston) opposition was soon silenced, and inoculation was extensively practised in the colonies until Jenner's greater discovery of the merits of vaccination for the kine-pox.

Smallwood, WILLIAM, was born in Maryland, and died there Feb. 14, 1792. In 1776 he became a colonel in the Maryland line, and his battalion, which joined Washington, at New York, before the battle of Long Island, was composed



WILLIAM SMALLWOOD.

of men belonging to the best families of his native state. These suffered in that battle, at which Smallwood was not present. He was in the action at White Plains, about two months later; and when, late in the summer of 1777, the British, under the Howes, appeared in Chesapeake Bay, he was sent to gather the militia on the western shore of Maryland. With about one thousand of these he joined Washington after the battle of Brandywine. He was in the battle of Germantown with his militia. While he was with Gates, in the South, he was promoted to major-general (Sept. 15, 1780), and soon afterwards he returned to the North. Smallwood refused to serve under Baron de Steuben, who was his senior officer, and demanded that his own commission should be dated two years before his appointment. Smallwood was a member of Congress in 1785, and was governor of Maryland from 1785 to 1788.

Smibert (or Smybert), the first portrait-painter in America, was born in Edinburgh about 1684, and died in Boston about 1751. He had studied in Italy and painted in London, and in 1728 accompanied Dean Berkeley to America. He painted the portraits of many New England worthies. The only portrait of Jonathan Edwards ever made was painted by Smibert. (*See School of Fine Arts, First.*)

Smith, ANDREW JACKSON, was born in Bucks County, Penn., about 1814, and graduated at West Point in 1838. He entered the dragoons; served in the war against Mexico and against the Indians in Oregon (1855-60), and when the Civil War broke out he was made major of cavalry. He was chief of cavalry in the Department of Missouri in the spring of 1862, and in the Department of the Mississippi from March to July. He was one of the most active and

useful officers in the Southwest, commanding divisions in Missouri and Arkansas, in the Vicksburg and Red River campaigns, and afterwards (1864) in driving Price out of Missouri, and assisting Thomas against Hood at Nashville. He was in the Mobile campaign, early in 1865. For his services during the war he was breveted major-general. He resigned in May, 1869.

Smith, CHARLES FERGUSON, was born in Pennsylvania about 1805; died at Savannah, Tenn., April 25, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1825, and was assistant instructor of tactics there from 1829 to 1831. He was adjutant of the post from September, 1831, to April, 1838, and then again instructor, till 1842. He served in the war against Mexico, received the brevet of colonel, and was made full colonel in September, 1861. In August, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and major-general in March, 1862. For some time he was in command of the National forces in Kentucky, and led a division, under General Grant, in the capture of Fort Donelson, in which he was distinguished, leading a decisive charge with great gallantry. He was afterwards ordered to Savannah, Tenn., where he died of dysentery.

Smith, CHARLES H., was born at Eastport, Me., and was made captain of the First Maine Cavalry soon after the beginning of the Civil War. He rose to colonel in the spring of 1863, and was very active as a cavalry officer in the campaigns in Virginia and at Gettysburg that year. He was with Sheridan in his important operations in May and June, 1864, and was one of the most efficient cavalry officers of the Army of the Potomac in the campaign against Richmond that year, commanding a brigade of Gregg's division south and west of Petersburg, and then in the later operations, that resulted in the capture of Lee and his army. For "gallant and meritorious services during the war" he was breveted Major-general United States Army.

Smith, EDMUND KIRBY, was born at St. Augustine, Fla., about 1825, and graduated at West Point in 1845. At the beginning of the war with Mexico he entered the field under General Taylor, and after the war was assistant professor of mathematics at West Point (1849-52). He left the service in April, 1861, and joined the insurgents, and became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army, under General Joseph E. Johnston, in 1861. Promoted to major-general, he was placed in command of the (Confederate) Department of East Tennessee early in 1862. Leading the advance in Bragg's invasion of Kentucky (which see), and behaving gallantly, he was made lieutenant-general (October, 1862), and was in the battle at Stone's River (or Murfreesborough). Early in 1863 he was put in command of the Trans-Mississippi Army, which he surrendered to General Canby May 26, 1865, at Baton Rouge. General Smith commanded in the Red River campaign against General Banks.

Smith, FRANCIS, a British officer, was colonel and aide-de-camp to the king in 1775. He came

to America early that year, and commanded the troops sent to seize the American stores at Concord, in April, 1775. (See *Concord*.) In the skirmish at Lexington he was wounded. Made a brigadier-general, he commanded a brigade in the battle on Long Island (which see) and on Quaker Hill (which see).

Smith, GUSTAVUS WOODSON, was born in Scott County, Ky., about 1820; graduated at West Point in 1842; served in the war against Mexico, and in 1854 resigned for the consideration of \$10,000 from the Cuban fund, to join a projected expedition against Cuba, under General Quitman (which see). He was a politician in the city of New York, and was appointed street commissioner there, which office he left to join the Confederates under General Mansfield Lovell, at New Orleans. He was made a Confederate major-general, and after General Joseph E. Johnston was wounded at Fair Oaks he took command of the army temporarily. In 1864 he commanded at Augusta, Ga., and was made prisoner at Marion (April 2, 1865) by General Wilson.

Smith, JAMES, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Ireland, about 1720; died at York, Penn., July 11, 1806. He was educated at the College of Philadelphia, became a lawyer and surveyor, and in 1774 raised the first volunteer company in Pennsylvania to resist British oppression. He was also an active patriot in civil affairs, and was largely instrumental in kindling the flame of resistance in his province. He was a member of the Pennsylvania Convention (1775) and the convention (June, 1776) that framed a new government for the province. He seconded the resolution of Dr. Rush, in the Provincial Convention, in favor of declaring independence. This was unanimously adopted, signed by the members, and presented to Congress a few days before that body adopted the famous Declaration. On June 20, 1776, he was elected a delegate in Congress, and he remained so until November, 1778. In 1780 he was a member of the new Pennsylvania Assembly.

Smith, JOHN, born at Willoughby, Lincolnshire, England, in January, 1579; died in London, June 21, 1631. From early youth he was a soldier, and for four years he was in wars in the Netherlands. Returning home, he soon went abroad again to fight the Turks, distinguishing himself in Hungary and Transylvania for which service Sigismund Bathori ennobled him and gave him a pension. Serving under an Austrian general in besieging a Turkish fortress, he performed a wonderful exploit. One of the Turkish generals sent a message to the Austrian camp saying, "I challenge any captain of the besieging army to combat." Smith was chosen by lot to accept it. They fought in the presence of a multitude on the ramparts. Smith cut off his antagonist's head. A second appeared and suffered the same fate, and then a third, whose head soon rolled in the dust. The combat ended, and when Smith was ennobled he had upon his coat-of-arms, in two quarterings of his shield, three

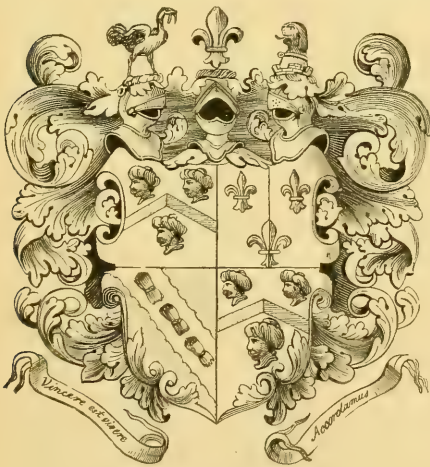
Turks' heads, with a chevron between the two upper ones and the lower one. Taken prisoner by the Turks, he was sent a slave to Constantinople, where he won the affections of his young



JOHN SMITH.

mistress. He was sent by her to her brother in the Crimea, with a letter avowing her attachment. The indignant Turk cruelly maltreated Smith, when the latter one day slew his taskmaster, put on the Ottoman's clothes, mounted a horse and escaped to a Russian port on the Don. The account he gave of his personal exploits was most remarkable. On his return to England, Bartholomew Gosnold persuaded Smith to engage in founding a colony in Virginia, and at the age of twenty-seven years, already great-

Percy, Rev. Robert Hunt, and other men of property. The voyage was by the southern route, and was long and tedious. Captain Smith's conduct on shipboard was boastful and arrogant, and quarrels with him were frequent. At the Canaries, Wingfield charged him with conspiring to usurp the government in Virginia, and make himself king. There was no head to the company at sea, for the silly king, with his love for concealment, had placed the names of the councillors in a sealed box, which was not to be opened until they should land in Virginia. Some of the passengers, believing Wingfield's charge to be true, confined Smith and kept him a prisoner until the voyage was ended. A part of the company landed on Cape Henry, at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, had a skirmish with the Indians, and that night the box was opened, when it was discovered that Smith was one of the council. But he was rejected. After resting at Point Comfort, at the mouth of the James River, they went up that stream, and landed where they built Jamestown, and chose that for the seat of the new empire. Captain Smith, with Newport and twenty men, explored the James River as far as the falls, the site of Richmond, and made the acquaintance of Powhatan, emperor of thirty Indian tribes. They returned and found the government organized by the choice of Wingfield as president, who, to get rid of Smith, proposed that he should return to England with Newport and avoid the disgrace of a trial. The indignant soldier demanded an instant trial. His innocence was proven, Wingfield withdrew his charges, and Smith took his seat in the council, when that body demanded that the president should pay Smith £200 for false imprisonment. All of Wingfield's property was seized to pay it, when Smith generously placed it in the public store for the use of the colony. Sickness prostrated the colony before the close of summer. At one time there were scarcely ten men who could stand up. It was discovered that Wingfield was living on the choicest stores, and was preparing to desert the colony in a pinnace Newport had left when he returned with the ships to England for more emigrants and supplies. He was deposed, and one weaker and as wicked (Ratcliffe) was put in his place. The settlers now took the management of affairs and put them in Smith's hands, who soon brought order out of confusion, made the Indians bring stores of corn, and had the colony well supplied with food (see *Virginia, Colony of*) for the ensuing winter. But one half of the emigrants had perished by the end of summer. Among the victims was Gosnold. The company had instructed the leaders of the colony to explore every considerable stream in search of the coveted northwest passage. Smith smiled at the ignorance of the company, but gladly undertook explorations. He went up the Chickahominy in an open boat to shallow water among the swamps of the Virginia peninsula. Leaving the boat in charge of part of his company, he with two others and two Indian guides penetrated the forest, when Smith was seized by savages under Opechancanough, King



SMITH'S COAT-OF-ARMS.

ly renowned, he sailed for America, Dec. 19, 1606, with Captain C. Newport, who commanded three vessels that bore one hundred and five emigrants. He was accompanied by Gosnold, Edward Maria Wingfield (one of the London Company), George

of Pamunkey, an elder brother of Powhatan, and conducted to the presence of the emperor at Werowocomoco, on the borders of the York River. At a great council presided over by Powhatan, he was doomed to die. Matoa, or Pocahontas, a daughter of Powhatan, begged her father to spare the prisoner's life, but in vain. His head was laid upon two huge stones, and two stalwart warriors had raised heavy clubs to crush it, when Pocahontas sprang from her seat by her father's side, clasped the prisoner's head with her arms, and laid her own head on his. (See *Pocahontas*.) The emperor yielded, and Smith was released and sent to Jamestown with an escort, where he found only forty persons, and the stronger ones on the point of abandoning the settlement and escaping in the pinnace. He also found that during his absence the little church that had been built had been burned, and the settlers were worshipping under a tent. Other emigrants came with Newport in 1608, but they were chiefly idle and dissolute men, sent thither "to escape ill destinies at home." Some shining yellow deposits from a stream issuing from a bank of sand were discovered, and with a belief that the stream flowed from a mine of gold, they sought the precious metal with avidity instead of tilling the ground for food. Smith implored them in vain to plant and sow; and in the early summer, disgusted with their fatal folly, he left them, and with his friend Dr. Russell and a few of the more sensible men, he explored the Potomac and Rappahannock rivers, Chesapeake Bay and its estuaries and tributaries, and the Patapsco to the site of Baltimore. He went up the Susquehanna, probably a few miles above its mouth, where he heard of the powerful Iroquois Confederacy in the present State of New York. (See *Iroquois Confederacy*, *The*.) These explorations were made in two different voyages in the space of three months. He travelled in his boat about three thousand miles, made friends of powerful chiefs, and made the way plain for future settlements around the Chesapeake. When he returned to Jamestown early in September, he found the settlement in confusion again, and three days afterwards he was chosen president of the council. Soon afterwards Newport came again with supplies and seventy emigrants, no better than the former ones. Two women came with them—the wife of one of the emigrants and her maid, Anne Burrows, who soon afterwards married John Laydon. These were the first women of European blood seen on the banks of the James. With these new-comers the London Company sent word that unless the colonists should send back the ships, commodities enough to pay the cost of the voyage (\$10,000), and other valuable products or information, they should "be left in Virginia as banished men." (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) Smith made a spirited reply, and begged them to send over emigrants who would be producers before they could expect much in return. But the threat assisted Smith in exercising discipline and enforcing rules for labor. He demanded six hours of work each day from every able-bodied man, and said "He who will not work shall not

eat." Very soon the "gentlemen" became expert with the axe and the hoe, yet the colony continued to depend upon the bounty of the barbarians around them. Five hundred new settlers came in the summer of 1609, but the appointed rulers under a new charter (see *London Company, Second Charter of the*) had been wrecked in a storm on one of the Bermuda islands. Anarchy menaced the colony, but Smith, with his usual energy, "held over" in office, and by asserting authority became, as he had on other occasions, the savior of the colony from utter ruin. He devised new expeditions and new settlements, that the idle and vicious might be employed and the libertines kept in restraint. In the autumn of 1609 he was on the James River in a boat, when an explosion of gunpowder so wounded him that he was compelled to go to England for surgical treatment, delegating his authority to George Percy, a brother of the Duke of Northumberland. He never returned to Virginia. His labors there had been disinterested. Brave, honest, and true, he won the imperishable honor of being the first permanent planter of men of the Saxon race on the soil of the United States, and is entitled to the endearing name of Father of Virginia. Smith had made a rude map of his explorations in south Virginia; he afterwards explored the coasts of New England (1614), and made a map of the country between the Penobscot and Cape Cod. He started to found a colony there (1615), but failed. (See *New England*.) The remainder of his life was passed in retirement. Captain Smith published in 1608 *A True Relation of Virginia*; in 1626, *The General History of Virginia, New England, and the Somer Isles*; and in 1630, *The True Travels, Adventures, and Observations of Captain John Smith in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America*. One or two other books were written and published by him. John Smith's body lies buried in the Church of St. Sepulchre, London. His life was saved three times, and each time by a princess—Culaneta, of Hungary; Tragabigzanda, of Turkey; and Pocahontas, of Virginia.

Smith, JOHN COTTON, LL.D., was born at Sharon, Conn., Feb. 12, 1765; died there, Dec. 7, 1845. He graduated at Yale College in 1783, and was admitted to the bar in 1786. Member, clerk, and speaker of the Connecticut Assembly from 1793 to 1809, excepting three years (speaker in 1800), he became a leading man in the state, and in 1809 was chosen a member of the Council and a judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut. Elected lieutenant-governor before the second term of the court, he was elected governor in 1813, and remained in that office five years. Governor Smith was a member of the Society of Northern Antiquaries, also of other learned societies at home. He was president of the Connecticut State Bible Society, of the American Board of Foreign Missions, and of the American Bible Society. For several years Governor Smith was an occasional contributor to various scientific and literary periodicals.

Smith, JOHN E., a native of Pennsylvania, was aide-de-camp to Governor Yates, of Illinois,

when the Civil War began. In July, 1861, he became colonel of Illinois volunteers, and served well at forts Henry and Donelson, and in the battles of Shiloh and Corinth. In November he was made brigadier-general of volunteers; in 1862 he commanded a division in the Sixteenth Army Corps, and was in all the operations against Vicksburg in 1863. He was afterwards in the battles near Chattanooga, and in 1864 was in the Atlanta campaign under Sherman, also in his subsequent campaigns in Georgia and the Carolinas to the surrender of Johnston (which see). He was breveted major-general of the United States Army.

Smith, JOSEPH, was born at Hanover, Mass., March 30, 1790. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1809; was distinguished in the battle at Plattsburg (which see) under Macdonough, where he was wounded, and was in the Mediterranean under Decatur in 1815. He was in constant service, afloat and ashore, for sixty years. From 1847 until 1869 he was chief of the Bureau of Yards and Docks. He was created rear-admiral on the retired list in July, 1862, and died in 1865.

Smith, JOSEPH, founder of the Mormon Church, was born at Sharon, Vt., Dec. 23, 1805; killed at Carthage, Ill., June 27, 1844. His parents were of Scotch descent, and not very reputable. When Joseph was a small child they emigrated to Palmyra, N. Y., where, at the age of twenty-two, he began the career of a bold impostor, and followed it up until his violent death at the hands of a mob. (See *Mormons*.)

Smith, JUNIUS, LL.D., a pioneer of ocean steam navigation, was born in Plymouth, Conn., Oct. 2, 1780; died at Astoria, N. Y., Jan. 23, 1853. He graduated at Yale College in 1802; became a lawyer, and practised at the New Haven bar until 1805, when he was employed to prosecute a claim against the British government in the Admiralty Court of London. Successful, he afterwards embarked in commercial pursuits in connection with America, and won a fortune. In 1832 he engaged in the project for establishing a line of steamships to navigate the Atlantic Ocean from England to the United States. Through a prospectus, he pressed the matter upon the public mind, and succeeded, in 1836, in establishing the British and American Steam Navigation Company. The feasibility of the enterprise was proven in 1838, by the crossing of the Atlantic by the small steamer *Sirius*. Yet, before he could successfully carry out this grand project, which soon afterwards developed into vast importance, Mr. Smith engaged in an attempt to introduce the cultivation of the tea-plant into this country. He bought an extensive plantation near Greenville, S. C. One day he was assaulted, and received a blow which fractured his skull. He never recovered.

Smith, MELANCTHON, who commanded a detachment of troops in the battle of Plattsburg, had been commissioned a major in February, 1813, and promoted to colonel in April following. He left the army at the close of the war, and died at Plattsburg on the 18th of August, 1818.

Colonel Smith was an active member of the Masonic order, and his funeral was directed by them. At his request, Masonic emblems were placed on the elaborately wrought slab of blue limestone that marks his grave and bears the following inscription: "To the memory of Colonel Melancthon Smith, who died Aug. 18, 1818,



COLONEL SMITH'S MONUMENT.

aged 38 years. As a testimony of respect for his virtues, and to mark the spot where rests the ashes of an excellent father, this stone is erected by his son Richbill. United with many masculine virtues, he had a tear for pity, and a hand open as day for melting charity."

Smith, MELANCTHON, was born in New York, May 24, 1809. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1826, and was made captain in July, 1862. He served in the Seminole War (which see), and was in command of the steamer *Massachusetts* in 1861. He was active in the movements against New Orleans in 1862, and with the *Mississippi* he ran the ram *Manassas* ashore and destroyed her. His vessel grounded while passing Port Hudson (March 14, 1863), when he set her on fire. With her he had participated in several engagements. He assisted in the capture of Port Hudson (which see), and afterwards commanded a sloop-of-war in the North Atlantic blockading squadron. In May, 1864, he engaged with the Confederate ram *Albemarle* (which see), and was in command of the *Wabash* in both attacks on Fort Fisher (which see). In 1866 he was made chief of the Bureau of Equipment and Recruiting.

Smith, PERSIFER F., was born in Philadelphia in November, 1798; died at Fort Leavenworth, Kan., May 17, 1858. He graduated at Princeton in 1815; became a lawyer in New Orleans; was adjutant-general of Louisiana, and was a volunteer under General Gaines in two campaigns of the Seminole War as colonel of Louisiana volunteers. When General Taylor went to the Rio Grande in 1846 (see *Mexico, War with*), Smith led a brigade of Louisiana volunteers under him. He was breveted brigadier-general for his services at Monterey (which see), and major-gen-

eral for gallantry at Contreras and Churubusco (which see) in August, 1847. He was a commissioner in arranging the armistice before the city of Mexico (which see), and after the conquest he was made civil and military governor of the city (October, 1847), and commander of a division of the United States Army. In 1848 he was governor of Vera Cruz, and subsequently commanded the departments of California and Texas. Just before his death he was appointed to command the Utah expedition against the Mormons (which see).

Smith, SAMUEL, was born at Carlisle, Penn., July 27, 1752; died in Baltimore, Md., April 22, 1839. He went to Baltimore with his father in 1760, and was an active patriot there. Samuel, after receiving a good common education, en-

tered his father's counting-room in 1771, and soon afterwards visited Europe in one of his father's vessels. He joined a volunteer company, and became captain in Smallwood's regiment in January, 1776. He was in the battle of Long Island, and was distinguished on Harlem Plains (which see), and was wounded at White Plains. Captain Smith was in the retreat of Washington to the Delaware late in 1776; was lieutenant-colonel of a Maryland regiment in 1777; fought at Brandywine, and immediately afterwards was placed in command of Fort Mifflin, which weak and exposed work he gallantly defended from Sept. 26 to Nov. 11 against a British naval and land force, and in that affray he was severely wounded. In the ensuing winter he suffered at Valley Forge; took an active part in the battle of Monmouth, and continued to do duty as a colonel of militia until the end of the war. Having lost his fortune during three years' service, he was compelled to resign his Continental commission late in 1778. He served a short time as Secretary of the Navy under Jefferson, and as major-general of Maryland state-troops he did good service in the defence of Baltimore (which

see) in 1814. General Smith was a member of Congress, either as Representative or United States Senator, from 1793 to 1833—a period of forty years. When, in the eighty-third year of his age (1835), a mob took possession of Baltimore, General Smith, at the call of the citizens, led a force that effectually suppressed the disturbances, and he was afterwards elected mayor of the city.

Smith, WILLIAM, Chief-justice of Canada, was born in New York, June 25, 1728; died there, Dec. 3, 1793. He graduated at Yale College in 1745. He became one of the leading lawyers in America, and was appointed judge of the Supreme Court of New York in 1763; member of the Council in 1769, and when the war for independence broke out he at first opposed the measures of government, but finally adhered to the crown and went to England at the end of the struggle in 1783. In November, 1786, he was appointed Chief-justice of Canada. Judge Smith wrote a brief history of the Province of New York from its settlement to 1732, published in London in 1757. This was continued to 1752 by his son William.

Smith, WILLIAM, D.D., was born in Aberdeen, Scotland, in 1726; died in Philadelphia, May 14, 1803. He graduated at the University of Aberdeen in 1747; emigrated to America in 1750, and, accepting an invitation to take charge of the college in Philadelphia, he went to England to receive ordination as a minister in the Protestant Episcopal Church. He was placed at the head of the college in 1754. He was its founder and first provost. It was the origin of the present University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Smith was distinguished for his patriotism and oratory. At the request of Congress he pronounced orations on the deaths of General Montgomery and Dr. Franklin, and these are considered masterpieces of English composition. He was the author of several works, religious, moral, philosophical, and historical.

Smith, WILLIAM FARRAR, was born at St. Albans, Vt., Feb. 17, 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1845, entering the corps of Topographical Engineers. He was engaged in several important military surveys before the Civil War. When that began he was Secretary of the Light-house Board at Washington. He became a brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, having done good service in the battle of Bull's Run the previous month. In the Peninsular campaign he was particularly distinguished, and was promoted to major-general (July, 1862). He commanded a division in Franklin's corps, and was in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam (which see). He commanded the Sixth Corps at Fredericksburg (December, 1862); was Chief-engineer of the Army of the Cumberland late in 1863; was active in operations about Chattanooga late in that year; and from May to July, 1864, he commanded the Eighteenth Corps, Army of the Potomac. He was breveted major-general for "gallant and meritorious services during the Rebellion." General Smith was made President of the International Tele-



SAMUEL SMITH.

tered his father's counting-room in 1771, and soon afterwards visited Europe in one of his father's vessels. He joined a volunteer company, and became captain in Smallwood's regiment in January, 1776. He was in the battle of Long Island, and was distinguished on Harlem Plains (which see), and was wounded at White Plains. Captain Smith was in the retreat of Washington to the Delaware late in 1776; was lieutenant-colonel of a Maryland regiment in 1777; fought at Brandywine, and immediately afterwards was placed in command of Fort Mifflin, which weak and exposed work he gallantly defended from Sept. 26 to Nov. 11 against a British naval and land force, and in that affray he was severely wounded. In the ensuing winter he suffered at Valley Forge; took an active part in the battle of Monmouth, and continued to do duty as a colonel of militia until the end of the war. Having lost his fortune during three years' service, he was compelled to resign his Continental commission late in 1778. He served a short time as Secretary of the Navy under Jefferson, and as major-general of Maryland state-troops he did good service in the defence of Baltimore (which

graph Company in 1864, and resigned his commission in the army in 1867.

Smith's Petition for Pocahontas. When Sir Thomas Dale arrived in England from Virginia in 1616, with John Rolfe and his wife, Pocahontas, Captain Smith was in London, expecting to sail immediately for New England. Fearing he might sail before she should reach London from Portsmouth, he addressed a petition to the queen in her behalf, in which he said: "During the time of two or three years she, next under God, was still the instrument to preserve the colony from death, famine, and utter confusion; which if, in these times, had been once dissolved, Virginia might have lain as it was at our first arrival till this day. . . . She was the first Christian ever of that nation; the first Virginian who ever spoke English, or had a child in marriage by an Englishman."

Smithson, JAMES LEWIS MACIE, F.R.S., an English chemist, and founder of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington, was born about 1765; died in Genoa, Italy, June 27, 1829. At the commencement of his will, Mr. Smithson wrote: "I, James Smithson, son of Hugh, third Duke of Northumberland, and Elizabeth, heiress of the Hungerfords of Audley, and niece to Charles, the proud Duke of Somerset," without giving the date of his nativity. He took his degree at Oxford University (1786) under the surname of Macie, but between 1791 and 1803 he adopted the family name of Smithson. He was a natural son of the then Duke of Northumberland. He became distinguished at the university as a chemist; became the associate of the leading scientists of the day; and was elected Fellow of the Royal Society in 1787, to the "Transactions" of which he contributed eight papers. At his death he left about two hundred manuscripts, which seemed to be chiefly portions of a philosophical dictionary. In his will, dated Oct. 23, 1826, he bequeathed to his nephew the whole of his property, appraised at £120,000, or about \$590,000, with the condition that, in case of the death of the latter without a child or children, the property was to go to the government of the United States to found, at the national capital, under the name of "The Smithsonian Institution," an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge. His nephew died in 1835, without heirs, and the property came into the possession of our government. (See *United States a Legatee*.)

Smyth and Porter, GENERALS. The failure of General Alexander Smyth, in command on the Niagara frontier in the autumn of 1812, to accomplish an invasion of Canada, which in pompous proclamations he had declared his intention of doing, was openly attributed by General Peter B. Porter, in command of the New York volunteers and militia on that frontier, to the cowardice of the former. Smyth, in his report to Dearborn, spoke disparagingly of Porter. A bitter quarrel ensued. The volunteers took the part of their beloved general, and for some time Smyth was in personal danger. He was fired at several times when he ventured

from his marquee, and he was compelled to place a double guard around it, and to move it from place to place to avoid continual insults. At length Smyth challenged Porter—his second in command—to fight a duel. It was accepted. They both violated the articles of war in the challenge and acceptance. With friends, seconds, and surgeons, they repaired to Grand Island (Dec. 12, 1812), on the Niagara River, exchanged shots at twelve paces distance, and neither of them was hurt. The expected tragedy was a solemn comedy. The affair took the usual ridiculous course—settled by the seconds. General Porter acknowledged that he considered Smyth "a man of courage," and Smyth declared Porter to be "above suspicion as a gentleman and an officer." So ended the melodrama of Smyth's invasion of Canada. General Smyth was deposed without trial. He afterwards petitioned Congress to reinstate him, declaring in his memorial that he asked the privilege of "dying for his country." The phrase was ridiculed by his enemies. At a public celebration at Georgetown, D. C., on Washington's birthday in 1814, the following toast was offered: "General Smyth's petition to Congress to 'die for his country'—May it be ordered that the prayer of said petitioner be granted." A wag wrote on the panel of the door of the House of Representatives:

"All hail, great chief! who quailed before
A Bisschopp on Niagara's shore;
But looks on *Death* with dauntless eye,
And begs for leave to bleed and die.
O my!"

Concerning his pompous proclamations and his signal failure in performances, a wag wrote:

"Just so (and every wiser head the likeness can discover)
We put a *chestnut* in the fire and pull the embers over;
Awile it waxes hot and hotter, and eke begins to hop.
And, after much confounded pother, explodes a mighty *Pop!*"

General Smyth had many good social qualities, and had "troops of friends." He was a faithful representative of his district (in Virginia) in Congress from 1817 to 1825, and again from 1827 until his death (April 17, 1830) in Washington, at the age of sixty-five years. He was born in Ireland. He was made Inspector-general of the United States Army, with the rank of brigadier-general, in July, 1812.

Social and Political Troubles in the South (1874). The aspect of affairs in several of the Southern States, particularly in Louisiana, was so unsettled in 1874 that there was much uneasiness in the public mind. Outrages of various kinds and murders were committed for the evident purpose of keeping peaceable citizens from the polls, and an utter disregard for law prevailed in many districts. In September, when these outrages were increasing in number and violence, the Attorney-general, with the sanction of the President, issued a circular letter to the authorities in the states alluded to, expressing his determination to take vigorous steps for upholding the laws and protecting the rights of all citizens of whatever class or hue; and the President directed the Secretary of War to consult and act with the Attorney-general in the matter. By vigorous action these outrages

were almost suppressed at the beginning of 1875; but they broke out with more violence in the summer of 1876, and appeared in fearful strength during the canvass for President and Vice-President in the fall of that year. The leaders and inciters of these outrages were members of a secret organization known as "The White League," formed for the purpose of depriving the colored citizens of the elective franchise.

Social Condition of Holland in the Seventeenth Century, THE, was favorable to the development of new states. The feudal system, in which large landholders whose tenants were military men controlled all labor and bore allegiance to the lordly proprietor, had begun to decay. A new era had gradually dawned upon Holland. Labor had become honorable. The owner of the soil was no longer the head of a band of armed desperadoes who were his dependents, but the careful proprietor of broad acres, and devoted to industry and thrift. The nobles, who composed the landed class, gradually came down from the stilts of exclusiveness, and in their habits, and even costume, imitated the working people. The latter became elevated in the social scale. Their rights were respected, and their value in the state was duly estimated. Ceaseless toil in Holland was necessary to preserve the hollow land from the invasion of the sea, and to extract, by the hands of skilled and unskilled industry, bread for the multitude. Common needs assimilated all classes in a country where all must work or starve or drown. The moral tone of society was wonderfully elevated and political wisdom abounded. It was this state of society in Holland that stimulated agricultural interests and pursuits and furnished sturdy, intelligent, and industrious yeomen for New Netherland (which see). Their example changed the pursuit of many a hunter and trapper in the Hudson and Mohawk valleys who became farmers.

Societies and Institutions, RELIGIOUS AND BENEVOLENT. The United States abounds in these associations and establishments. The Christian Church was for a long time the only existing one. Finally out of it grew societies for the promotion of Christianity and morality, and institutions to aid the afflicted. The first society for the publication and distribution of religious knowledge was the Methodist Book Concern, established in Philadelphia in 1789, and removed to New York in 1804. In 1803 the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was organized, and seems to have been the first undenominational tract society established. Many local tract societies soon afterwards appeared. The New England Tract Society was founded at Andover in 1812. In 1823 it changed its name to American Tract Society, and removed to Boston. In 1825 the American Tract Society—a new organization—was established in New York, and the elder society became a branch of it. It remained so until 1859, when the hesitancy of the New York society to publish tracts or essays on slavery

caused the Boston society to resume its independent organization. There are several denominational tract and publication societies—namely, the Methodist Episcopal Book Concern, founded in 1789; the Baptist Publication Society, founded in 1824; the Congregational Publication Society, organized in 1829; the Presbyterian Board of Publication, established in 1833; the Protestant Episcopal Evangelical Knowledge Society, founded in 1847; the Protestant Episcopal Church Book Society, founded in 1854; the Reformed Church Board of Publication Society, organized in 1854; and the New Jerusalem (Swedenborgian) Tract and Publication Society, established in 1863. The first Bible society in the United States was founded in Philadelphia in 1802, and when the American Bible Society was organized in 1816 there were between fifty and sixty local Bible societies in the Union. (See *Bible Society, The American, and Tract Society.*) The Baptists seceded from the American Bible Society in 1836, and founded the American and Foreign Bible Society, conducted entirely by that denomination. It has published the Scriptures in more than forty languages. In 1850 a secession from the Baptist society occurred, when the American Bible Union was founded. Attention was early called to the necessity of missionary work among the Indians and negroes in America. The English Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts (which see) had begun the work. In 1810 the first foreign missionary society in the United States was founded, and called the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions. It followed the English society in the exclusion of a denominational basis, but it has been largely controlled by the Congregationalists and Presbyterians. The Reformed (Dutch) Church separated from it, and organized a denominational board in 1857. There was another secession in 1870, when the "new school" branch of the Presbyterian Church withdrew and gave their support to the Presbyterian board mentioned below. So early as 1814, the American Baptist Missionary Union was formed, and is still engaged in extensive missionary work. The Protestant Episcopal Church organized a board of missions in 1820. The Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church was organized in 1837, and was sustained by the "old school" churches, while the other branch co-operated with the American board until 1870, as above mentioned. In 1859 a United Presbyterian Missionary Society was formed. Other denominations sustain foreign missions, and all are earnestly engaged in domestic missions. The first temperance society in the United States was formed in 1789 by two hundred farmers in Litchfield County, Conn., who agreed not to use distilled liquors in doing their farm-work. Organized temperance societies began to be formed in 1811, but the total abstinence principle was not adopted until 1836, when a national convention held at Saratoga took that higher stand. The "Washington Society," the first founded upon that principle, was organized in Baltimore in 1840 by six men of intemperate habits. At

the first anniversary of the society one thousand reformed drunkards were in the procession. Young Men's Christian associations were first organized in America in 1852. These have rapidly increased in number and usefulness since 1866, when there were only sixty-six associations in the United States. Ten years later (1876) they numbered seven hundred. The first public hospital established within the domain of the Republic was opened at Boston in 1717 for the use of persons sick with any contagious disease. It was merely a "pest-house." The first general hospital chartered in the colonies was the Pennsylvania Hospital, created in 1751. Twenty years afterwards the second one—the New York Hospital—was chartered. Hospitals are now more abundant in the United States than in any other part of the world in proportion to population. Asylums for the deaf and dumb, the blind, the idiotic, the insane, for orphans, and for juveniles abound, and thousands continually enjoy the blessings which they provide. The first public asylum for the deaf and dumb was opened at Hartford, Conn., in 1817; and at the same time the second—the New York Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb—was chartered. The first public asylum for the blind was the Perkins Institute and Massachusetts Asylum, founded in 1829. It was opened in 1832, under the superintendence of Dr. S. G. Howe, who treated the complicated infirmities of Laura Bridgman (which see) successfully. The first asylum for the insane in this country was founded at Williamsburg, Va., in 1773, and was the only one in the United States until 1818, when another was established at Somerville, Mass. That was followed by the Bloomingdale Asylum, New York, in 1821, and the asylum at Hartford in 1824. In 1870 there were more than sixty institutions for the care of the insane in the United States. At that time there were thirty-eight thousand insane persons in the Union, out of a population of thirty-eight millions. The Moravians in Georgia established the first orphan-asylum in the American colonies about 1738, and Rev. George Whitefield laid the foundation-stone of one ten miles from Savannah in 1740. In 1876 there were four hundred orphan-asylums in the United States. Preventive and reformatory institutions are among our most important public charities. The first of the kind in the United States was the New York House of Refuge for Juvenile Delinquents, founded in 1824. It was opened at the beginning of 1825. It still exists, in a modified form, and occupies a considerable space on Randall's Island, East River. Care for the bodily comfort and social condition of seamen—a greatly neglected class of citizens—has been manifested for many years. So early as 1801 Captain Randall, of New York, founded the Sailors' Snug Harbor in that city; and, later, benevolent citizens established the Seamen's Friend Society in the same community. The latter effort has been blessed with great success. The society provides good boarding-houses and a home for seamen when in port. The latter, situated in Cherry Street, New York, is provided with a

reading-room and museum, conveniences for bathing, and wholesome dormitories, and a Seamen's Savings Bank is in operation. Since the late Civil War homes have been provided in various places for disabled sailors and soldiers, and these men have learned that a republic is not always ungrateful. So prevalent is a spirit of benevolence in the United States that everywhere societies, of various names and objects, for the alleviation of the distressed and the enlightenment of the ignorant are popular and flourishing. Some of the oldest associations among us were organized with a benevolent purpose. Such was the object of the Cincinnati Society (which see). The New York Chamber of Commerce, the oldest institution of the kind in our country, was established by twenty merchants in 1768 "for the purpose of promoting and extending all just and lawful commerce; and for affording relief to decayed members and their widows and children." And the Tammany Society, founded in 1789, was organized as a patriotic, social, and benevolent institution. (See *Tammany Society*.)

Societies for the Promotion of the Fine Arts. In 1791 Archibald Robertson, a Scotchman and a portrait-painter, established a seminary in the city of New York which he called "The Columbian Academy of Painting." He succeeded well, and his pupils did honor to the institution. In 1801 Robert R. Livingston, then American minister in France, proposed the establishment of an academy of fine arts in New York. He wrote to friends, suggesting the raising of funds by subscription for the purpose of purchasing copies of antique statuary and paintings for the instruction of young artists. An association for the purpose was formed late in 1802, but it was not incorporated until 1808. Meanwhile Mr. Livingston had obtained fine plaster copies of ancient statues and sent them over. In the board of managers were distinguished citizens, but there was only one artist—Colonel Trumbull. It bore the corporate title of "Academy of Fine Arts." It had a feeble existence, though it numbered among its honorary members King George IV., of England, and the Emperor Napoleon, who contributed liberally to its establishment. De Witt Clinton was its president in 1816, when its first public exhibition was opened. In 1805 seventy gentlemen, mostly lawyers, met in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, for the purpose of considering the subject of founding an academy of fine arts in that city. They formed an association for the purpose, and established "The Philadelphia Academy of Fine Arts," with George Clymer as President. Their first exhibition was held in 1806, when more than fifty casts of antique statues in the Louvre were displayed, and two paintings by Benjamin West. By purchases and gifts the collection of the academy was unsurpassed in this country in 1845, when the building and most of its contents were destroyed by fire. The association has a superb building on Broad Street, which was first opened to the public in April, 1876. Unwise management and alleged injustice to the younger artists who were studying

in the New York academy caused great dissatisfaction, and in the autumn of 1825 they held a meeting and organized a "Society for Improvement in Drawing." This movement was made at the instigation of Samuel F. B. Morse (which see), who was made president of the association. At a meeting of the association in January, 1826, Mr. Morse submitted a plan for the formation of what he called a "National Academy of Design" in the United States. The proposition was adopted, and the new academy was organized on the 15th of January, with Mr. Morse as President, and fourteen associate officers. Only one of those officers now (1890) survives, namely, General Thomas S. Cummings, the first Treasurer. The academy then founded flourished from the beginning, and is now one of the cherished institutions of New York city.

Societies, Literary and Scientific. Almost every department of human activity in the United States is represented by societies of various degrees of prominence. In nearly every state there is an historical society, with a library and growing archaeological collection. One of the oldest of these associations yet in existence is the Philadelphia Library, founded by Benjamin Franklin and others in 1731. It now (1876) contains about 100,000 volumes. One of the most interesting is the Academy of Natural Sciences, in Philadelphia, founded in 1812, and containing, among other treasures, a collection of 60,000 birds. Among the most useful of the associations is the New York Geographical Society, founded in 1852. Of the most important of the literary and scientific associations is the American Association for the Advancement of Science, founded in 1847. A Social Science Association, founded in Boston in 1865, had, in 1876, more than 300 members. An American Philological Society was organized in 1870. The last three named are migratory, meeting at different places each year.

Society for Constitutional Information. The friends of the Americans in London had formed a society with the foregoing title, and, on June 7, 1775, raised \$500, to be applied, as they said, "to the relief of the widows, orphans, and aged parents of our beloved fellow-subjects, who, faithful to the character of Englishmen, preferring death to slavery, were, for that reason only, inhumanly murdered by the king's troops at Lexington and Concord." Other sums were collected, and an account of the proceedings was given to the people through the *Public Advertiser* by John Horne Tooke. The king and his ministers were made terribly angry by this publication, and Tooke and the printers were unmercifully persecuted.

Society in Rhode Island (1650). When Roger Williams had obtained a charter for Rhode Island it was the middle of the seventeenth century. Society in that colony was then in a continual ferment, owing to the entire freedom enjoyed there, in the exercise of private judgment and the expression of opinion upon every subject. There was danger such as

excessive liberty often creates; but the colony passed through the fiery ordeal unscathed. In the plenitude of freedom enjoyed, each man was "a law unto himself." In religion and politics the people were absolutely free. Almost every phase of religious belief might have been encountered there, "so that, if a man lost his religious opinions, he might have been sure to find them in some village in Rhode Island." Agitation—healthful agitation—was the consequence. Town-meetings and other like gatherings of the people were often stormy, and the disputes of rivals were sometimes fierce, but never brutal. There was a remarkable propriety of conduct on all occasions; and out of the seething political caldron came to the surface the best men in the colony to administer its affairs. There was visible a high tone of morality among the people, and a much healthier religious sentiment than in Massachusetts at that time, which preserved the colony from many perils. "Our population," says one of its records, "shall not, as some conjecture it will, prove an anarchy, and so a common tyranny, for we are exceeding desirous to preserve every man safe in person, name, and estate."

Society Library of New York. In 1754 the first public library established in the English-American colonies was founded in New York, with the avowed object of promoting a spirit of inquiry among the people by a loan of books to non-subscribers. Nearly £600 were raised, and a foundation was laid for an institution which still exists and is an ornament and a blessing to the city of New York. The trustees received a charter, afterwards, from Governor Tryon. This institution was named The New York Society Library. In 1876 it contained sixty-four thousand volumes.

Soldiers' Bounty Lands. In testimony of the "royal sense and appreciation" of the conduct and bravery of the officers and soldiers of the English and Provincial armies who had served through the French and Indian War, King George III., by proclamation, in 1763, commanded and empowered the royal governors of English provinces in America to grant lands, without fee or reward, to such reduced officers as had served in America during the late war, and to such private soldiers as had been, or should be, disbanded in America and were actually residing there; and should personally apply for the same, subject, at the expiration of ten years, to the same quit-rents as other lands were subject to in the province within which they were granted, and also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement. The governors were ordered to grant to every person of the rank of field officer, 5000 acres; to every captain, 3000; to every subaltern or staff officer, 2000; to every non-commissioned officer, 200; to every private, 50.

"Solid South," THE. The Confederate Congress having passed a decree for silencing Union men and making all residents loyal to the Confederate cause (see *Confederate State Congress, Second Session of the*), President Davis issued a

proclamation (Aug. 14, 1861) in accordance with the intent of that decree. This and the Confiscation Act put the seal of silence upon the lips of all Union men. Few could leave, for obstacles were cast in their way. To remain was to acquiesce in the new order of things, or suffer intensely from social ostracism, if not from actual persecution. In East Tennessee, where the majority of the people were Unionists, fearful persecutions occurred at times. Unionists were imprisoned (see *Brownlow, William Gannaway*) and their property was plundered. Very soon the jails were filled with loyalists, and so completely were the people of that region under the control of armed Confederates that, in November, 1861, Colonel W. B. Wood, a Methodist clergyman from Alabama, holding a Confederate military commission, wrote to Judah P. Benjamin, Secretary of War, at Richmond: "The rebellion [resistance to Confederate rule] in East Tennessee has been put down in some of the counties, and will be effectually suppressed in less than two weeks." After speaking of breaking up the camps of the loyalists, he said, "It is a farce to arrest them and turn them over to the courts. . . . They really deserve the gallows, and, if consistent with the laws, ought speedily to receive their deserts." The gallows was sometimes used, and Union fugitives, driven from their homes, were hunted by blood-hounds in some parts of Tennessee.* On Nov. 20 Colonel Wood wrote to Secretary Benjamin that the sentiment of the people of East Tennessee was so "hostile to the Confederate government that it was useless to attempt to have them arrested and convicted by the courts," and recommended the summary trial of "bridge-burners and spies." To this letter Benjamin replied (Nov. 25): "All such as can be identified as having been engaged in bridge-burning [to obstruct the march of Confederate raiders] are to be tried summarily by drum-head court-martial, and, if found guilty, executed on the spot, by hanging. It would be well to leave the bodies hanging in the vicinity of the burned bridges. . . . In no case is one of the men known to be up in arms against the government to be released on any pledge or oath of allegiance. The time for such measures is past. They are all to be held as prisoners of war, and held in jail to the end of the war." This spirit of the Confederate Secretary of War, manifested in all parts of the Confederate service at that time, produced a "solid South." It was history repeated — "Order reigns in Warsaw!"

* The following advertisement appeared in the *Memphis Appeal*:

"BLOOD-HOUNDS WANTED.—We, the undersigned, will pay \$5 per pair for fifty pairs of well-bred hounds, and \$50 for one pair of thoroughbred blood-hounds, that will take the track of a man. The purpose for which these dogs are wanted is to chase the infernal, cowardly Lincoln bushwhackers of East Tennessee and Kentucky (who have taken advantage of the bush to kill and cripple many good soldiers) to their haunts and capture them. The said hounds must be delivered at Captain Hammer's livery stable by the 10th of December next, where a mustering officer will be present to muster and inspect them.

"F. N. MCNAIRY.
"H. H. HARRIS.

"CAMP COMFORT, CAMPBELL CO., TENN., Nov. 16."

Somers Isles. A name given to the Bermudas, in compliment to Sir George Somers, one of the commissioners for Virginia, who was wrecked there in 1609. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) [These islands received their present name in honor of Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard, who was wrecked upon one of them in 1522.] In 1614 the islands were settled under a charter given by King James and called Somers Isles. In 1640 a regular government was established there. Sir George Somers was sent there in 1610 by Lord Delaware for provisions; but, by tempests, the ship was driven northward and finally returned to Virginia. Thence he sailed again, and, after boisterous weather and great fatigue, reached the Bermudas, where he died in 1611, when upwards of sixty years of age. On the spot where he died the town of St. George was built. His heart and entrails were buried in Bermuda and his body was sent to England. In 1620 the Governor of Bermuda caused a large marble slab to be laid over the portion of his remains buried there, upon which was cut an epitaph, written by the governor himself, beginning:

"In the year 1611
Sir George Somers went to heaven;

and concluding:

"At last, his soul and body having to part,
He here bequeathed his entrails and his heart."

Song of the Guillotine. During the prevailing madness occasioned by the French Revolution (1793), Thelwall, a celebrated English Jacobin, wrote and put forth the following song, adapted to the air of "God save the King," called "God save the Guillotine."

"God save the guillotine!
Till England's king and queen
Her power shall prove;
Till each anointed knob
Affords a clipping job,
Let no rude halter rob
The guillotine.

"France, let thy trumpet sound—
Tell all the world around
How Capet fell;
And when great George's poll
Shall in the basket roll,
Let mercy then control
The guillotine.

"When all the sceptred crew
Have paid their homage due
The guillotine,
Let Freedom's flag advance
Till all the world, like France,
O'er tyrants' graves shall dance,
And peace begin."

Joel Barlow, an American, who had become a radical French Democrat, was invited to a Jacobin festival at Hamburg, on July 4, 1793, where he furnished Thelwall's song, at dinner, and it was sung, with great applause. It was supposed to have been written by Barlow, who, on his return, was coldly received in New England, not only on that account, but because he had assisted Paine in publishing his *Age of Reason*. The song of the guillotine was republished in Boston. (See *Barlow, Joel*.)

Sons of Liberty. At the period of Zenger's trial (1735) the radical opponents of the royal governors were called Sons of Liberty: but the

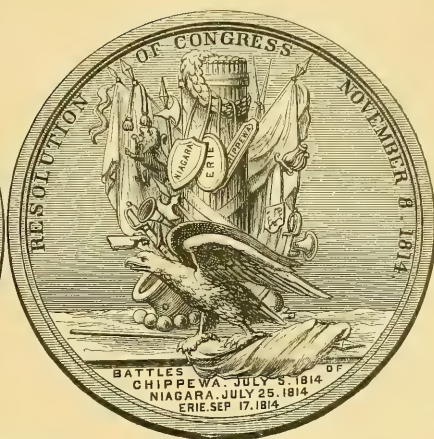
name was not often heard until after the memorable speech in the House of Commons (1765) of Colonel Barré against the taxation of the Americans. In reply to Charles Townshend's assertion that the colonies had been cared for and nourished into strength by the indulgence of the British government, Barré scornfully denied it, saying that care was exercised in sending unfit persons as governors to rule over them—"men whose behavior on many occasions had caused the blood of those *sons of liberty* to recoil within them." The associated patriots in America instantly assumed this name. They were chiefly ardent young men, who loved excitement, but who were truly patriotic. They had, as a general rule, nothing to lose, let events turn as they might. Persons of consideration and influence, though they generally favored the acts of the Sons of Liberty, kept aloof from open coalition with them, for prudential motives; for the combination appeared dangerous. Their first business seemed to be the intimidation of stamp-distributors and to oppose the act in every way; but they finally, spreading widely over the colonies from Massachusetts to Georgia, became the most radical leaders in the quarrel with Great Britain and promoters of the war for independence, in which many of them became distinguished leaders, in the council and in the field.

Sortie at Fort Erie. After the terrible explosion and the repulse of the British at Fort Erie (Aug. 15, 1814), both parties prepared for a renewal of the contest. (See *Siege of Fort Erie*.) Each was strengthened by reinforcements, but the struggle was not again begun for a month. General Brown had recovered from his wound, and was again in command of his army. The fort was closely invested by the British, but Drummond's force, lying upon low ground, was greatly weakened by typhoid fever. Hearing of this, Brown determined to make a sortie from the fort. The time appointed for its execution was the 17th of September. He resolved, he said, "to storm the batteries, destroy the cannons, and roughly handle the brigade on duty, before those in reserve at the camp could be brought into action." Fortunately for the sallying troops, a thick fog obscured their movements as they went out, towards noon, in three divisions—one under General Porter, another under James Miller (who had been breveted a brigadier), and a third under General Ripley. Porter reached a point within a few rods of the British right wing, at near three o'clock, before the movement was suspected by his antagonist. An assault was immediately begun. The startled British on that flank fell back, and left the Americans masters of the ground. Two batteries were then stormed, and were carried after a close struggle for thirty minutes. This triumph was followed by the capture of the block-house in the rear of the batteries. The garrison were made prisoners, the cannons and carriages were destroyed, and the magazine blown up. Meanwhile, General Miller had carried two other batteries and block-houses in the rear. Within forty minutes after Porter and Miller began

the attack, four batteries, two block-houses, and the whole line of British intrenchments were in the hands of the Americans. Fort Erie was saved, with Buffalo, and stores on the Niagara frontier, by this successful sortie. In the space of an hour the hopes of Drummond were blasted, the fruits of the labor of fifty days were destroyed, and his force reduced by at least one thousand men. Public honors were awarded to Brown, Porter, and Ripley. Congress presented each with a gold medal. (See p. 1317.) To the chief commander (Brown), of whom it was said, "no enterprise which he undertook ever failed," the corporation of New York gave the freedom of the city in a gold box. (See *Freedom of a City*.) The Governor of New York (D. D. Tompkins) presented to him an elegant sword. The states of New York, Massachusetts, South Carolina, and Georgia each gave Ripley tokens of their appreciation of his services.

Soulé, PIERRE, was born at Castillon, in the Pyrenees, in 1801; died in New Orleans, March 14, 1870. His father was a lieutenant-general in the army of the French Republic. Pierre, destined for the Church, prepared by study at the Jesuits' College at Toulouse and at Bordeaux. Engaged in a conspiracy against the returned Bourbons (1816), the plot was discovered, and he lived more than a year in the guise of a shepherd. Permitted to return, he assisted in the establishment of a republican newspaper at Paris, for the utterances of which he was condemned to prison at St. Pelagie, but escaped to England, and from thence came to Baltimore. In the fall of 1825 he went to New Orleans, where he became a very eminent lawyer; was elected to the United States Senate in 1847, where he served eight years, always taking ground in favor of the most extreme views on slavery and state supremacy. In 1853 President Pierce appointed him minister to Spain, where he soon became involved in a quarrel with M. Turgot, the French ambassador, whom he severely wounded in a duel. Having taken a high-handed measure in reference to a treaty for reciprocity of trade between the United States and Cuba, he joined in the Ostend Conference, and was one of the framers of the Ostend Manifesto (which see). Mr. Soulé returned to the United States in 1855, and in 1862 he was arrested by General Butler for disloyalty to the government, and confined several months in Fort Lafayette, New York. He was released on condition that he should leave the country. He returned to New Orleans a few months before his death.

Soulouque, FAUSTIN, Emperor of Hayti, was born a slave, in the southern part of Santo Domingo, in 1789; died in Jamaica, W. I., Aug. 6, 1867. He was made free, by the decree of the French government, in 1790, and took part in the negro insurrection against the French in 1803. He was a skillful military leader, as captain, under Boyer, in 1820; as colonel, under Herard, in 1844, and as brigadier-general, under Guerrier, in 1845. While two candidates for the presidency of Hayti were disputing and plotting,



GENERAL BROWN'S MEDAL.



GENERAL PORTER'S MEDAL.



GENERAL RIPLEY'S MEDAL.

the Senate unexpectedly elected Soulouque to the office, March 1, 1847. As soon as he was seated in office he began to pursue a system of terrorism towards the citizens, who were proscribed, executed, and their property confiscated. He unsuccessfully attempted to subjugate the Republic of Santo Domingo. Ostensibly by the will of the people, he restored the empire in his own person in 1849, having been chosen emperor in August. On April 18, 1852, he was

crowned with great pomp, imitating the ceremonial at the crowning of Napoleon I. While repeating his attempt, in 1855, to subdue Santo Domingo, he was thoroughly defeated by Santana. Other misfortunes followed, and in 1858, when there was general discontent throughout Hayti, General Geffrard, an enterprising mulatto, led a rebellion, and was recognized as President of Hayti by the officials. Soulouque fled to Jamaica (January, 1859) in a British vessel, and resided there.

South Carolina. A state constitution was first adopted in South Carolina March 26, 1776, and the national Constitution was ratified by that state May 23, 1788. Great political agitation existed in the state from 1828 to 1833, there being strong opposition to the high tariff upon importations imposed by the national government. Immediately after the presidential election in 1832, a state convention met (November), and adopted unanimously a "nullification ordinance" (see *Nullification*), which pronounced the tariff "null, void, and no law, nor binding

on this state, its officers and citizens," and prohibited the payment of duties on imports imposed by that law within the state after Feb. 1, 1833. It was declared that no appeal in the matter should be made to the Supreme Court of the United States



STATE SEAL OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

against the validity of an act of the Legislature to that effect, and that, should the national government attempt to enforce the law thus nullified, or interfere with the foreign commerce of the state, the people of South Carolina would "hold themselves absolved from all further obligations to maintain or preserve their political connection with the people of the other states." This was an assertion of the doctrine of state supremacy pure and simple. It was approved by the governor (Robert Y. Hayne [which see]) in his message to the Legislature, and that body took measures to give practical effect to the ordinance. President Jackson met the vital issue boldly and promptly, in a proclamation which made the nullifiers pause; and, during the ensuing session of Congress, a compromise tariff was passed, which allayed feeling and postponed civil war. (See *Nullification*.) A more fatal political excitement began in South Carolina in 1860, when Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate for President of the United States, was elected. Threats of seceding from the Union had been made at the Democratic National Convention in Charleston (which see), and immediately after the election a call was made for a state convention, which assembled first at Columbia, and then at Charleston, and on Dec. 20, 1860, passed an ordinance of secession. (See *South Carolina Ordinance of Secession, Signing of the*.) A few

days afterwards civil war was begun in the harbor of Charleston, by the firing on a steamer in the employ of the national government. (See *Star of the West fired upon and Fort Sumter, First Gun fired at*.) South Carolina was officially proclaimed to be a "sovereign nation," and the public property of the national government within its borders was speedily seized. Finally, in April, 1861, citizens of South Carolina attacked Fort Sumter, and compelled its evacuation by national troops, and for about four years afterwards kept up a warfare upon the life of the Republic. At the close of the war a provisional governor was appointed (June 30, 1865) by the President for South Carolina, and in September a state convention, at Columbia, repealed the ordinance of secession, and declared slavery abolished. In October James L. Orr was chosen governor, with other state officers, and the government passed into their hands Dec. 25, 1865. This government continued until superseded (March, 1867) by military government, South and North Carolina being included in one military district. On Jan. 14, 1868, at a convention composed of thirty-four white people and sixty-three colored, a constitution was adopted, which was ratified at an election in April, 1869, by a large majority. Members of the Legislature (seventy-two white and eighty-five colored) and representatives in Congress were chosen. Reorganization was practically completed on the ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment, by the withdrawal of the military authorities on the 13th of July, 1868. The Legislature ratified the Fifteenth Amendment of the national Constitution March 11, 1869. Population in 1890, 1,151,149.

South Carolina Commissioners in Washington. On Dec. 21, 1860, the South Carolina Secession Convention appointed Robert W. Barnwell, James H. Adams, and James L. Orr commissioners to proceed to Washington to treat for the possession of the public property within the limits of their state, which was speedily seized. They arrived in Washington Dec. 26, and, evidently expecting to stay long as ambassadors of their "sovereign state," took possession of the house of a widow on K Street, which Mr. Trescott had hired for them, as a ministerial residence, with servants and other necessities for carrying on a domestic establishment. On the day after their arrival they heard of the movement of Anderson. (See *Anderson in Fort Sumter*.) On the 28th they addressed a formal diplomatic letter to the President, drawn up by Orr, informing him of their official authority to treat for the delivery, by the United States, of all forts and other public property in South Carolina to the authorities of that "sovereign state." They also furnished him with a copy of the Ordinance of Secession. They urged the President to immediately withdraw all the national troops from Charleston harbor, because they were "a standing menace." The President was highly offended by the arrogance of the commissioners, acting under the peculiar circumstances of the case, and the best friends of the country urged him to arrest them; but,

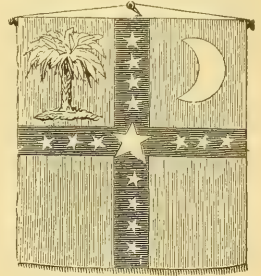
soothed by his fears, he replied to them courteously (Dec. 30), and expressed a willingness to lay before Congress any proposition they might make. To recognize their state as a foreign power would be usurpation on his part, and he should refer the whole matter to Congress. He denied ever having made any agreement with members of Congress from South Carolina to withhold reinforcements from the forts at Charleston, or any pledge to do so, which William Porcher Miles asserted had been done. He alluded to the seizure of the arsenal at Charleston, and gave them to understand that he should defend Fort Sumter. Two days later the commissioners replied to this, in a long and extremely insulting letter, in which they charged the President with perfidy, and taunted him with dereliction of duty. The President made no reply, but returned the letter to the commissioners endorsed—"This paper, just presented to the President, is of such a character that he declines to receive it." This occurred on New-year's day, 1861. The excitement in Washington was very great. Few calls were made on the President that day. Unionists and Secessionists, having lost confidence in him, refused to shake hands with him. Secession cockades, worn by men and women, multiplied in the streets. Fully fifty Union flags were displayed; and that night a large police force was detailed to guard the house of the commissioners. Having occupied the ministerial residence on K Street ten days, the commissioners left, and returned to South Carolina.

South Carolina Declaration of Independence. Charles G. Memminger, afterwards the "Secretary of the Treasury of the Confederate States of America," reported to the Secession Convention of South Carolina a "Declaration of the Causes which justify the Secession of South Carolina from the Federal Government." Various causes were specified, among which was "a sectional combination for the subversion of the Constitution" in the North; but it is remarkable that in no word was the national government charged with the slightest actual wrongdoing. It ended with the concluding words of the great Declaration of Independence. It was a supplement to an "Address of the People of South Carolina to the People of the Slave-holding States," prepared by R. Barnwell Rhett, in which they declared, "All we demand of other people is to be let alone to work out our own high destinies. United together, and we must be the most independent, as we are the most important, among the nations of the world. United together, and we must be a great, free, and prosperous people, whose renown must spread throughout the civilized world, and pass down, we trust, to remotest ages. We ask you to join us in forming a confederacy of slave-holding states." At about the same time the governor of South Carolina (Pickens) issued a proclamation declaring that "South Carolina is, and has a right to be, a separate, sovereign, free, and independent state, and vested with all the powers of such a state," and declared the proclamation to be given under his hand, on the 24th day

of December, 1860, "and in the eighty-fifth year of the sovereignty and independence of South Carolina." Then the Charleston newspapers published intelligence from all the states in the Union under the head of "Foreign News," and a small medal was struck in commemoration of the great act of separation. The governor was authorized to receive ambassadors, ministers, consuls, etc., from foreign countries.

South Carolina Flag and Medal (1861). On the day when the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession was passed, the convention

adopted a new banner for the empire. It was composed of red and blue silk, the former being the ground of the standard, and the latter, in the form of a cross, bearing fifteen stars. The larger star was for South Carolina. In one upper corner was a white crescent moon, and in the other a palmetto-tree. A small medal was also struck to commemorate the important event.



SOUTH CAROLINA FLAG.



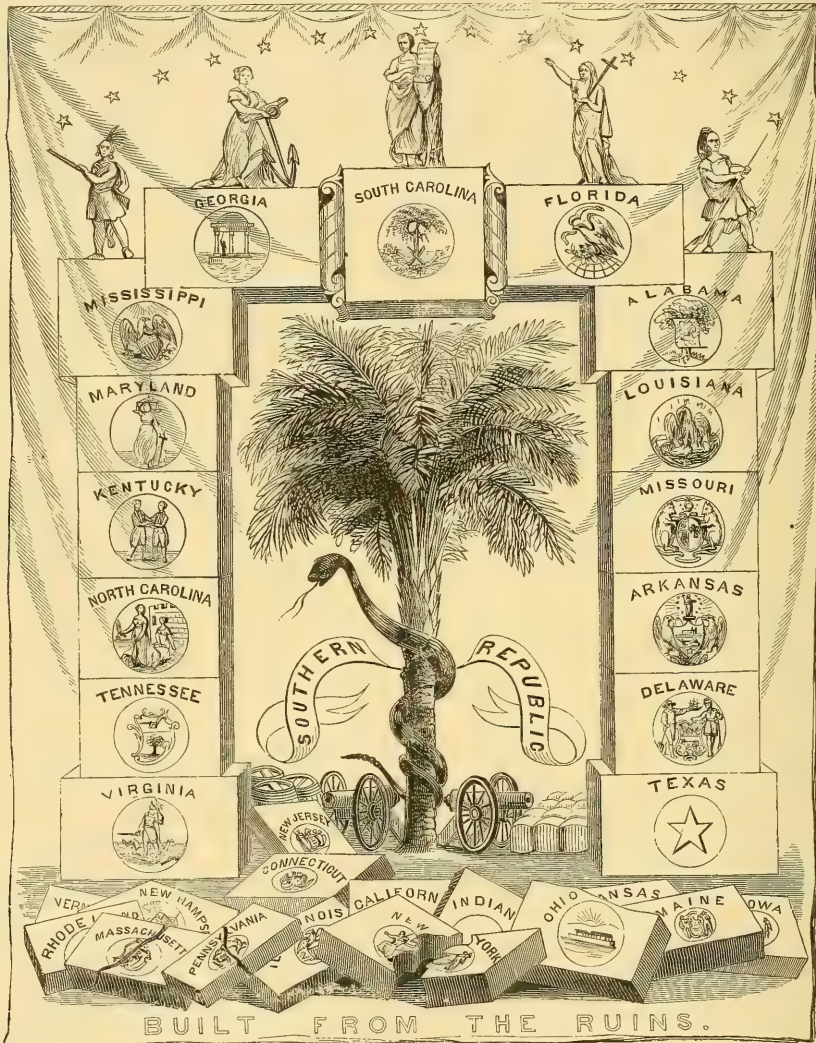
SOUTH CAROLINA MEDAL.

South Carolina Flag in the Revolution. When a portion of Colonel Moultrie's regiment had taken possession of Fort Johnson (which see), he was requested to devise a banner. The standard military uniform of the colony was blue, and the first and second regiments wore a silver crescent on the fronts of their caps; he therefore ordered a large flag of blue silk, with a simple white or silver crescent on the right-hand corner.

South Carolina, OCCUPATION OF, BY THE BRITISH (1780). On the fall of Charleston, Clinton sent three expeditions into the interior to secure the submission of the state. One, under Cornwallis, marched up the Santee towards Camden; another, under Lieutenant-colonel Cruger, was ordered to penetrate the country as far as Fort Ninety-six; and a third, under Lieutenant-colonel Brown, marched up to and took post at Augusta, in Georgia. On his march, Cornwallis despatched Tarleton to capture a Virginia force under Colonel Buford, fleeing up the north side of the Santee. (See *Buford's Defeat*.) Clinton issued a circular calling upon those loyally disposed to form a militia to uphold the royal authority. A proclamation followed (May 22), threatening great severity and confiscation of property as a penalty for appear-

ing in arms against the king; and a second one (June 1) offered pardon to all excepting a few who had caused the execution of offending loyalists. No resistance was made to the march of the expeditions through the state. By a proclamation (June 3, 1780), no alternative was allowed the inhabitants but to take an oath of allegiance to the crown or to be treated as enemies of the sovereign. The conquest of South Carolina being completed, Sir Henry returned

Dec. 20, 1860 (see *South Carolina Secession Convention*), was signed the same evening in the hall of the South Carolina Institute, in the presence of the constituted authorities of the state. When the convention adjourned for dinner at four o'clock in the afternoon, and went in regular procession from St. Andrew's Hall, they were cheered by the populace, and the chimes of St. Michael's Church pealed forth *Auld Lang Syne* and other airs. At seven o'clock they reassem-



BANNER OF THE SOUTH CAROLINA SECESSION CONVENTION.

to New York, leaving Cornwallis, with four thousand troops, to hold South Carolina in subjection. There was then (June, 1780) only a single Continental regiment (Porterfield's Virginia) in the whole Southern Department, extending from the Roanoke to the Gulf of Mexico.

South Carolina Ordinance of Secession, SIGNING OF THE. The South Carolina Ordinance of Secession, adopted by the convention

bled in the hall of the Institute for the purpose of signing it. The ordinance had been engrossed on parchment, twenty-five by thirty-three inches in size, with the great seal of South Carolina attached. The governor and his council and both branches of the Legislature were present, and the hall was densely crowded with men and women of Charleston. Back of the president's chair was suspended a banner, composed

of cotton cloth, with devices painted in water-colors by a Charleston artist named Alexander. The base of the design was a mass of broken and disordered blocks of stone, on each of which were the name and arms of a free-labor state. Rising from this mass were two columns of perfect and symmetrical blocks of stone, connected by an arch of the same material, on each of which, fifteen in number, were seen the name and coat-of-arms of a slave-labor state. South Carolina formed the key-stone of the arch, on which stood a statue of Calhoun leaning upon a trunk of a palmetto-tree, and holding a scroll bearing the words "Truth, Justice, and the Constitution." On each side of the statue were allegorical figures of Faith and Hope. Beyond each of these was a North American Indian with a rifle. In the space formed by the two columns and the arch was the device of the seal and flag of South Carolina—namely, a palmetto-tree, with a rattlesnake coiled around its trunk, and at its base a park of cannons and some emblems of state commerce. On a ribbon fluttering from the body of the tree were the words "Southern Republic." Over the whole design were fifteen stars in the segment of a circle, the (then) number of the slave-labor states. Underneath all, in large letters, were the words "Built from the Ruins." So it was that the South Carolina State Convention proclaimed to the world, at the moment when they signed the Ordinance of Secession, their determination to lay the Republic in ruins, and upon these ruins to construct an empire whose corner-stone should be human slavery. On each side of the platform on which the president sat was a real palmetto-tree. After the signature of every member of the convention was affixed to the ordinance the venerable Rev. Dr. Bachman advanced to the front of the platform and uttered a petition to Almighty God for his blessing and favor on the act. Then the president stepped forward, read and exhibited the instrument to the people, and said, "The Ordinance of Secession has been signed, and I proclaim the State of South Carolina an independent commonwealth." A great shout of exultation went up from the multitude. So closed the first great act of the American Civil War.

South Carolina Preparing for Secession.

On the day when Lincoln was elected (Nov. 5, 1860) the South Carolina Legislature assembled at Columbia, when joint resolutions of both houses providing for a state convention to consider the withdrawal of the state from the Union were offered. Some of the more cautious members counselled delay, and to wait for the co-operation of other states, but this advice was condemned by more zealous members. "If we wait for co-operation," said one of them, "slavery and state rights will be abandoned; state sovereignty and the cause of the South lost forever." James Chestnut, then a member of the United States Senate, recommended immediate secession; and W. W. Boyce, a member of the national House of Representatives, said, "I think the only policy for us is to arm as soon as we receive authentic intelligence of the

election of Lincoln. It is for South Carolina, in the quickest manner and by the most direct means, to withdraw from the Union." In the course of the debate the fact came out that emissaries had already been sent from the Southern States to Europe to prepare the way for aid and recognition of the contemplated "Southern Confederacy" by foreign governments; and that France had made propositions for the arrangement of such relations between that country and the government about to be established in South Carolina as would insure to the former such a supply of cotton for the future as its increasing demand for that article would require. On Nov. 12 the Legislature passed an act authorizing a state convention. That Legislature also declared that a "sovereign state of the Union had a right to secede from it; that the states of the Union are not subordinate to the national government, were not created by it, and do not belong to it; that they created the national government; that from them it derives its powers; that to them it is responsible; and that when it abuses the trust reposed in it they, as equal sovereigns, have a right to resume the powers respectively delegated to it by them. (See *State Supremacy and Resolutions* of '98.)

South Carolina Secession Convention. As soon as the Legislature of South Carolina authorized (Nov. 12, 1860) a state convention, orators of every grade went out to harangue the people in all parts of the state. Every speech was burdened with complaints of "wrongs suffered by South Carolina in the Union." The organ of the Secessionists in Charleston called upon all natives of South Carolina in the army and navy to violate their oaths—to resign their commissions and join in the revolt. "The mother looks to her sons to protect her from outrage," said this fiery newspaper (the *Charleston Mercury*); "she is sick of the Union—disgusted with it upon any terms within the range of the widest possibility." This was responded to by the resignation of many South Carolinians; and the leaders in the revolutionary movement declared that "not a son of that state would prove loyal to the old flag." They commended the course of Lieutenant J. R. Hamilton, a South Carolinian and member of the United States Navy, who issued a circular letter to his "fellow-Southerners" in the marine service, expatiating much upon honor, and saying, "What the South asks of you now is to bring with you every ship and man you can, that we may use them against the oppressors of our liberties and the enemies of our aggravated but united people." Vigilance committees were organized to discover and suppress every anti-secession sentiment and movement in South Carolina. These committees, clothed with power, were called "Guardians of Southern Rights." Their officers possessed full authority to decide all questions brought before them, and their decision was "final and conclusive." Their patrols were authorized to arrest and bring before the committees all suspected white men, and to suppress all gatherings of negroes. It was un-

der such circumstances that the election of members of the convention was held, and the *Charleston Mercury* was enabled to say to the officers of the army and navy natives of that state it was calling home, "You need have no more doubt of South Carolina's going out of the Union than of the world's turning round. *Every man that goes to the convention will be a pledged man*—pledged for immediate separate state secession in any event whatever." This promise was uttered before the members of the convention had been chosen. They were chosen Dec. 3, 1860. They met at Columbia, the capital of the state, on the 17th, and chose David F. Jamison president. The great prevalence of



DAVID F. JAMISON.

the small-pox there caused the delegates to adjourn to Charleston, where they proceeded at once to business. They chose several committees, one of which was to draft an ordinance of secession. J. A. Inglis was chairman of that committee, and on Dec. 20 reported the following ordinance: "We, the people of the State of South Carolina, in convention assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained, that the ordinance adopted by us in convention on the 23d day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States was ratified, and also all acts and parts of acts of the General Assembly of the state ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed, and the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other states under the name of the United States of America is hereby dissolved." This ordinance had been framed at the house of Edmund Rhett, at Beaufort, S. C., some time before, and the committee to report it had been selected with Mr. Inglis at its head. The ordinance, reported at noon Dec. 20, 1860, was adopted just forty-five minutes after it was submitted to the convention. There was no debate, for every man was pledged to vote for it. The one hundred and sixty-nine members of the convention were then assembled in St. Andrew's Hall, and it was agreed that at seven o'clock in the evening they should go in procession to Institute Hall and sign "the great act of deliverance and liberty."

It was done. (See *South Carolina Ordinance of Secession, Signing of the.*)

South Carolina, STATE GOVERNMENT FORMED IN (1776). Following the example of New Hampshire, the convention of South Carolina resolved itself into an assembly (March 24, 1776) and chose from its own body a legislative council of thirteen members. John Rutledge was chosen president, and Henry Laurens vice-president. A judiciary was organized, and William Henry Drayton appointed chief-justice. This government was formed to last only during the war.

South Carolina, THE COLONY OF, was one of the original thirteen states of the Union. It is supposed by some that Verazzani visited its coast in 1524. D'Allyon was there in 1520 (see *America, Discoverers of*); but the first attempt to colonize that region was made by John Ribault, at the head of some Huguenots, in 1562. (See *Huguenots in America.*) The region was granted to eight of the favorites of Charles II., in 1663 (see *North Carolina, The Colony of*), and in 1670 they sent three ships with emigrants, under the direction of Sir William Sayle and Joseph West, to plant a colony below Cape Fear. They entered Port Royal Sound, landed on Beaufort Island, on the spot where the Huguenots had dwelt, and there Sayle died, in 1671. The immigrants soon afterwards abandoned Beaufort, entered Charleston harbor, went up the Ashley River, and seated themselves on its banks, a few miles above the site of Charleston. West exercised the authority of chief-magistrate until the arrival of Governor Sir John Yeamaus, in December, 1671, with fifty families and a large number of slaves from Barbadoes. The next year representative government was established, under the title of the Carteret County Colony—so called in honor of Sir George Carteret. Ten years afterwards the colony removed to Oyster Point, at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, and there the city of Charleston was founded. Very soon afterwards some Dutch families, dissatisfied with English rule at New York, went to South Carolina, and planted themselves along the Edisto and Santee rivers. Like the settlers in North Carolina, those of the Southern colony refused to be governed by the constitution framed by Shaftesbury and Locke. (See *Fundamental Constitutions.*) Political and religious quarrels distracted the colony a long time, and finally the coast Indians made raids upon them, plundering the plantations of grain and cattle, and menacing the inhabitants. They were subdued in 1680. In 1690 a large number of Huguenots, or French Protestants, settled in the colony, and afterwards a considerable number of Swiss, Irish, and German emigrants made their way to South Carolina. The people were often in opposition to the proprietary rulers. They broke into open rebellion, and, in 1690, the popular Assembly impeached and banished Governor John Colleton. While this turbulence prevailed, Seth Sothel arrived, pursuant to his sentence of banishment from North Carolina, and the people unanimously chose him for governor. For two years he plundered and oppressed them, when he, too, was deposed and

banished. Philip Ludwell came to re-establish the authority of the proprietors, but the people, thoroughly aroused, resolved not to tolerate even so good a man as he. He tried to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions, but soon gladly withdrew from the turbulent community. The good Quaker, John Archdale, came in 1635 as governor, and by his mild republican rule made the people happy. In 1702 Governor Moore led an expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine. It was unsuccessful, and burdened the colony with a debt of more than \$26,000, for the payment of which they issued bills of credit for the first time. Moore conducted a more successful expedition against the Appalachian Indians (who were in league with the Spaniards) in 1703. Their whole territory in Georgia was made tributary to the South Carolinians. This cause of excitement had just passed by, when the proprietors attempted to establish the Anglican Church ritual as the state method of worship in South Carolina. The Assembly passed acts to that effect, and Dissenters were excluded from all public offices. This being a violation of chartered rights, the British ministry compelled the Colonial Assembly to repeal the law (1706), but the Church party remained dominant. French and Spanish war-vessels entered Charleston harbor with troops, to capture the province and annex it to the Spanish domain of Florida; but they were repulsed, with great loss. A few years later there was a general Indian confederacy formed, to exterminate the white people of South Carolina. They came upon the South Carolinians from Georgia, the west, and from North Carolina, thirsting for vengeance; but, after several severe encounters, the South Carolinians were victorious. The proprietors appearing indifferent to the sufferings of the colonists, the people arose in their might in 1719, deposed the proprietary governor, and appointed Colonel Moore governor of the colony. This course was sustained by the crown, and in 1729 the King of England bought the two Carolinas for \$80,000, and they became separate royal provinces. From that time until the French and Indian War the general history of the Carolinas presented nothing very remarkable, excepting their brave efforts for defending the colonies against the Indians and Spaniards. The South Carolinians warmly sympathized with the patriotic movements in the North preceding the old war for independence. The royal governor of South Carolina (Lord Campbell) abdicated the government, and took refuge on board a British war-vessel, in September, 1775, when the government was administered by a Provincial Council. A state constitution was adopted March 19, 1776, and John Rutledge was chosen the first governor of the new state, with the title of President. (See *Rutledge, John*.) South Carolina suffered much in the war that ensued.

South Mills, BATTLE OF (1862). General Reno, with New England, New York, and Pennsylvania troops, went in transports up the Pasquotank to within three miles of Elizabeth city, and, landing cautiously in the night of April 19,

a part of them, under Colonel Hawkins, pushed forward to surprise and intercept a body of Confederates known to be about leaving that place for Norfolk. Misled by his guide, the Confederates were apprised of the movement before he appeared, and near South Mills, in the vicinity of Camden Court-house, they assailed the Nationals with grape and canister. Reno, with his main body, met the attack bravely. The Confederates were flanked, and hastily withdrew. A gunboat drove them out of the woods along the river-bank, and Hawkins's Zouaves made a charge, but were repulsed with heavy loss. The Confederates were defeated. This event caused much consternation at Norfolk. The Nationals lost (chiefly of Hawkins's Zouaves) fifteen killed, ninety-six wounded, and two made prisoners. The Confederates left thirty killed and wounded on the field. Winton, at the head of the Chowan; Plymouth, at the mouth of the Roanoke; and Washington, at the head of the Pamlico River, were now all quietly occupied by the National forces. For the remainder of the year the coasts of North Carolina were in possession of the Nationals.

South Mountain, BATTLE ON. The National army pursued the Confederates from Frederick (see *Invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania*) in two columns over South Mountain into the beautiful valley of Antietam Creek. General Burnside led the right and centre by way of Turner's Gap; and the left, composed of Franklin's corps; went by the way of Crampton's Gap, on the same range, nearer Harper's Ferry. The division of D. H. Hill was the only Confederate force guarding Turner's Gap, and McLaws was guarding Crampton's Gap. The Confederates had no idea that the Nationals would make such a vigorous pursuit as they did; but on the morning of Sept. 14, 1862, a startling apparition met the eyes of the Confederates from the mountain heights. Pleasanton's cavalry was leading nearly the whole of the National army down the Kittoc-tan Hills and across the lovely valley towards South Mountain. A portion of General Cox's division of Ohio troops reached the borders of the Gap early in the forenoon, and, under the cover of a portion of McMullin's battery, he pressed up the wooded and rocky acclivity. He was at first confronted by Garland's division, which was badly cut up and its commander killed in the severe action that ensued. The place of this division was soon filled by the troops of Anderson, supported by Rhodes and Ripley. These held the position for a long time, but finally gave way, and Cox gained the crest of the mountain. It was now noon. Very soon the battle assumed far greater proportions, for two of Longstreet's brigades came to the aid of Hill. These were soon followed by Longstreet himself with seven brigades, making the Confederate force defending the Gap and the two crests about thirty thousand strong. First the divisions of National troops of Wilcox, Rodman, and Sturgis came up, followed soon after by Hooker's troops, and a little later a general battle-line was formed with Ricketts's, Reno's, and King's divisions. At four o'clock fighting was

general all along the line, and at many points the ground was contested inch by inch. General Hatch, who commanded King's division, was wounded, when General Doubleday took his command, his own passing to the care of General Wainwright, who was soon disabled. At dusk Hooker had flanked and beaten the Confederate left. Reno's command, which had gained a foothold on the crest, fought desperately until dark. At about sunset their leader, at the head of the troops in an open field, was killed. He died almost at the moment of victory, and his command devolved on General Cox. Meade, with his brigades, led by General Seymour and Colonels Magilton and Gallagher, fought on the right of Hatch's division. General Duryée, whose fine brigade of Ricketts's division had participated in the later struggles of Pope with Lee, was just coming up when the contest ceased at that point. Meanwhile the brigades of Gibbons and Hartsuff had pushed up the road along the Gap, fighting and winning steadily until about nine o'clock in the evening, when, having reached a point near the summit of the Gap, their ammunition was exhausted. But the victory for the Nationals was secured. During the night Lee withdrew his forces, and so ended the battle of South Mountain. Franklin meanwhile, confronted by Confederates led by Howell Cobb (late Secretary of the national Treasury), had fought and driven his enemies over the mountain into the valley at Crampton's Gap, and held a position in Pleasant Valley, within six miles of Harper's Ferry.

South Sea Surveying and Exploring Expedition (1838). Propositions having been made to the national government for the fitting out of an expedition to survey and explore the South seas in the Antarctic regions, it was approved, and in December, 1836, a scientific corps was appointed, to receive pay from July 4, 1837. It was to be commanded by Captain Ap Catesby Jones, of the United States Navy. An expedition was organized, but, serious disputes arising, it was disbanded. Another was organized, and its command was intrusted to Lieutenant Charles Wilkes, of the navy. The scientific corps consisted of nine members—namely, H. Hale, Philologist; C. Pickering and T. R. Peale, Naturalists; J. Couchong, Conchologist; J. D. Dana, Mineralogist; W. Rich, Botanist; J. Drayton and A. T. Agate, Draughtsmen; Mr. Brackenridge, Horticulturist. The squadron consisted of the frigates *Vincennes* and *Peacock*, and the brig *Porpoise* and schooners *Flying-fish* and *Sea-horse* as tenders, with the store-ship *Relief*. It sailed from Hampton Roads Aug. 18, 1838, and on Jan. 26, 1839, was anchored opposite the mouth of the Rio Negro, Patagonia. The squadron, after visiting various groups of islands in the Pacific, visited New South Wales. Leaving Sydney in December (1839), important discoveries were made in the Antarctic regions. Lieutenant Wilkes then visited and explored the Feejee and Hawaiian islands, and in 1841 visited the northwest coast of North America. He crossed the Pacific from San Francisco, Cal., and visited some of the islands of the Indian

Archipelago, and thence sailed to the Cape of Good Hope and the Island of St. Helena, and cast anchor in New York harbor June 10, 1842. The expedition had penetrated to 66° south latitude. It made a voyage of about ninety thousand miles, and brought home a large number of fine specimens of natural history and of other departments of scientific research, which are preserved in the custody of the National Institute, in the building of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington city.

Southern Army, THE (1780). After the defeat of Gates the Congress requested Washington to name his successor in command of the Southern army. He selected General Nathaniel Greene, and he was appointed Oct. 30, 1780. Major Henry Lee's corps of horse and some companies of artillery were ordered to the South. The Baron de Steuben was ordered to the same service; and Thaddeus Kosciuszko, a patriot of Poland, was chosen engineer of that department to supply the place of Dupontail, made prisoner at Charleston. Efforts were made to reorganize the Southern army. To supply the place of captured regiments, the Assembly of Virginia voted three thousand men, apportioned among the counties, and a special tax was laid to raise means to pay bounties. In addition to money offered, volunteers were each offered three hundred acres of land at the end of the war and "a healthy, sound negro" or \$200 in specie. Virginia also issued \$850,000 in bills of credit to supply the treasury. North Carolina used its feeble resources to the same end. Drafts and recruits, and one whole battalion, came forward; and as Cornwallis retired General Gates advanced, first to Salisbury, and then to Charlotte, where General Greene took the command (Dec. 2, 1780). On the following day Gates departed for the headquarters of Washington to submit to an inquiry into his conduct at Camden. Greene found the troops in a wretched condition—clothes in tatters, insufficient food, pay in arrears producing discontent, and not a dollar in the military chest. Subsistence was obtained only by impressment. But with his usual energy he prepared for active operations even with such unpromising materials, arranging the army in two divisions, and posting the main body at Cheraw, east of the Pedee; while Morgan and others were sent to occupy the country near the junction of the Pacolet and Broad rivers.

Southern Independence Association in England. A large proportion of the British ruling classes, from the prime-minister down to the verge of the "common people," were anxious to see the prosperous and influential Republic of the West overturned, and for more than two years gave every possible aid and comfort to the insurgents. Elated by the disasters to the National army at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville in the spring of 1863, these British sympathizers became very active, and urged their government to acknowledge the independence of the Confederate States. Public meetings were held in favor of the insurgents.

At one of these, held in the open air at Sheffield, May 26, 1863, Rev. Mr. Hopp offered the following resolution, which was adopted by an immense majority: "*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this meeting the government would act wisely, both for the interests of England and those of the world, were they immediately to enter into negotiations with the great powers of Europe for the purpose of obtaining the acknowledgment by them of the independence of the Confederate States of North America." In the spring of 1864 a "Southern Independence Association" was formed, with a British peer (Lord Wharncliffe) as president. Its membership was composed of powerful representatives of the Church, State, and trade. It was organized at Manchester in April. Nearly nine hundred names appeared on its list of members. Not a few of them were members of the House of Lords and House of Commons. There were baronets, clergymen, lawyers, magistrates, and merchants, prominent in all parts of the country. The funds at the disposal of the association were immense, and no one doubts that these were used without stint in furnishing the Confederate armies with arms and clothing, and so prolonging the war. This association was thoroughly condemned by every right-minded Englishman, and the British government was too prudent to listen to the suggestions of the association, or the proposals of members of the Peace faction in New York made to Lord Lyons, the British ambassador, six months before.

Southwest Pass, NAVAL ENGAGEMENT AT. In the fall of 1861 there was a blockading squadron at the Southwest Pass of the Mississippi River, composed of the war-steamer *Richmond*, sloops-of-war *Vincennes* and *Preble*, and steam-tender *Water-witch*, commanded by Captain J. Pope. J. S. Hollins, of the United States Navy, who had deserted his flag, was there in command of the *Manassas*, a Confederate ram, or iron-beaked and iron-clad vessel. About four o'clock on the morning of Oct. 12, 1861, this ram appeared suddenly close to the *Richmond*, and by the time an alarm could be given by the watch, her iron prow had struck the war-steamer abreast the port fore-channels, staving a hole in the ship's side. Then she withdrew and attempted to breach the *Richmond's* stern, but failed. A signal of danger had been given to the other vessels. They slipped their cables and ran down to the Pass, while the *Richmond* gave the assailant a volley from her port battery. The commander of the *Vincennes*, mistaking a signal, attempted to set fire to his vessel. They abandoned her, but, happily, the match intended to explode her magazine went out, and her crew returned to her. The *Richmond* and *Vincennes* had grounded, and for a while were bombarded by Hollins. He also sent down fire-rafts to burn them, but did not succeed. Hollins was soon driven up the river. The only damage he had done to the squadron was to slightly injure a coaling-schooner, sink a large boat, and pierce a hole in the side of the *Richmond*.

Sovereignty of the Confederacy (1861). The

first assumption of sovereignty by the "Congress" at Montgomery was on Feb. 12, when it was resolved that the new government should take under its charge all questions and difficulties then existing "between the sovereign states of the Confederacy and the government of the United States" relating to the occupation of forts, arsenals, navy-yards, and other public establishments. This action was extremely offensive to South Carolina, for in it they saw a vision of the fading sovereignty of their state, which had so lately been declared a "sovereign nation." It reduced that "nation" to the level of its "sister sovereignties." The Hotspurs of the coast region were about to rebel, for they claimed Fort Sumter and all other public property seized or to be seized in that state, as the individual property of South Carolina. These malcontents were pacified by being allowed to "humiliate the United States" by seizing Fort Sumter themselves (see *Fall of Fort Sumter*). The *Charleston Mercury* had sounded the trumpet of revolt by saying, "After two efforts to obtain peaceable possession of Fort Sumter, and a submission for two months to the insolent military domination in our bay of a handful of men, the honor of the state requires that no further intervention from any quarter should be tolerated, and that this fort should be taken by South Carolina alone."

Spain Fears America (1769). "The position and strength of the countries occupied by the Americans," said Grimaldi, the Spanish minister, in 1769, "excites a just alarm for the rich Spanish possessions on their borders. They have already introduced their grain and rice into our colonies by a commerce of interlopers. If this introduction should be legalized and extended to other objects of commerce, it would effectually increase the power and prosperity of a neighbor already too formidable. Moreover, should this neighbor separate from its metropolis, it would assume the republican form of government—and a republic is a government dangerous, from the wisdom, the consistency, and the solidity of the measures which it would adopt for executing such projects of conquest as it would naturally form." This was the reply of the Spanish minister to a suggestion of establishing free-trade in America. Grimaldi's fears were prophetic.

Spain Hostile to the United States. The Spanish court was more hostile to the United States than any other in Europe, for it was seen that encouragement to the revolt might hasten the independence of the Spanish-American colonies. Spain was not only hostile in principle, but was willing to be actively meddlesome in checking the good offices of France towards the United States. Soon after the arrival in Philadelphia in 1778 of the first French minister, a Spanish emissary (Juan de Miralles) appeared there, without any authority, but was received as a friend and diplomatic agent of Spain by the unsuspecting Congress. He was only a spy. France had pressed Spain to join her in helping the Americans, but the latter had steadily re-

fused, and when a despatch announcing the treaty reached Madrid the government was amazed, and saw spectres of colonial losses in the near future. Florida Blanca, the Spanish minister, suspected the good faith of the French; and when in April (1778) the French ambassador at Madrid asked him at what time Spain would take part in the war against Great Britain, he burst out into a tirade against the French policy. "The American deputies," he said, "are treated like the Roman consuls, to whom the kings of the East came to ask support." Blanca soon began the meditation of intrigues with Great Britain to crush or reduce the growing power of the United States.

Spain, RELATIONS WITH, AND HER COLONIES.

A leading topic in Congress early in 1818 was the course to be pursued towards Spain and her revolted colonies. (See *Spanish-American Governments, Recognition of the Independence of*.) The announcement in the President's message (December, 1817) that he had authorized expeditions against Amelia Island and Galveston (which see), produced remonstrances from Don Onís, the Spanish minister, and from Vincent Pazos, the yet unrecognized agent at Washington of the Spanish-American republics. Onís had primarily remonstrated against McGregor's enlistments at Charleston and Savannah. Pazos addressed a petition to Congress on the subject of McGregor's movements, but that body refused to receive it by a vote of one hundred and twenty-four to twenty-eight. On the same day (March 14, 1818) the President laid before Congress a voluminous correspondence between Don Onís and the Secretary of State which had been begun by a remonstrance of the former against the violation of the Spanish territory by the expedition of McGregor to Amelia Island, a measure which President Adams had justified because Spain was too weak to protect the United States against the adventurers collected there. Then followed a full discussion as to the boundaries of Louisiana and Florida, and the claims for Spanish spoliations on American commerce. Spain had offered to refer all the points in dispute to the arbitration of Great Britain, but the United States had declined the proposition.

Spain secretly Gives Aid to the Americans. Under the wise administration of Grimaldi, Spain trod cautiously in the footsteps of France and gave money to the American insurgents, but only on condition that the act should be kept a most profound secret, and at the same time the suspicions of England were parried by the warmest expressions of friendship. The unscrupulous Florida Blanca, a thorough monarchist, did not approve of giving aid to republicans, but proposed that France and Spain should send large reinforcements to their respective American colonies, and let England and her colonies continue their struggle for the mastery until both parties should be exhausted and invite the intervention of the two Bourbon dynasties as mediators, when the latter would be able, in the final adjustment, to take good care of their respective interests.

Spain, TREATY WITH (1795). Thomas Pinckney was sent on a special mission to Spain in 1795, where he negotiated a treaty which settled a long-pending dispute concerning the Spanish boundary and the navigation of the Mississippi River. This treaty was signed at Madrid by Thomas Pinckney and El Príncipe de la Paz on Oct. 20, 1795. It fixed the Florida boundary at the thirty-first degree of north latitude between the Mississippi and the Appalachicola, and east of the Appalachicola a line from the junction of the Flint to the head of the St. Mary, and thence by that river to the sea. The navigation of the Mississippi was to be free to both parties throughout its entire extent. The Americans were to enjoy a right of deposit at New Orleans for three years, at the end of which period either this privilege was to be continued, or an equivalent establishment was to be assigned them at some other convenient point on the lower Mississippi. Neither party was to make alliances with the Indian tribes living within the territories of the other, nor was either party to allow its Indians to carry hostilities into the territories of the other. It made stipulations concerning commerce and neutral rights, and a board of commissioners was provided for to liquidate losses on the part of the Americans in consequence of illegal captures by Spanish cruisers, such losses to be paid by the Spanish crown.

Spalding, SOLOMON, author of the *Book of Mormon*, was born at Ashford, Conn., in 1761; died at Amity, Washington County, Penn., in 1816. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1785, and in 1787 became a Congregational clergyman as a licentiate. In 1797 he was ordained an evangelist, but on account of ill-health never settled over a congregation. While living in Salem, Ohio, about 1812, he wrote a work of fiction, suggested by the opening of some ancient mounds, entitled *The Manuscript Found*, and this was the *Book of Mormon* fraudulently used afterwards. (See *Smith, Joseph*, and *Mormonism as it Existed in 1875*.)

Spangenberg, AUGUSTUS GOTTLIEB, Ph.D., was born at Keetlenberg, Germany, July 15, 1704; died near Herrubut, Sept. 18, 1792. He was a benevolent teacher and helper of poor children. Joining the Moravians (which see) in 1733, he was sent as a missionary to the West Indies and North America in 1735. He established a colony in Georgia, and received a grant of land from the trustees: He was the founder of Bethlehem, a Moravian settlement in Pennsylvania, and in 1743 he was made bishop. He crossed the Atlantic Ocean several times to look after the Church in America, and on the death of Count Zinzendorf in 1760 he was called to the Supreme Council of the sect. In 1764 he was appointed supreme inspector in Upper Alsatia. In 1789 Bishop Spangenberg became president of the General Directory.

Spaniards, THE, IN TEXAS. The French under the lead of La Salle (which see) made the first European settlement in Texas. In 1714 the Viceroy of Mexico proceeded to colonize the

country with Spaniards by planting missions in that territory. One was established at Natchitoches, within the present limits of Louisiana, another west of the Sabine, and others at different points. The establishment of these missions was under the direction of Captain Don Domingo Ramo, and they were first in the hands of the Franciscans. The mission stations were really Spanish military posts. When war between France and Spain broke out in 1718, the French broke up these posts, but they were soon re-established. Down to 1720, the only Spanish inhabitants of Texas were in the missions, but in that year the Spanish government ordered the transportation of four hundred families from the Canaries to Texas, but only thirteen families arrived that year and settled at San Antonio. This new population stimulated the missions to greater efforts. A Spanish governor of Texas was appointed. The population of Texas increased but slowly. So late as 1744 it did not exceed fifteen hundred souls. That province remained in the possession of Spain until the independence of Mexico was achieved (see *Mexico*), and it was part of that republic until it won its own independence in 1836.

Spanish-American Governments, RECOGNITION OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE. The rising of the people of the Spanish-American provinces to secure their political independence of Spain began soon after the royal family of Portugal abandoned Europe and took refuge in Brazil in 1807. The rising began in Buenos Ayres, Venezuela, and Chili. In 1810 Mexico revolted, but did not secure its independence until 1821. The other states followed at various intervals, Bolivia, in 1824, being the last. The people of the United States naturally sympathized with these movements. When the diplomatic appropriation bill came up in Congress in the spring of 1818 (March 24), Henry Clay moved to insert an appropriation for a minister to the new South American Republic of La Plata. Early in the session of 1819 he proposed the acknowledgment of the South American republics, but it was considered premature. He brought the question before Congress again early in 1821, when the House of Representatives adopted resolutions to that effect. In his annual message (Dec. 3, 1821), President Monroe called the attention of Congress to these republics, suggesting that they were really independent of Spain and deserved acknowledgment. In accordance with these suggestions, a resolution was offered in the House of Representatives in January, 1822, for recognizing the independence of Mexico and five provinces of South America formerly under the dominion of Spain. The vote in the House in favor was nearly unanimous, and \$100,000 were appropriated to defray the expenses of envoys to those republics, who were soon afterwards appointed by the President. Before these states had assumed a permanent shape, their independence was formally acknowledged by the United States, openly and boldly, in the face of the world. This measure was proposed by President Monroe in a special message, March 8, 1822.

Spanish Attack on Georgia. Admiral Vernon's disaster before Carthagena (see *Vernon*) inspired the Spaniards with courage, and an expedition against Georgia and South Carolina was fitted out at Havana. Monteano, the Spanish general, sailed from that port in June, 1742, with three thousand men, but, ignorant of the coast and the proper objects to attack, he wasted much time among the inlets of the Georgia shores. By an artful stratagem, Oglethorpe, with a much inferior force, repelled an attack on Frederica (see *Oglethorpe*, *James Edward*), after which the Spanish armament returned to Cuba. Charleston had been greatly alarmed by this threatening force, and had the Spanish general been aware of its weakness, he might have sailed thither and captured it with ease. After the Spaniards had retired, Vernon sent five hundred men to garrison Charleston.

Spanish Board of Trade. In 1507, Ferdinand of Spain established a court which he called *Casa de Contratacion*, or Board of Trade, to which he committed the administration of American affairs.

Spanish Coins, SUPPRESSION OF, IN THE UNITED STATES. In February, 1857, Congress directed by an act that Spanish quarters, eighths, and sixteenths of a dollar should only be received by public officers at the rate of twenty, ten, and five cents, and that these coins should be sent to the Mint. The object was to drive these worn-out coins from circulation. Provision was also made for the coinage of a small new cent, composed of copper and nickel.

Spanish Conquests in West Florida (1779). Galvez, the Spanish governor of New Orleans, promptly took measures to establish the claim of Spain to the territory east of the Mississippi. He invaded West Florida with fourteen hundred men, Spanish regulars, American volunteers, and colored people. He took Fort Bute, at Pass Manchac (September, 1779), and then he went against Baton Rouge, where the British had four hundred regulars and one hundred militia. The post speedily surrendered, as did also Fort Panmure, recently built at Natchez. A few months later he captured Mobile, leaving Pensacola the only port of West Florida in possession of the British.

Spanish Expedition against Louisiana. The Americans claimed that the boundary between Louisiana and Mexico was the Rio Grande, while the Spaniards limited the territory acquired from France to a narrow strip along the western bank of the Mississippi. Both sides had hitherto regarded the Sabine as a sort of provisional boundary; but the Spanish commander in Texas crossed that river with a body of irregular cavalry, in 1805, and occupied the settlement at Bayou Pierre, on the Red River, a few miles above Natchitoches, the westernmost American military station. It was deemed necessary to repel this aggression, and orders were sent to General Wilkinson, at St. Louis, then commander-in-chief of the American army and governor of the District of Louisiana, to reinforce, from posts in his territory,

the five hundred regulars in the Orleans Territory, and himself to take the command, to drive back the Spaniards. Wilkinson went to the Sabine, and made a peaceful arrangement that stopped the invasion. It was at this crisis that Burr's mysterious enterprise (which see) was undertaken.

Spanish Intrigues. Florida Blanca, continually fearing the threatened power of the United States, if independent, sought negotiations with France to adopt measures for restricting the inchoate republic within narrow territorial limits at the peace. Spain preferred the dominion of England in America to that of an independent republic that might corrupt the fidelity of her own colonies. He proposed that England, after the peace, should hold Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, and other places along the coast; but to this Vergennes replied that France was in honor bound by the treaty to uphold the independence of the whole thirteen states. The French minister at Philadelphia entered into the intrigue with Blanca, and zealously urged members of Congress to renounce all ambitious longings for an extension of territory; and this idea was favored by Morris and Jay of the New York delegation. To quiet the apprehensions of the Spanish court respecting the Americans as a race of conquerors, Vergennes asked them to peruse the constitutions of the several states, which, he said, would show that they would never be more than a feeble people.

Spanish Mediation Rejected. Early in 1779 the Spanish court offered to be a mediator between France and Great Britain. Pending this affair the French minister (Gerard) had urged Congress to fix what terms of peace they would accept and to appoint ministers authorized to negotiate. The Spanish offer was at first evaded and then rejected by Great Britain, when the Spanish court published a manifesto, which was equivalent to a declaration of war against England, and so, indirectly, gave aid to the United States. France, financially weak, now wished for peace, and therefore the minister suggested to Congress measures for securing it. (See *Independence, Longings for*.)

Spanish Minister, TROUBLE WITH (1806). Don Carlos Martinez, Marquis De Yrugo, succeeded Jaudennis as Spanish minister in 1796. He was quite a young man, free and easy in his manner, and well informed. His conduct was unexceptionable here until there was unpleasant feeling engendered between the two governments, on account of boundary claims concerning Louisiana. De Yrugo had married Sally McKean, the daughter of the chief-justice of Pennsylvania, and was a pleasant member of Philadelphia society; but his course on the Spanish question became offensive. In 1804 the editor of a newly established Federal newspaper in Philadelphia accused De Yrugo of attempting to bribe him to the support of the Spanish side of the boundary question. De Yrugo answered the charge in a long letter, in which he asserted that his only object was to

make the Americans acquainted with the rights of Spain. He claimed that he had a right to offer to pay a printer for inserting his paper. This answer not being deemed satisfactory, the Spanish government was asked to recall him. The Spanish government responded by asking that, as he had already asked leave to return, his departure be put upon that footing. It was allowed; but De Yrugo lingered about Washington in a manner "dissatisfactory to the President." He was told that his departure would be expected as soon as the inclement season would allow, to which he replied that he had a right to remain as long as he pleased, and that he should, so long as his conscience and the interests of his king inclined him to. In another letter he told the government that the minister of Spain received no orders from any one excepting his sovereign, and charged Madison (Secretary of State) with an invasion of his diplomatic rights.

Spanish Territory in the United States.

At one time or another more than one half the present territory of the United States has been subject to the King of Spain. From Mexico, the Spaniards claimed the country northward indefinitely. Cortez discovered California, and Spanish missionaries planted the cross far up the Pacific coast. In the interior, the Spanish adventurers west of the Rocky Mountains penetrated far to the northward (see *Coronado, Francis Vazquez de*)—almost to the present southern boundary of the British possessions—in search of the precious metals, and everywhere they planted the Spanish tokens of sovereignty. They held possession of the country along the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico (Florida and Texas) until a very recent period. Everywhere that Spanish missionaries and traders gained a foothold, the cross and the royal arms were set up.

Spanish West India Settlements, WAR UPON THE. War was begun by Great Britain against Spain in 1739, and Admiral Vernon (which see) was sent with a squadron to act against the Spanish dominions in the West Indies. He sailed from Jamaica with six ships, attacked Porto Bello (Nov. 21, 1739), and captured it. He blew up the castle and fortifications there and returned to Jamaica. The next year a great fleet was despatched to reinforce Vernon, who held possession of Porto Bello and Chagres, on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus of Panama, depots for all merchandise destined for the Pacific coast. The fleet conveyed an army of 12,000 men, led by General Cathcart, and the number of seamen amounted to 15,000. The army was composed of British regulars, battalions from the American colonies, and negroes from Jamaica—the greatest armament ever seen in the West Indies. The second in command of the troops was Sir Alexander Spotswood, formerly governor of Virginia. The expedition met with sad disaster. While the fleet, with the soldiers yet on board the transports, was blockading Carthagena, the yellow-fever broke out among them with great fury. Cathcart and Spots-

wood perished by this disease, and the command devolved on General Wentworth, who could not agree with Vernon. After several unsuccessful attacks upon the city, the enterprise was abandoned, with immense loss, chiefly through sickness. Additional troops were sent from Massachusetts, and, with them, Vernon sailed for Cuba, but was unsuccessful. A fleet under Anson, which had been sent to the Pacific to repeat the exploits of Drake (which see) on the American coast, was equally unsuccessful. England now found herself (1742) threatened with a war with France. The war, really begun through the resolution of British merchants to force a trade with Spanish-America, after spreading first to Europe and then to India, and adding nearly \$150,000,000 to the British national debt, was brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (which see) in the autumn of 1748.

Sparks, JARED, LL.D., historian, was born at Willington, Conn., May 10, 1789; died at Cambridge, Mass., March 14, 1866. He graduated at Harvard in 1815, and was a tutor there from 1817 to 1819. He had passed his youth in mechanical pursuits, and, during his college course, taught for a while a small private school at Havre de Grace, Md. He was in the militia that opposed Cockburn and his marauders. (See *Havre de Grace, Attack on*.) At Cambridge he studied theology; became an editor of the *North American Review*, and was sole proprietor and conductor of it from 1823 to 1830. He was a Unitarian minister at Baltimore from 1819 to 1823. In 1821 he was chaplain to the House of Representatives. In 1839 he was chosen professor of history at Harvard, occupying the position ten years, and from 1849 to 1852 he was president of that institution. In 1857 Dr. Sparks made a tour in Europe with his family, and afterwards resided at Cambridge until his death. Dr. Sparks's earlier publications were mostly on theological subjects. In 1834 he began the publication of his exceedingly useful work, *The Writings of George Washington, with a Life*. It was completed in 1837, in twelve volumes. He had already (1829-30) published *Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution*, twelve volumes, and *Life of Gouverneur Morris*, 1832. He edited *The American Almanac* for many years from 1830, and in 1840 completed *The Works of Benjamin Franklin*, in twelve volumes. He also edited a series of *American Biography*, fifteen volumes, of which he wrote several of the sketches. His last great labor in the field of American documentary history, in which he wrought so conscientiously and usefully, was the publication, in four volumes, in 1854, of *The Correspondence of the American Revolution*. His *Washington* cost him nine years of labor, including researches, in 1828, in the archives of London and Paris, which were then opened for historical purposes for the first time.

Spear's Raid. When Lee moved towards the Potomac in June, 1863, General Keyes, at Yorktown, prepared to menace Richmond, then held by a few troops under Henry A. Wise.

Colonel Spear, with about 1000 Massachusetts and Illinois cavalry, made a sudden dash upon White House, drove the Confederates from the post, and pushed on towards Richmond, greatly alarming Wise and the people. The mayor called upon the latter to "remember New Orleans," and to rally for the defence of the city. Spear turned northward to Hanover Courthouse and beyond, destroying the railway and capturing the wounded general W. H. F. Lee, at Beverly Ford, and, sweeping round, returned to White House, then held by Keyes, who, on July 1, moved about 6000 troops, under General Getty, towards the Chickahominy, with 1500 cavalry, to cut off Lee's communications with Richmond. This was not done, and Keyes fell back, to the great relief of the Confederates at Richmond.

Special Licenses to Trade (Napoleon's perfidy). In his greed for money the Emperor Napoleon relaxed the rigors of his decrees against the commerce of the world by an act of perfidy. While reducing thousands to misery for the sake of his favorite Continental System, he became himself a wholesale violator of it. He ordered licenses to be sold, at enormous prices, for introducing, subject to heavy duties, certain foreign articles otherwise prohibited. Certain favored manufacturers had thus been authorized, notwithstanding the Rambouillet Decree, to employ thirty or forty American vessels in the importation of cotton, fish-oil, dye-woods, salt fish, hides, and peltry from the ports of New York and Charleston, exclusively, and under an obligation to export, in return, certain special articles of French produce. Orders were sent to French consuls in America to grant certificates of origin to all American vessels bound to French ports, provided they were loaded with American products only—excepting cotton and tobacco, which could only be imported under special licenses.

Special Sessions of Congress have been seven in number previous to 1880—namely: First, May 15, 1797, called by President Adams, to provide for a threatened French war; second, Sept. 4, 1837, called by President Van Buren, to provide for financial exigencies, the banks having suspended specie payments (May 10); third, May 31, 1841, called by President Harrison, in March, to consider the revenues and finances of the country, particularly on the subject of rechartering the United States Bank; fourth, Aug. 21, 1856, called by President Pierce (three days after the adjournment of Congress), to provide appropriations for the army; fifth, July 4, 1861, called by President Lincoln, to provide for suppressing the great insurrection; sixth, Oct. 15, 1877, called by President Hayes; seventh, Mch. 18, 1878.

Specie Circular. Under the stimulus of loans easily made by state deposit banks (see *United States Bank*), speculators made extensive purchases of the public lands. In this business individuals and companies were engaged. To check this speculation, Senator Benton, of Missouri, offered a resolution (April 22, 1836) declaring that only gold and silver ought to be

received in payment for the public lands. The resolution was not acted upon in the Senate, but soon after Congress adjourned the Secretary of the Treasury (Levi Woodbury), by order of the President, issued a circular (July 11, 1836), directing the receivers of the public moneys to accept in payment for public lands nothing but gold and silver, and, for Virginia land, scrip, in certain cases. The immediate effect of this specie circular was to divert the course of coin from legitimate channels of commerce, and otherwise to derange the currency, for the deposit banks had loaned very large sums to speculators in the public lands. It greatly embarrassed the business community, but was, finally, beneficial to the nation. (See *Credit System and its Collapse*.) A bill for the partial repeal of the Specie Circular Act passed both houses of Congress at or near the close of the session, which President Jackson vetoed, and, to prevent its being passed by a two-third vote, he kept it in his hands until fifteen minutes before his term of office and that of the current Congress expired. His message, giving his reasons for his veto, was dated "March 3, 1837, quarter before twelve o'clock."

Specie Payments, RESUMPTION OF, IN 1816. The banks had suspended specie payments during the war. After its close a new National Bank had been created, which became the great controller and regulator of the finances of the country. The public money had been intrusted to the keeping of about one hundred local deposit banks, including all of much account in the South and West. The Secretary of the Treasury (Crawford), early in 1816, resolved on enforcing the resumption of specie payments, and, to induce the banks to concur in the measure, he offered to let these deposits lie till the middle of the year, and then draw out the money only as it might be needed for current expenditures. If they did not accede to this proposition, he threatened to transfer these balances at once to the new National Bank. The latter, also, promised its indulgence and support in the scheme of resumption; and, under the circumstances, the local banks did not venture to refuse. By the aid of a loan of \$500,000 from the new bank, whose notes now began to make their appearance, and after a suspension of specie payments for more than two years by the government and the banks, resumption was secured.

Specie Payments, RESUMPTION OF, IN 1879. (See *Resumption of Specie Payments*.)

Spencer, JOSEPH, was born at East Haddam, Conn., in 1714; died there, Jan. 13, 1789. He served as a lieutenant-colonel in the French and Indian War, having previously held the office of probate judge. In 1766 he was a member of the Governor's Council, and in June, 1775, Congress appointed him one of the brigadier-generals of the Continental army. In August, 1776, he was promoted to major-general. He resigned in June, 1778, and the next year was elected to Congress. In 1780 he was elected to the State Council, and held that position, by annual election, until his death.

Spies Executed at Franklin, Tenn. (1862). Two young men, calling themselves, respectively, Colonel Auton and Major Dunlop, rode up to the quarters of Colonel J. P. Baird, at Franklin, and represented themselves as officers of Rosecrans's army, detailed for special duty from the War Department, and declared they had narrowly escaped capture by Van Dorn's men, then closely investing the National troops at that place. They asked Baird to loan them \$50 to go to Nashville to refit, which he did, giving them at the same time a pass. As soon as they had departed, they were suspected of being spies, and were pursued and brought back. Rosecrans, telegraphed to, denied the existence of officers of their names in his army, and directed them to be tried by a court-martial, and, if found guilty, to be instantly hanged. They made a full confession. At a little past midnight they were found guilty, and between nine and ten o'clock the next morning were hanged on the limb of a wild-cherry tree near Fort Granger, three fourths of a mile from Franklin. The spies were relatives of the wife of General Robert E. Lee, the chief of the Confederate armies. "Auton" was Colonel Orton Williams, about twenty-three years of age, son of a gallant officer of the National army who was killed in Mexico, and "Dunlop" was his cousin, Lieutenant W. G. Peter. Williams was at that time on the staff of General Bragg and Peter on that of General Wheeler.

Spirit of New England Soldiers. There was a spirit of religious enthusiasm and genuine piety among the New England soldiers engaged in the early wars against the French and Indians on the frontiers. Indeed, such was the prevailing feeling among the whole people. Seth Pomeroy (afterwards appointed a brigadier-general in the Continental army), while engaged in the expedition against Louisburg, in 1745, wrote to his wife: "It looks as if our campaign would last long; but I am willing to stay till God's time comes to deliver the city into our hands." The patriotic woman answered: "Suffer no anxious thought to rest on your mind about me. The whole town is much engaged with concern for the expedition, how Providence will order the affair, for which religious meetings every week are maintained. I leave you in the hand of God." The New Hampshire troops, on that expedition, bore on their banners a motto given them by the great evangelist Whitefield: *Nil desperandum Christo sub duce*—"Nothing is to be despaired of, with Christ as a leader." This motto inspired many of the soldiers with the zeal of the old Crusaders.

Spoiliations, CLAIMS FOR (1817). The war had wiped out all claims for commercial spoiliations against England. Those against France, Spain, Holland, Naples, and Denmark remained to be settled. Gallatin, at Paris, and Eustis, at the Hague, had been instructed to press the subject. William Pinkney, former ambassador at London, appointed in Bayard's place as minister to Russia, had been also commissioned to take Naples in his way, and to ask payment for Ameri-

ican vessels and cargoes formerly confiscated by Murat, the Napoleonic sovereign. The restored Bourbon government demurred. The demand, they said, had never been pressed upon Murat himself, and they disclaimed any responsibility for the acts of one whom they regarded as a usurper, by whom they had suffered more than had the Americans. Notwithstanding an American ship of war—the *Washington*, 74 guns—and several armed sloops were in the Bay of Naples, Pinkney could not obtain any recognition of the claims, and left for Russia.

Spottswood, SIR ALEXANDER, Governor of Virginia from 1710 to 1723, was born at Tangier, Africa, in 1676; died at Annapolis, Md., June 7, 1740. He had served in the army under the Duke of Marlborough; was wounded in the battle of Blenheim. He came to Virginia soon afterwards as governor. In 1736 he was colonial postmaster, and in 1739 commander of the forces intended to operate against Florida. Governor Spottswood was the first who explored the Appalachian chain of mountains, and he was a zealous friend of the College of William and Mary and of efforts to Christianize the Indians.

Spottsylvania Court-house, BATTLE OF (1864). Lee was evidently satisfied, at the close of the battle of the Wilderness (which see), that he could not maintain a further contest with Grant on the ground he (Lee) had chosen, so he retired behind intrenchments, where he was found standing on the defensive by the skirmish-line of the Nationals, sent out at daybreak on Saturday morning, May 7, 1864. There had been sharp skirmishing the day before. A charge had been made on Hancock's corps, when seven hundred of his cavalry were captured. Grant had no desire to renew the conflict there, and after dark that night he put his army in motion towards Spottsylvania Court-house, fifteen miles southeast from the battle-field. Warren and Sedgwick took the direct route by the Brock road, and Hancock and Burnside, with the trains, by a road farther east. The march was slow, for many obstacles—such as felled trees and opposing troops—were in the way. Lee had anticipated Grant's movement, and was pushing on by a parallel road towards the same destination. His advance, under General Anderson, continued the march all night, and reached the vicinity of Spottsylvania Court-house and intrenched before Warren came up. By the evening of the 8th Lee's whole force were intrenched on a ridge around Spottsylvania Court-house, facing north and east. The following day was spent by Grant in making dispositions for attack, and by Lee in strengthening his position. There had been sharp fighting the day before (Sunday, May 8) between Warren and a force of the Confederates. Warren held his position until relief arrived from Sedgwick, when the Confederates were repulsed. The Nationals lost about thirteen hundred men. The commanders of several regiments fell. One Michigan regiment went into battle with two hundred men, and came out with twenty-three. The day was intensely hot, and many suffered

from sun-stroke. Monday, the 9th, was comparatively quiet in the morning. There was skirmishing nearly all day. In the afternoon General Sedgwick was killed by the bullet of a sharpshooter while superintending the planting of cannons on a redoubt, and his command of the Sixth Corps devolved on General H. G. Wright. Towards night Grant ordered another advance on the Confederates. The divisions of Gibbon and Birney, of Hancock's corps, crossed a branch of the Po River, and had a severe struggle. Hancock attempted to capture a wagon-train. He had made a lodgment with three divisions, and was pushing forward, when he was recalled for other service. On his return he was attacked, and lost heavily. The woods between a part of his troops and the river had taken fire, and many of his men perished in the flames. That night Lee's army occupied Spottsylvania Court-house, and stood squarely across the path of the intended march of the Army of the Potomac towards Richmond. Everything was in readiness for battle on the morning of the 10th. The main attack by the Nationals was against Lee's left centre, strongly intrenched on Laurel Hill, wooded, and surrounded by a dense growth of cedar. It was the strongest point in the Confederate line. In two attacks the Nationals were repulsed, with heavy loss. At five o'clock in the afternoon the Second and Fifth corps moved to the attack. The conflict was fearful, and the Nationals were repulsed. The assault was repeated an hour later, with a similar result. In the two attacks, nearly six thousand Unionists had fallen, while not more than six hundred of the Confederates had been disabled. The enterprise was abandoned. Farther to the left, a portion of the Sixth Corps carried the first line of the Confederate intrenchments, and captured nine hundred prisoners and several guns. Then the first day's real battle at Spottsylvania Court-house was ended. On the morning of the 11th Grant wrote to the Secretary of War: "We have now ended the sixth day of very heavy fighting. The result to this time is much in our favor. Our losses have been heavy, as well as those of the enemy. I think those of the enemy must be greater. We have taken over five thousand prisoners by battle, while he has taken from us but few, except stragglers. I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer." The 11th was mostly spent in preparing for another battle. Grant determined to strike Lee's right centre where it appeared most vulnerable. The night was very dark and stormy. He moved at midnight, and Hancock took a position within twelve hundred yards of the Confederate line. He stormed it at four o'clock on the morning of the 12th. He burst through the lines, and, after a hand-to-hand conflict inside the trenches, captured four thousand men, and drove his adversaries through the woods towards the village. At the second line of intrenchments Hancock's men, having lost their organization, were forced to retire to the first, which they held with the aid of the Sixth Corps. Five times during the day Lee attempted to dislodge Hancock, but was repulsed each

time, with heavy loss. So fierce had been the battle that one half of the forest within range of the musketry was destroyed by bullet-wounds. A tree eighteen inches in diameter was entirely cut in two by musket-balls. Meanwhile Burnside, on the left, and Warren, on the right, had made attacks on Lee's wings, but were repulsed. At midnight Lee withdrew to his second line, and Hancock finally held the works he had captured in the morning, with twenty-two guns. So ended the battle of Spottsylvania Court-house. The official report of the National losses, from the crossing of the Rapid Anna (May 4 [see *Wilderness, Battle of the*]) to the close of the battle on May 12, gave a total of 29,410 men; of whom 269 officers and 3019 enlisted men were killed, and nearly 7000 had been made prisoners.

Springfield, N. J., BATTLE AT (1780). Military movements at the North, in 1780, exhibited scarcely any offensive operations, yet there were some stirring events occurring occasionally. There was a British invasion of New Jersey. On June 6 (before the arrival of General Clinton from Charleston [see *Siege of Charleston*]), General Knyphausen despatched General Matthews from Staten Island, with about 5000 men, to penetrate New Jersey. They took possession of Elizabethtown (June 7), and burned Connecticut Farms (then a hamlet, and now the village of Union), on the road from Elizabethtown to Springfield. When the invaders arrived at the latter place, they met detachments which had come down from Washington's camp at Morristown, and by them were driven back to the coast, where they remained a fortnight, until the arrival of Clinton from the South, who, with additional troops, joined Matthews (June 22). The British then attempted to draw Washington into a general battle or to capture his stores at Morristown. Feigning an expedition to the Hudson Highlands, Clinton deceived Washington, who, with a considerable force, marched in that direction, leaving General Greene in command at Springfield. Perceiving the success of his stratagem, Sir Henry, with Knyphausen, marched upon Greene with about 5000 infantry, a considerable body of cavalry, and about twenty pieces of artillery. After a severe engagement (June 23, 1780), during which the British forced the bridge over the Rahway, the invaders were defeated and driven back. When they began their retreat, they set fire to the village. They did not halt until they reached the waters between the main and Staten Island, to which spot they all retired. The British lost, it was estimated, in killed and wounded, during the entire invasion, about 300 men; the loss of the Americans was less than 100. The British were 6000 strong; the Americans only 1500; but the latter were strongly posted on heights.

Spurious Letters of Washington. A pamphlet was published in London, in 1777, containing letters purporting to have been written by Washington, in the summer of 1776, to members of his family. These letters contained sentiments so totally at variance with his character and conduct that, whatever effect they may have

had in England, they had none in this country, where he was known. In them Washington is made to deprecate the misguided zeal and rashness of Congress in declaring independence, and pushing the opposition to Great Britain to so perilous an extremity. In the preface it was stated that, when Fort Lee was evacuated, General Washington's servant was left behind sick; that in his possession was a small portmanteau belonging to the general, in which, among other things of trifling value, were the drafts of letters to Mrs. Washington, her son (John Parke Custis), and his manager at Mount Vernon, Lund Washington, and that these had been transmitted to England by an officer into whose hands they had fallen. This fiction was contrived to deceive the public into a belief of their genuineness. It is well known that Washington was not at Fort Lee at the time of the surprise and evacuation, and that no servant of his nor a particle of his baggage fell into the hands of the enemy during the war. The pamphlet was republished by Rivington, in New York, and extensively circulated by the Tories, to injure the commander-in-chief. The author of these spurious epistles was never publicly known. It must have been some person acquainted with many particulars of Washington's family affairs. The chief paid no attention to the publication, regarding it as beneath his notice. During his second Presidential term, party malignity was carried so far as to reprint the letters as genuine. Even then he did not notice them; but when he was about to retire from public life he wrote to the then Secretary of State (Timothy Pickering), under date of March 3, 1797, referring to the letters and the motives of their production, saying, "Another crisis in the affairs of America having occurred, the same weapon has been resorted to to wound my character and deceive the people." He then gave the dates and addresses of the letters, seven in number, and added, "As I cannot know how soon a more serious event may succeed to that which will this day take place (his retirement from office), I have thought it a duty which I owe to myself, to my country, and to truth, now to detail the circumstances above recited, and to add my solemn declaration that the letters herein described are a base forgery, and that I never saw or heard of them until they appeared in print." Washington desired this letter to Pickering to be deposited in the office of the Secretary of State.

Squier, EPHRAIM GEORGE, was born at Bethlehem, N. Y., June 17, 1821. He engaged in journalism and civil engineering. From 1845 to 1848 he edited the *Scioto Gazette* at Chillicothe, Ohio, and became familiar with the ancient mounds in the Scioto valley. In conjunction with Dr. Davis, of Ohio, he began a systematic investigation of the aboriginal monuments of the Mississippi valley, the results of which were published in a volume of the *Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge*. Thenceforth his life was devoted to researches into the archaeology and ethnology of the ancient races of our continent. In 1848 he was appointed chargé d'affaires to the republics of Central America, where he made special

efforts towards securing the construction of an interoceanic railway, and afterwards published several works concerning those countries. He was made United States commissioner to Peru in 1863-64, and in 1871 became the first president of the Anthropological Institute of New York. Mr. Squier's researches and publications thereon have added greatly to the sum of human knowledge. He died in Brooklyn, April 17, 1888.

Stadacona, an Indian town on the site of Quebec, and the capital of the "King of Canada." (See *Cartier, Jacques*.)

Stamp-Act Congress, THE, assembled at New York on Monday, Oct. 7, 1765, to consider Grenville's obnoxious scheme of taxation. (See *Stamp Act, Local Opposition to the*.) It was organized by the choice of Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts, chairman, and John Cotten, clerk. The following representatives presented their credentials: Massachusetts—James Otis, Oliver Partridge, Timothy Ruggles. New York—Robert R. Livingston, John Cruger, Philip Livingston, William Bayard, Leonard Lispenard. New Jersey—Robert Ogden, Hendrick Fisher, Joseph Borden. Rhode Island—Metcalf Bowler, Henry Ward. Pennsylvania—John Dickinson, John Morton, George Bryan. Delaware—Thomas McKean, Cæsar Rodney. Connecticut—Eliphalet Dyer, David Rowland, William S. Johnson. Maryland—William Murdock, Edward Tilghman, Thomas Ringgold. South Carolina—Thomas Lynch, Christopher Gadsden, John Rutledge. The Congress continued in session fourteen consecutive days, and adopted a "Declaration of Rights," written by John Cruger, a "Petition to the King," written by Robert R. Livingston, and a "Memorial to Both Houses of Parliament," written by James Otis. In all these the principles which governed the leaders in the Revolution soon afterwards were conspicuous. The proceedings were signed by all the delegates excepting Ruggles and Ogden, who were afterwards active loyalists or Tories.

Stamp Act in Massachusetts. In 1759 the Legislature of Massachusetts passed a Stamp Act in which newspapers were included. The printers remonstrated and asked for a repeal of the clause which applied to newspapers, pleading that they were vehicles of knowledge and necessary information. It was done.

Stamp Act, LOCAL OPPOSITION TO THE. A variety of local and illegal methods were adopted to oppose the operations of the Stamp Act. The 1st of November, the day it was to go into operation, was ushered in by a funereal tolling of the bells. Many shops and other places of business were shut, and effigies of friends of the act were carried about the streets in derision, and then torn in pieces by the populace. There was neither violence nor disorder. At Boston the colors of the shipping appeared at half-mast. At Portsmouth the bells tolled, a coffin bearing an effigy and inscribed on the lid, "Liberty, aged 145," was carried to a grave, preceded by muffled drums, and followed by a funeral procession, while minute-guns were fired. At the close of an oration the coffin was taken up, signs of life

appeared in the corpse, "Liberty Revived" was placed on the lid, the bells rang merrily and joy lighted every countenance. In Newport and Providence, R. I., several obnoxious citizens were hanged in effigy. At New York the obnoxious act was printed with a skull and cross-bones instead of the royal arms, and contemptuously paraded through the streets under the title of "England's Folly and America's Ruin." At Philadelphia the people showed similar signs of contempt for the act. In Maryland the effigy of the stamp-master, on one side of which was written "Tyranny," and on the other "Oppression," was carried through the streets from the place of confinement to the whipping-post, and thence to the pillory. After suffering many indignities it was burned. The act was not less odious to many of the inhabitants of the British West India islands than to those on the continent of America. The people of St. Christopher (St. Kitt's) obliged the stamp-officer and his deputy to resign; while Barbadoes, Canada, and Nova Scotia submitted to the act.

Stamp Act. OPPOSITION TO, IN AMERICA. In the preamble to the Stamp Act the open avowal was made that its purpose was the "raising of a revenue for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing his majesty's dominions in America." (See *Colonial War Expenditures*.) This phraseology was rather deceptive. The British treasury had been exhausted not by defending the colonies, but by wars in Europe, and its coffers needed replenishing. This was the real meaning of the Stamp Act, and the Americans clearly perceived it. When accounts of this scheme reached Boston, the newly elected representatives of that town were instructed to use all their efforts "against the pending plan of parliamentary taxation," and for the "repeal of any such acts already passed." These instructions were drawn by Samuel Adams, and contained the first decided protest uttered against this taxation scheme. It was suggested that a combination of all the colonies in opposition to the act would be expedient. A committee of correspondence was appointed to hold communications with the other colonial assemblies, and the political postulate—"Taxation without representation is tyranny"—an idea borrowed from the Dutch, was boldly enunciated in a pamphlet by James Otis, entitled *The Rights of the British Colonies Asserted*. The Assembly also resolved, "That the imposition of duties and taxes by the Parliament of Great Britain upon a people not represented in the House of Commons is absolutely irreconcilable with their rights." Opposition to the measure soon appeared in all the colonies. The people in cities and villages gathered in excited groups and loudly expressed their indignation. The pulpit denounced the scheme, and associations calling themselves the "Sons of Liberty," in every colony, put forth their energies in defence of popular freedom. The press, then assuming much power, spoke out fearlessly. Men appointed by the crown, known as "stamp-distributors," were insulted and despised, and not allowed to act. Stamps were seized on their arrival and secreted or burned, and when the 1st

of November arrived—the day on which the law was to take effect—there were no officials courageous enough to attempt to enforce it. The public sentiment had already taken a more dignified tone and assumed an aspect of nationality. A general congress of delegates was called, and met in New York (see *Stamp Act Congress, The*) in October, 1765, and sent out documents boldly asserting the rights of the people. The 1st of November was observed as a day of fasting and mourning. Funeral processions paraded city streets, and bells tolled funereal knells. The colors of sailing-vessels were trailed at half-mast, and the columns of newspapers exhibited broad black lines. The courts were closed, legal marriages ceased, ships remained in port, and, for a while, all business was suspended. Out of this calm a tempest was evolved. Mobs began to assail the residences of officials, and burn distinguished royalists in effigy. Merchants entered into agreements not to import goods from Great Britain, and very soon such a cry of remonstrance from all classes in America assailed the ears of the British ministry, as well as from merchants and manufacturers of London, that, on the 18th of March, 1766, the obnoxious act was repealed. The ministry had evidently expected trouble in America, for in a new mutiny act they were authorized to send as many troops to America as they saw fit.

Stamp Act Repealed. There was such unusual and decided opposition to the Stamp Act in the English-American colonies that, in pursuance of the provisions of a bill introduced in Parliament by William Pitt early in 1766, it was repealed. In the bill was a clause declaratory of the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, which was not acceptable to the latter. Pitt said the repealing bill could not have passed but for this clause, so of two evils he chose the least. The Americans were so pleased, however, with the repeal of the obnoxious act that, in gratitude to the king and to Pitt, statues were erected to them. An equestrian statue of the king was erected in Bowling Green, New York city, and a statue of Pitt in the attitude of speaking was set up at the intersection of Wall and William streets. Another was erected in Charleston, S. C. (which see). The king was dissatisfied with the repeal of the Stamp Act, regarding it as “a fatal compliance which had wounded the majesty of England, and planted thorns under his pillow.” He scolded Lord North, for he preferred the risk of losing the colonies rather than to yield one iota of his claim to absolute authority over them.

Stamp Act, THE. Laws authorizing the use of stamps, stamped paper, or stamps on packages, bearing fixed rates for the stamps, for raising revenue, were introduced into England, in the reign of William and Mary, from Holland. From that time until now the system has been a favorite one in England for raising revenue. Each stamp represents a tax for a certain sum which must be paid to obtain it. A penalty is imposed upon those attempting to evade it, and the transaction in which it should have been

used was declared invalid without it. A stamp duty had never been imposed in the colonies. In 1732 it was proposed, but the great minister, Walpole, said, “I will leave the taxation of America to some of my successors who have more courage than I have.” In 1739 Sir William Keith, Governor of Pennsylvania, proposed such a tax in that province. Franklin thought it just, as he said in the convention at Albany in 1754; Lieutenant-governor De Lancey proposed it in New York in 1755; and in 1756 Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, urged Parliament to adopt a stamp tax. In 1757 it was proposed to Pitt to tax the colonies. “I will never burn my fingers with an American stamp tax,” he said. But George Grenville, Pitt’s brother-in-law, bolder than his predecessors, proposed in 1764 a stamp tax to be extended to the colonies. It was delayed to await suggestions from the latter. It became a law in the spring of 1765, but was violently opposed in America. The law required that for every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which should be engrossed, written, or printed any declaration, plea, replication, rejoinder, demurrer, or other pleading, or any copy thereof,

in any court of law within the British colonies and plantations in America, a stamp duty should be imposed. Also for all legal documents of every kind, marriage certificates, etc., a stamp duty should be paid. The stamps were printed in embossed letters, sometimes directly upon the paper used, but more generally, for the colonies, on coarse



A STAMP.

blue paper, such as is known as “tobacco paper.” The value of each stamp was indicated upon it, and varied from threepence to two pounds sterling. The kinds of documents and other papers to be stamped to make them legal numbered fifty-four. To the blue-paper stamps was attached a narrow strip of tin-foil, represented in the engraving by the white space. The ends of the foil were passed through the parchment or paper, flattened on the opposite side, and a piece of paper with a rough device and number, seen in the smaller engraving, with a crown and the initials of the king, pasted over to secure it.

Stamp-distributors were men appointed by the British government to sell stamps in the American colonies. Wishing to make the obnoxious Stamp Act as palatable as possible in the colonies, the British ministers consulted the colonial agents as to fit persons to be appointed. Even the sagacious Franklin did not foresee the result, and he procured the appointment for one of his particular friends in Philadelphia. He



advised Ingersoll, the agent for Connecticut, to accept the office, at the same time foreseeing an impending struggle in which numbers would be an important factor, he said to him, "Go home, and get children as fast as you can." The agents appointed had to face a terrible storm of indignation. They were insulted and despised, and were actually compelled to relinquish the office everywhere.

Stamp Duty Proposed by Shirley. The energetic governor of Massachusetts, commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America after Braddock's death, continued to urge the imperial government to take measures to raise a revenue in the colonies. In 1756 he proposed a stamp duty, as well as excise and a poll tax. He admitted the almost universal opposition of the people to *any* tax imposed by act of Parliament, and suggested "for the general satisfaction of the people in each colony, to leave it to their choice to raise the sum assessed upon them according to their own discretion." At the same time he recommended that, in case of no such response being made by the assemblies, proper officers should be appointed to collect a revenue "by warrants of distress and imprisonments of persons."

Standing Army in America. The British government perceived with alarm and jealousy the strength of the English-American colonies after the French and Indian War. That conflict had taught the colonists their inherent strength and their resources. They had spent \$20,000,000 in the war and sacrificed 30,000 men, and yet the land was full of trained soldiers, and plenty filled their granaries and abundantly supplied their tables. The long-continued and splendid success of the war had filled the colonies with a martial spirit, and a military force had become, in their estimation, an expedient method for settling disputed points of authority and right. Local self-government and broad independence were a continual day-dream with them, and the British government clearly perceived it. The British ministry, in 1763, under a pretext of furnishing a perpetual defence to the colonies, proposed to keep 10,000 troops there as a peace establishment. It was rightly conjectured that the colonial assemblies might refuse to contribute towards the expenses of a standing army among them, and so a scheme of colonial taxation was planned by which the colonies would indirectly support the troops. (See *Stamp Act, The*.) A standing army became a source of constant irritation in the colonies, for, by a new Mutiny Act (1769), provision was made for quartering and providing for the troops in America at the expense of the colonies.

Standing Army, ORGANIZATION OF A (1775). Congress, after much delay, owing to hesitation on account of fears of a standing army, finally resolved, late in 1775, to raise one, to consist of 75,000 men, to serve for the term of three years or during the war, and that it should be composed of eighty-eight battalions, to be raised in the several colonies, according to their respective abilities. The following was the propor-

tion of each of the colonies: In New Hampshire, three battalions; Massachusetts, fifteen; Rhode Island, two; Connecticut, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, eight; Virginia, fifteen; North Carolina, nine; New York, four; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, twelve; South Carolina, six; Georgia, one. Recruiting orders were issued, but the progress in raising troops was so slow that, on the last day of December, 1775, when all the old troops not engaged for the new army were disbanded, there had been enlisted for the more extended term only 9650 men. These were increased after the middle of January (1776), Congress having, on the earnest recommendation of Washington, offered bounties. Washington had then been besieging Boston since July, 1775. "It is not in the pages of history, perhaps" (he wrote to Congress), "to furnish a case like ours—to maintain a post within musket-shot of the enemy for six months together, without ammunition; and, at the same time, to disband one army and recruit another, within that distance of twenty odd British regiments, is more, probably, than was ever attempted."

Standish, MILES, a "Pilgrim" soldier, who came to New England in the *Mayflower* in 1620, was born in Lancashire, Eng., about 1584, and died at Duxbury, Mass., Oct. 8, 1656. Standish had served as a soldier in the Netherlands. He was chosen captain of the New Plymouth settlers (see *New Plymouth, Charter for*), though not a member of the church. He was small in person, of great energy, activity, and courage, and rendered important service to the early settlers by inspiring Indians, disposed to be hostile, with awe for the English. Standish visited England in 1625 as agent for the colony, and brought supplies the next year. The captain's wife, Rose Standish, was one of the victims of the famine and fever in the spring of 1621. In 1626 Standish settled at Duxbury, Mass., where he lived the remainder of his days, administering the office of magistrate, or assistant, during the whole term. He also took part in the settlement of Bridgewater (1649). A monument to his memory was erected on Captain's Hill, Duxbury, a few years ago. (See *Maiden Bride, The First, in New England*.)

Stanley, DAVID S., was born in Wayne County, O., June 1, 1828, and graduated at West Point in 1852, entering the dragoon service. When the Civil War began he brought off the government property from the forts in the Southwest, and performed good service in Missouri, especially at Dug Springs and Wilson's Creek (which see). After performing signal service in Mississippi, he became chief of cavalry in the Army of the Cumberland late in 1862, and displayed great skill in the battle of Stone's River (which see), and afterwards in driving Bragg into Georgia. Late in 1863 he commanded a division of the Fourth Corps. He was in the Atlanta campaign, and commanded the Fourth Corps from July, 1864, to the close of the war. By his arrival on the battle-field at Franklin (which see) he averted serious disaster, but was wounded and disabled. He had been made major-gen-

eral of volunteers in November, 1862, and in March, 1865, was breveted major-general United States Army. Retired as brig.-general, 1892.

Stanley, HENRY M., American traveller, was born near Denbigh, Wales, in 1840. His original name was John Rawlands. For ten years he was in the poor-house of St. Asaph, where he received a good education, and left it at the age of thirteen, became teacher of a school, and finally shipped at Liverpool as a cabin-boy for New Orleans. There he found employment with a merchant named Stanley, who adopted him and gave him his name. Enlisting in the Confederate army at the beginning of the Civil War, he was made prisoner, and entered the United States Navy as a volunteer. After the war he travelled in Turkey and Asia Minor and visited Wales. At the poor-house of St. Asaph he gave a dinner to the children, and told them that what success he had attained in life he owed to the education received there. Returning to the United States, he was engaged, in 1868, by the proprietor of the *New York Herald* to accompany the British expedition to Abyssinia, as the correspondent of that journal. In the fall of 1869 he was commissioned by the proprietor of the *Herald* to "find Dr. Livingstone." After visiting several countries in the East, he sailed from Bombay (Oct. 12, 1870) for Zanzibar, where he arrived early in January, 1871, and set out for the interior of Africa (March 21), with one hundred and ninety-two followers. He found Livingstone (Nov. 10), and reported to the British Association Aug. 16, 1872, and in 1873 he received the patron's medal of the Royal Geographical Society. He was commissioned by the proprietors of the *New York Herald* and the *London Telegraph* to explore the lake region of Central Africa. He set out from the eastern coast in November, 1874, with three hundred men. When he reached the Victoria Nyanza Lake (Feb. 27, 1875), he had lost one hundred and ninety-four men by death or desertion. He circumnavigated the lake, covering about one thousand miles in the voyage. After exploring that interior region, he entered upon the Congo River and made a most perilous and exciting voyage down the stream. His subsequent expeditions have made him the most notable African explorer. He established the Congo Free State. Returned to England in May, 1890.

Stanton, EDWIN McMASTERS, was born at Steubenville, O., Dec. 19, 1814; died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 24, 1869. His parents were of Quaker descent, and he graduated at Kenyon College, Ohio, in 1833. In 1836 he was admitted to the bar, and acquired an extensive practice at Steubenville. In 1848 he went to Pittsburgh, Penn., where he became a leader in his profession. He removed to Washington in 1857, and was employed by Attorney-general Black to plead important cases for the United States. In December, 1860, he succeeded Black as Attorney-general, and resisted the Secessionists with all his might. In January, 1862, he succeeded General Cameron as Secretary of War, and managed that department with singular ability dur-

ing the remainder of the Civil War. After his difficulties with President Johnson (see *Impeachment of President Johnson*), he resigned (May, 1868), and was appointed judge of the United



EDWIN McMASTERS STANTON.

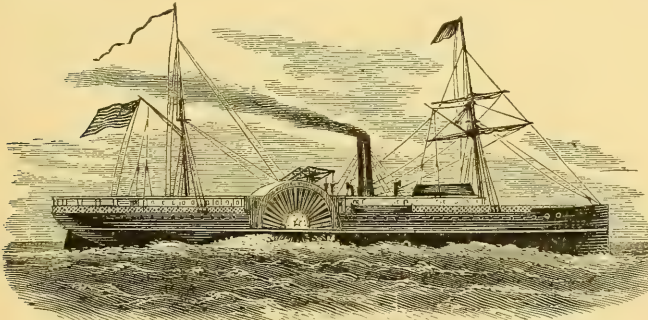
States Supreme Court, Dec. 20, 1869. He died four days afterwards, his health having been shattered by his arduous labors as war minister.

Stanwix, FORT, TREATY AT (1768). Various projects by land speculators had been started immediately after the peace with the Western Indians (see *Pontiac's War*) had been concluded, for settlements west of the mountains. In a treaty concluded at Fort Stanwix between the Six Nations and the white people (Nov. 5, 1768), the former, in consideration of the payment of about \$50,000, ceded all their territory south of the Ohio, as far as the Tennessee River, to the crown. So much of this country, however, as lay south of the Great Kanawha was claimed by the Cherokees as a part of their hunting-grounds. (See *Land Companies*.)

Stanwix, JOHN, a British general, who came to America, in 1756, as colonel commandant of the first battalion of the Sixtieth, or Royal Americans. He was commander of the Southern District, with his headquarters at Carlisle, Penn., in 1757. In December he was promoted to brigadier-general. On being relieved by Forbes, he proceeded to Albany, and was directed to build a fort at the "Oneida carrying-place," on the Mohawk, on the site of Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y. It was called Fort Stanwix (afterwards Fort Schuyler), in his honor. He returned to Pennsylvania, a major-general, in 1759, strengthened Fort Pitt, and secured the good-will of the Indians. In May, 1760, he resigned his commission to Monckton, and, on his return to England, was appointed Lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Wight, and afterwards promoted to lieutenant-general. He also became a member of Parliament. He had served with reputation in the wars of Queen Anne before coming to America, having entered the army in 1706. General Stanwix was lost at sea while crossing from Dublin to Holyhead in December, 1765.

Star of the West fired upon. It having been resolved, on the advice of Secretary Holt and General Scott, to send troops to reinforce the garrison at Fort Sumter, orders were given for the United States steam-frigate *Brooklyn*—the only war-ship available then—to be in readiness to sail from Norfolk at a moment's notice. This order the disloyal Thompson, Secretary of the Interior, revealed to the conspirators. Virginians were ready to seize the *Brooklyn*; the lights of the shore-beacons in Charleston harbor were extinguished, and the buoys that marked the channel were removed. Informed of the betrayal of his order, President Buchanan countermanded it, when Thompson threatened to resign in consequence of such an order. The President promised him that none like it should be given "without the question being first considered and decided in the cabinet." It was soon evident that there were members of the cabinet who could not be trusted. Dangers were thickening; and the President, listening to the councils of Holt and Scott, resolved to send supplies and men to Sumter, by stealth. It was a humiliating spectacle to see the head of a great nation resorting to secret measures to execute the laws and protect the public property! The stanch merchant steam-vessel *Star of the West* was chartered by the government for

cret, imparted it to the authorities at Charleston. "As I was writing my resignation," he afterwards wrote, "I sent a despatch to Judge Longstreet that the *Star of the West* was coming with reinforcements." He also gave a messenger another despatch to be sent, in which he said, as if by authority, "Blow the *Star of the West* out of the water." The messenger patriotically withheld the despatch. When the vessel was within two miles of Fort Sumter, unsuspecting of danger, a shot came ricocheting across her bow from a masked battery on Morris Island, three fourths of a mile distant. The national flag was flying over the *Star of the West*, and her captain immediately displayed a large American ensign at the fore. As she passed on, a continuous fire was kept up from Morris Island, and an occasional shot from Fort Moultrie was hurled at her. Two steam-tugs and an armed schooner put out from Fort Moultrie to intercept her. Captain McGowan, finding himself hemmed in, powerless, and in imminent danger of capture, turned his vessel seaward, after seventeen shots had been fired by the insurgents, and returned to New York, Jan. 12. This firing on the flag of the United States was the first overt act of war that marked the inauguration of the great Civil War of 1861–65. Had Major Anderson, in Sumter, then known that loyal men were in power



STAR OF THE WEST.

in his government, he would have opened the great guns of the fortress, and the *Star of the West* and her precious freight would not have been driven to sea. There was great exultation in South Carolina because of this act of war. The Legislature resolved that they "learned with pride and pleasure of the successful resistance this day by the troops of this state, acting under orders of the governor, to an attempt to reinforce Fort Sumter." The *Charleston Mercury*, Jan.

10, said, exultingly: "Yesterday, the 9th of January, will be remembered in history. Powder has been burned over a decree of our state, timber has been crashed, perhaps blood spilled. The expulsion of the *Star of the West* from Charleston harbor, yesterday morning, was the opening of the ball of revolution. We are proud that our harbor has been so honored." . . . South Carolina "has not hesitated to strike the first blow, full in the face of her insulter. Let the United States government bear or return, at its good will, the blow still tingling about its ears—the fruit of its own bandit temerity. We would not exchange or recall that blow for millions. It has wiped out half a century of scorn and outrage. . . . If that red seal of blood be still lacking to the parchment of our liberties—and blood they want—blood they shall have, and blood enough to stamp it all in red. For, by the God of our fathers, the soil of South Carolina shall be free!" Such was the spirit in which South Carolina kindled the Civil War.

the purpose and quickly laden with supplies. She was cleared for Savannah and New Orleans, so as to mislead spies, and left New York at sunset, Jan. 5, 1861. Far down the bay, she received, under cover of thick darkness, four officers and two hundred and fifty artillerymen and marines, with their arms and ammunition, and proceeded to sea, under her commander, Captain John McGowan. On the morning of the 9th of January she reached Charleston bar, before daylight. Finding all the shore-lights put out, she extinguished her own. Just at dawn a scouting steamboat discovered her, burned colored lights as signals, and ran for the inner harbor. The *Star of the West* had all her soldiers concealed below and was in the guise of a merchant-vessel. The deception was fruitless; her errand was already known. Alexander Jones, a telegraphic correspondent of the Southern newspapers, had informed the *Charleston Mercury* of the sailing of the vessel from New York, and Secretary Thompson, in possession of the se-

Stark, JOHN, was born at Londonderry, N. H., Aug. 27, 1728; died at Manchester, N. H., May 8, 1822. He removed, with his father, to Derryfield (now Manchester) when he was about eight years old. In 1752, while on a hunting



JOHN STARK.

excursion, he was made a prisoner by the St. Francis Indians, and was ransomed in a few weeks for \$103. He became popular with the Indians, and was adopted into their tribe. In 1755 he was made lieutenant of Rogers's Rangers, and performed good service during the French and Indian War. A member of the Committee of Safety at the commencement of the Revolution, he was alive to the importance of every political event. On the news of the affair at Lexington, he hastened to Cambridge and was immediately chosen colonel of the New Hampshire troops. He was efficient in the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill. Near the close of 1776, after doing effective service in the Northern Department, he joined Washington on the Delaware. He commanded the vanguard in the battle at Trenton, and was active in that at Princeton. In the spring of 1777, displeased because he had been overlooked in promotions, he resigned his position in the army and was placed in command of New Hampshire militia, raised there to oppose the British advance from Canada. Acting upon the authority of his state and his own judgment, he refused to obey the orders of General Lincoln to march to the west of the Hudson. He soon afterwards gained the battle at Hoosick, near Bennington (Aug. 16, 1777), for which Congress, overlooking his insubordination, thanked him. He joined Gates at Bemis's Heights, but the term of his militia having expired, he went home, raised a new force, and cut off Burgoyne's retreat from Saratoga. Stark was placed in command of the Northern Department in 1778, and in 1779-80 he served in Rhode Island and New Jersey. He was also at West Point, and was one of the court that condemned Major André. Stark was again in command of the Northern Department in 1781, with his headquarters at Saratoga. After the war he lived in retirement. He was the last surviving general of the army, excepting Sumter, who died in 1832.

Star-spangled Banner, SONG OF THE. On

the return of the British to their vessels after the capture of Washington (which see), they carried with them Dr. Beanes, an influential and well-known physician of Upper Marlborough. His friends begged for his release, but Admiral Cockburn refused to give him up, and sent him on board the flag-ship of Admiral Cochrane. Francis S. Key, a resident of Georgetown, D. C., well known for his affability of manner, was requested to go to Cochrane as a solicitor for the release of the doctor. He consented, and the President granted him permission. In company with John S. Skinner, a well-known citizen of Baltimore, he went in the cartel-ship *Minden*, under a flag of truce. They found the British ships at the mouth of the Potomac, preparing to attack Baltimore. Cochrane agreed to release Beanes, but refused to allow him or his friends to return then. They were placed on board the *Surprise*, where they were courteously treated. When the fleet went up Patapsco Bay, they were sent back to the *Minden* with a guard of marines to prevent their landing and conveying information to their countrymen. The *Minden* was anchored within sight of Fort McHenry, and from her deck the three friends observed the fierce bombardment of the fortress which soon ensued. It ceased before the dawn (Sept. 14, 1814). The anxious Americans did not know whether the fort had surrendered or not. They awaited the appearance of daylight with painful suspense. In the dim light of the opening morning they saw through their glasses the star-spangled banner yet waving in triumph over the fort, and soon learned the fate of the land expedition against Baltimore and preparations of the discomfited British for speedy departure. When the fleet was ready to sail, Key and his friends were released, and returned to the city. It was during the excitement of the bombardment, and when pacing the deck of the *Minden* between midnight and dawn, that Key composed the popular song *The Star-spangled Banner*, the first stanza of which expressed the feelings of thousands of eye-witnesses of the scene, which is its burden:

O, say, can you see by the dawn's early light
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming,
Whose broad stripes and bright stars, through the clouds
of the fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?
And the rocket's red glare, the bomb bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there:
O, say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?"

The rude substance of the song was written on the back of a letter which Key happened to have in his pocket. On the night after his return to Baltimore he wrote it out in full and read it to his uncle, Judge Nicholson, one of the defenders of the fort, and asked his opinion of it. The pleased judge took it to the printing-office of Captain Benjamin Edes and caused it to be printed in hand-bill form. Samuel Sands, living in 1876, set up the song in type, printed it, and distributed it among the citizens. It was first sung by Charles Durang, at a restaurant

The Star Spangled Banner.

O day, when you see by the dawn's early light
 That so proudly we hail'd as the twilight's last gleaming,
 whose broad stripes and bright stars, through the clouds of the night,
 O'er the ramparts we watch'd, were so gallantly streaming!
 And the rocket's red glare - the bomb bursting in air,
 gave proof through the night that our flag was still there,
 O day, that does not star-spangled banner yet see
 O'er the land of the free & the home of the brave? —

FAC-SIMILE OF THE ORIGINAL MANUSCRIPT OF THE FIRST STANZA OF "THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER."

next door to the Holliday Street Theatre, Baltimore, to an assemblage of patriotic defenders of Baltimore, and after that nightly at the theatre and everywhere in public and private.

Starving Time. (See *Jamestown*.)

State Action on Jay's Treaty. The dis-

cussions of the treaty were transferred from public meetings and the newspapers to the arena of state legislatures. Governor Shelby, in his speech to the Kentucky Legislature, attacked the treaty. The House seemed to agree with him (Nov. 4, 1794), but the Senate evaded any decided committal. The House of Dele-

gates of Virginia adopted, by a vote of one hundred to fifty, a resolution approving the conduct of their Senators in voting (Nov. 20) against the treaty. A counter-resolution declaring their undiminished confidence in the President was lost—fifty-nine to seventy-nine; but another resolution disclaiming any imputation of the President's motives was passed—seventy-eight to sixty-two. The Legislature took the occasion to adopt a series of resolutions proposing an amendment to the national Constitution to admit the House of Representatives to a share in the treaty-making power. The Legislature of Maryland resolved that they felt a deep concern at efforts to detach from the President the "well-earned confidence of his fellow-citizens," and declaring their "unabated reliance in his judgment, integrity, and patriotism." The Senate of Pennsylvania made a similar declaration. The Legislature of New Hampshire expressed (Dec. 5, 1795) their "abhorrence of those disturbers of the peace" who had endeavored to render abortive measures so well calculated to advance the happiness of the country. The North Carolina Legislature, by a decided majority, adopted a series of resolutions (Dec. 8) repudiating the treaty and thanking their Senators for having opposed it. In the Legislature of South Carolina resolutions were introduced declaring the treaty "highly injurious to the general interests of the United States;" when the friends of the treaty, finding themselves in a minority, declared the Legislature had no business to interfere with the duties of the President and Senate of the United States, and, refusing to vote, the resolutions were adopted unanimously. The House did not venture to send up these resolutions to the Senate. A resolution declaring the treaty unconstitutional was defeated. The Legislature of Delaware passed (Jan. 14, 1796) a resolution of approval. Governor Samuel Adams, of Massachusetts, spoke of the treaty as "pregnant with evil," suggested a conflict of authority between the President and Senate and the House of Representatives, and transmitted to the General Court the resolutions of Virginia on the subject of amendments to the Constitution. His suggestions and sentiments met with no favorable response from the Legislature. The Massachusetts Senate declared their concurrence in the belief of the governor that the national government was in "honest hands," and expressed the opinion, unanimously, that it would "be an interference with duties intrusted to that government for the state legislatures to decide on the British treaty." The House, by a large majority, suggested "a respectful submission on the part of the people to the constituted authorities as the surest means of enjoying and perpetuating the invaluable blessings of our free and representative government." The General Court of Rhode Island expressed their confidence in the general government and rejected the Virginia resolutions for amendments to the Constitution. So, also, did the Legislature of New York. (See *Jay's Treaty*.)

State Church in South Carolina. In 1704 the Provincial Assembly of South Carolina

passed an act for the establishment of the Church of England as the legal church of the colony, and requiring all public officers to conform to its doctrine and ritual. The province was divided into ten parishes, lands were granted for glebes and church-yards, and salaries, payable from the provincial treasury, were fixed and appointed for the rectors. The regulation included the French settlements on the Santee and the Dutch settlement on the Ashley. Several churches were soon afterwards built. A commission was appointed for the displacing of rectors and ministers of the churches. A portion of the acts establishing the Anglican Church in South Carolina were disapproved by some of the proprietors as well as by the people. These acts were referred to the Lords of Trade and Plantations (which see), and were declared void by the queen in 1705.

State Church in Virginia. On Aug. 24, 1662, an act of the British Parliament was passed which required uniformity in public worship throughout the realm. Under this act about two thousand dissenting ministers were ejected from their benefices without provision being made for them or their families. Soon afterwards they were banished five miles distant from every corporation in England. At the same time, the Church of England was made the established church in Virginia by vote of the Assembly; churches were ordered to be built, glebes appropriated, and ministers furnished; and all others were forbidden to preach the Gospel on pain of banishment from the colony.

State Constitutions. The ideas of many of the state constitutions were derived largely from the colonial charters, which in several of them, down to the Declaration of Independence, formed the basis of the colonial administrations. After that declaration, in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island these charters continued, with some modifications, to serve as the basis of state governments. The constitutions of New Hampshire, South Carolina, Virginia, and New Jersey, adopted in haste, just before the Declaration of Independence, were framed without much deliberation, and in some points were very defective. The constitutions of Maryland and New York were more carefully and elaborately drawn. South Carolina revised and modified her first constitution in 1788. The same year Massachusetts, exercising government under the modified colonial charter, undertook to frame a state constitution. It was submitted to the people for their approval or rejection, and it was rejected. This was the first time that a constitution of a state had been submitted to the judgment of the people. Its rejection was chiefly because it included no bill of rights, and also because a special convention had not been summoned to frame it. Such a convention met the next year—a novelty which has since become common. A constitution was framed and approved by the people in July, 1790. In all the states the sovereign power was vested in the state legislatures, which had

been conferred upon them by the people, the only legitimate source of political power in a republican government. The legislatures were only amplifications of the town meetings, in which the people, in the form of a pure democracy, directly expressed their will and delegated sovereign powers to their representatives. This forms the most perfect system of constitutional government.

State Debts in 1890. According to the census of 1870, the entire indebtedness of the several states and territories of the Union at that time was \$868,785,067. In 1890 the indebtedness of the states had been reduced to \$238,396,590. It was distributed as follows: Alabama, \$9,489,500; Arkansas, \$4,566,600; California, \$2,642,500; Colorado, \$1,337,254; Connecticut, \$3,740,200; Delaware, \$89,975; Florida, \$373,000; Georgia, \$8,261,340; Idaho, \$200,855; Illinois, none; Indiana, \$8,540,825; Iowa, none; Kansas, \$1,118,668; Kentucky, \$674,000; Louisiana, \$14,811,173; Maine, \$3,470,908; Maryland, \$10,370,536; Massachusetts, \$28,251,287; Michigan, \$5,493,912; Minnesota, \$4,365,000; Mississippi, \$3,546,342; Missouri, \$12,457,000; Nebraska, \$373,000; Nevada, \$562,000; New Hampshire, \$2,952,950; New Jersey, \$1,596,300; New York, \$6,774,854; North Carolina, \$7,611,600; Ohio, \$7,380,845; Oregon, \$42,972; Pennsylvania, \$13,856,970; Rhode Island, \$1,300,434; South Carolina, \$6,566,849; Tennessee, \$14,938,608; Texas, \$4,237,730; Vermont, \$148,416; Virginia, \$36,209,254; West Virginia, none; Wisconsin, \$2,295,390. The debts of states have generally been contracted by expenditures for public improvements, largely in giving facilities for transportation. In most of the states the reduction of the indebtedness was accomplished by applying to the extinguishment of their obligations the revenues not needed for current expenses.

State Department (1775). (See *Secret Committee of Correspondence*.)

State Governments Established. On the 10th of May, 1776, the Congress resolved "that it be recommended to the respective assemblies and conventions of the United Colonies, where no government sufficient to the exigencies of their affairs hath been hitherto established, to adopt such government as shall, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular and America in general." This resolution was offered by John Adams, and he, Edward Rutledge, and Richard H. Lee were appointed a committee to draft a preamble to it. It was reported and adopted on the 15th. In that preamble it was asserted that "all oaths for the support of government under the crown of Great Britain were irreconcilable with reason and good conscience; and that the exercise of every kind of authority under that crown ought to be totally suppressed, and all the powers of government exerted, under authority from the people of the colonies, for the maintenance of internal peace and the defence of their lives, liberties, and properties against the hostile in-

vasions and cruel depredations of their enemies." This was the first act of Congress in favor of absolute independence of Great Britain. The recommendation was generally followed, but not without opposition. New Hampshire had prepared a temporary state government in January, 1776. The royal charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were considered sufficient for independent local self-government. New Jersey adopted a state constitution July 2, 1776; Virginia, July 5; Pennsylvania, July 15; Maryland, Aug. 14; Delaware, Sept. 20; North Carolina, Dec. 18; Georgia, Feb. 5, 1777; New York, April 20; South Carolina, March 19, 1778; and Massachusetts, March 2, 1780. No national government was established until the armed struggle had been going on for six years.

State Legislatures, SUPREME POWER OF. For all practical purposes—even to the extent of alterations of the constitutions, except in a few states where different provisions were made—the supreme power was vested in the respective legislatures, which, excepting Pennsylvania and Georgia, consisted of two branches. The more numerous branch retained the name it had borne in colonial times. In Massachusetts and other states it was the House of Representatives; in Virginia, the House of Burgesses; in North Carolina, the House of Commons; in other states, the House of Assembly. In some of the states the colonial title of Council was given to the other House. Virginia called it the Senate, an appellation afterwards adopted by other states. This branch of government was to fill the place of the former Colonial Council. (See *State Constitutions*.)

State Rights. This term is synonymous, as popularly used, with state supremacy (which see). The word "rights" involves a sacred idea in the minds of all men, and that word was more effective in swaying the multitude than "supremacy" or "sovereignty." It was always used in communicating with the people directly by the advocates of state supremacy.

State-rights Party. This is a misnomer. It is a popular equivalent for "State-supremacy party," or a party which claims that the states are sovereigns and their power supreme, and the national government only a compact between the states. (See *Resolutions of '98 and State Supremacy*.) This party first appeared in conspicuous form in the convention of 1787 that framed the national Constitution. In that convention it grew out of a claim for each state to have the right of equal representation in the first branch or House of Representatives of the government, instead of a proportional representation according to population. This was strenuously insisted upon by the smaller states; but finally, at the suggestion of Dr. Franklin, it was agreed that the representation in the first branch of the national legislature should be in the proportion of one member for every forty thousand inhabitants, and an equality in the second branch (the Senate) as it exists at the present day.

State Support of Churches. The result of

the French Revolution confirmed the opinion of thinking minds, especially in New England, that something more than general intelligence, virtue, and good morals, public and private, afforded the foundation upon which alone a republican government could be sustained. It was then, as now, admitted that religion afforded the only solid support of morality; and such being the case, it was argued that it was the duty of the government to provide for public instruction in religion, just as much as for public instruction in letters. It was therefore proposed to have the State lend support by taxation to the churches, leaving each individual to choose to what Church organization he would contribute his measure of support. It was significantly remarked on this subject, in connection with the common-school system in New England, that as out of New England there was no Church establishment, so out of New England there was no extensive system of public education. But a feeling of opposition to a union of Church and State, the evils of which were seen in England, caused the matter to rest in a mere proposition for consideration.

State Supremacy. James Madison, in a letter to Edmund Randolph, in April, 1787, wrote: "I hold it for a fundamental point that an individual independence of the states is utterly irreconcilable with the idea of aggregate sovereignty." Washington, in a letter to John Jay, in March, 1787, on the subject of a national Constitution, said: "A thirst for power, and the bantling—I had liked to have said the *monster*—sovereignty, which has taken such fast hold of the states individually, will, when joined by the many whose personal consequence in the line of state politics will, in a manner, be annihilated, form a strong phalanx against it."

State Supremacy in Legal Forms. The closing form of legal documents is usually as follows: "Done in the — year of American independence." For years before the outbreak of the late Civil War, in Virginia and other slave-labor states, the form had been: "Done in the — year of Virginia [or North Carolina] independence."

State Supremacy or Sovereignty. The advocates of the political doctrine of state sovereignty claim that the citing of the names of the different states concerned in the treaty of peace in 1783 implied the independent sovereignty of each. The opponents of the doctrine say that they were named only to define what states were included in the treaty; that they were independent commonwealths, but not sovereignties; that the latter term implies no superior; that the colonies and states had never been in that exalted position; that while they were colonies they were under Great Britain, and by the Declaration of Independence they assumed only the position of equals in a national league, acknowledging the general government which they thus established a live, superior, controlling power; that they adopted a broad signet for the common use bearing the words, "SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES," as the insignia

of its authority; that when a treaty of peace was negotiated the states did not each choose a separate commissioner for the purpose, but three agents were appointed by the general Congress as representatives of the nationality of the confederation; that when, a few years afterwards, they adopted a Constitution, whose preamble began, "We the people [not the states] of the United States," it was ratified by the *people* assembled in representative conventions, and not by the state legislatures, and so disowned all independent state sovereignty, which the opponents of the doctrine declare never existed either as colonies or states.

Staten Island, SULLIVAN'S EXPEDITION TO. When Howe sailed southward (June, 1777) he left about three thousand men, one third of them loyalists, on Staten Island. Washington, who was watching Howe's movements, had placed Sullivan, with his division, near the coast in New Jersey. The British on the island continually plundered the Jerseymen on the main. Some of these plunderers, stationed nearly opposite Amboy, were attacked by Sullivan (Aug. 22) with about one thousand men. He took several prisoners, and among the spoils were the records and papers of the Yearly Meeting of Friends, which revealed such defection to the cause of the patriots that the Congress advised the Council of Pennsylvania to arrest eleven of the leading and wealthy members of that society.

States, ALLEGED ORIGIN OF THE NAMES OF THE. Alabama (Indian), "Here we rest." Arkansas (Indian), the same as Kansas, "smoky water," with the prefix of the French *arc*, or bow for arrows. California, a name given by Cortez in 1535 to the peninsula of Lower California. He probably derived it from *Esplanadian*, a Spanish romance published in 1510, in which the name is given to an imaginary island "on the right hand of the Indies, very near to the terrestrial paradise," abounding in great treasures of gold. Colorado (Spanish), "red," or "colored." Connecticut, from the Indian word, *Quah-na-ta-cut*, "country upon the long river." Delaware, in honor of Thomas West, Lord De la Warr, or Delaware, first governor of the Virginia colony. Florida, so named by Ponce de Leon because of the abundance of flowers there, or because of the day on which he discovered it—Easter or Palm Sunday (*Pascua Florida*), 1512. Georgia, in honor of George II. of England, in whose reign it was settled. Illinois, from the Indian word *illini*, "men," and the French suffix *ois*, "tribe of men." Indiana, from the word "Indian." Iowa, the French rendering of an Indian word signifying "the drowsy," or the "sleepy ones." Kansas (Indian), "smoky water." It is also said to signify "good potato." Kentucky (Indian), *Kain-tuck-ee*, "at the head of a river." Louisiana, so named by La Salle after King Louis XIV. of France. Maine, in compliment to the queen of Charles I, who owned the province of Mayne, in France. Maryland, named in honor of Henrietta Maria, queen of Charles I, who called the province *Terra Maria*, "Mary's Land." Massachusetts

(Indian), "about the great hills." Michigan (Indian), *mit-chi*, "great," and *sawg-ye-gan*, a Chippewa word for "liken." Minnesota (Indian), "whitish water." Mississippi (Indian), "great, long river." Missouri (Indian), "muddy river." Nebraska (Indian), "water valley," or "shallow river." Nevada, a Spanish word. New Hampshire, so named by George Mason after Hampshire, a county in England. New Jersey, so called in honor of Sir George Carteret, one of its proprietors, who had been governor of the island of Jersey, in the British Channel. New York, so named in compliment to the Duke of York, to whom the territory was granted in 1664. Carolina, North and South, so named in compliment to Charles II. (Latin *Carolus*), who granted the colonial charter. Ohio (Indian), *O-hee-yuh* (Seneca), "beautiful river." The French spelled it *O-y-o*. Oregon, from *orégano* (Spanish), the wild marjoram, which grows abundantly on the Pacific coast. Pennsylvania, "Penn's woods," so named in honor of Admiral Penn, to whose son William it was granted by Charles II. Rhode Island, a corruption of *Rodee Islandt*, "Red Island," so named by the Dutch traders because of the abundance of cranberries found on the shore. Tennessee (Indian), "river of the big bend." Texas, from an Aztec word signifying "north country." Vermont (French, *verd mont*), "green mountain," from the green mountain ranges that traverse it. Virginia, so named in compliment to Elizabeth, the unmarried queen of England. West Virginia, formed from the western portion of old Virginia. Wisconsin, or Ouisconsin, the French form of an Indian word meaning "a wild, rushing river."

States-General of Holland. One of the five chief powers of the government of the Netherlands, established after the declaration of their national independence. These powers were the States-General, the Council of State, the Chamber of Accounts, the Stadtholder, and the College of the Admiralty. The States-General usually sat at the Hague. It was not in any true sense a representative body, but rather a deputation. It had no claim to sovereignty. It obeyed the instructions of its constituents to the letter. When new subjects were introduced for consideration, the States-General applied to the provinces for direction. Neither war nor peace could be made without the unanimous consent of the provinces, nor troops raised without the same unanimity. The States-General constituted a congress of the same general character of that of the United States under the Articles of Confederation.

Statue of King George III. The people of New York city, grateful for the repeal of the Stamp Act, voted a statue to the king and to Pitt. That of the former was equestrian, made of lead, and gilded. It was placed in the centre of the Bowling Green, near Fort George, at the foot of Broadway. Raised upon a pedestal, with the head of the king and the horse facing westward, it made an imposing appearance. It was set up, with great parade, Aug. 21, 1770.

Within six years afterwards the people pulled it down, with demonstrations of contempt. Washington occupied New York with Continental troops in the summer of 1776. There he received the Declaration of Independence (July 9) and it was read to the army. The same evening a large concourse of soldiers and civilians assembled at the Bowling Green, pulled down the statue, broke it in pieces, and sent a portion to the house of Oliver Wolcott, on the western edge of Connecticut, where it was run into bullets by his family. In a letter to General Gates upon this event, Ebenezer Hazard wrote: "His [the king's] troops will probably have melted majesty fired at them." The venerable Zachariah Greene (which see), who was present at the pulling-down of the statue, said the artist had made an omission of stirrups for the saddle of the horse, and it was a common remark of the soldiers, "The king ought to ride a hard-trotting horse without stirrups." Portions of that statue are now (1887) in possession of the New York Historical Society.

Statue of Pitt. The citizens of New York, grateful to Pitt for his services in procuring the repeal of the Stamp Act, voted a statue of marble, to be erected in the city. It was made the natural size, and set up at the intersection of Wall and William streets in the summer of 1770. The figure was in the habit of a Roman orator, and in one hand was a partly-open scroll, on which was inscribed "Articuli Magnæ Chartæ Libertatum." The left hand was extended in oratorical attitude. On the pedestal was the following inscription: "This statue of the Right Honorable William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, was erected as a public testimony of the grateful sense the colony of New York retains of the many services he rendered to America, particularly in promoting the repeal of the Stamp Act. Anno Domini 1770." When the British occupied the city, this statue was mutilated by the soldiery. After the war it was removed, and lay for many years among rubbish in the corporation yard. Then it was set up at Riley's Fifth Ward Hotel, corner of West Broadway and Franklin Street, where it remained many years, but has again been lost sight of.

Statues and Monuments to the Memory of Washington. On Aug. 7, 1783, the Continental Congress, sitting at Princeton, resolved unanimously (ten states being represented) "That an equestrian statue of General Washington be erected at the place where the residence of Congress shall be established." The matter was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Arthur Lee, Ellsworth, and Mifflin, to prepare a plan. The committee reported the same day "That the statue be of bronze; the general to be represented in a Roman dress, holding a truncheon in his right hand, and his head encircled with a laurel wreath. The statue to be supported by a marble pedestal, on which are to be represented, in basso-relievo, the following principal events of the war, in which General Washington commanded in person, viz.: the evacuation of Boston, the capture of the Hes-

sians at Trenton, the battle at Princeton, the action at Monmouth, and the surrender of York. On the upper part of the front of the pedestal to be engraved as follows: 'The United States, in Congress assembled, ordered this statue to be erected in the year of our Lord 1783, in honor of George Washington, the illustrious commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States of America during the war which vindicated and secured their liberty, sovereignty, and independence.' It was further resolved that the statue should be made by the best artist in Europe, under the direction of the United States minister at Versailles (Dr. Franklin), and that the best resemblance of General Washington that could be procured should be sent to the minister, together with "the fittest description of the events which are to be the subject of the basso-relievo." Happily for historic truth, that statue of Washington "in a Roman dress" was never executed. Washington died on Dec. 14, 1799, and on the 23d Congress adopted a joint resolution that a marble monument should be erected to the memory of Washington at the national capital. Early in the session of Congress (1799-1800) the question of erecting a monument in accordance with the resolves at his death was discussed. It was proposed to erect a marble mausoleum of a pyramidal shape, with a base of one hundred feet square. This was objected to by many members opposed to his administration, who thought a simple slab sufficient, as history, they said, would erect a better monument. At the next session it was brought up, and reference was made to the resolve of Congress in 1783. The bill for a mausoleum finally passed the House, with an appropriation of \$200,000. The Senate reduced the amount to \$150,000. The House proposed other amendments, and the matter was allowed to rest indefinitely. Finally, in 1878, Congress made an appropriation for finishing an immense obelisk to the memory of Washington, begun by means of private subscriptions. Meanwhile Congress had caused an equestrian statue of bronze to be erected in a square at the national capital. The state of Virginia had also erected a monument, surmounted by a bronze equestrian statue, at Richmond; and the citizens of New York caused an equestrian statue of bronze to be erected at Union Square, by Henry K. Brown, superior to any yet set up. A spacious building, in which might be gathered the statues of our statesmen and heroes, with Washington as a central figure, erected at the national capital, would be more sensible, and more conformable to good taste, than the pile of stones—like the heathen cairn that tells no truth—which stands at the National Capital.

Status of the Insurgents. At the beginning of July, 1861, the Secessionists had formed a confederacy, civil and military, vast in the extent of its area and operations, strong in the number of its willing and unwilling supporters, and marvellous in its manifestation of energy hitherto unsuspected. It had all the visible forms of a regular government, modelled after that it was seeking to destroy (see "*Confederate*

States of America, Permanent Constitution of the), and through it they were wielding a power equal to that of many of the empires on the globe. They had been accorded belligerent rights, as a nation struggling for its independence, by leading governments of Europe, and under the sanction of that recognition they had commissioned ambassadors to foreign courts, and sent out upon the ocean armed ships bearing their chosen ensign to commit depredations (see *Confederate Privateers*), as legalized by the law of nations. They had created great armories, and were successfully defying the power of the government to suppress their revolt. At midsummer, 1861, the insurrection had become an organized rebellion, and assumed the dignity and proportions of a civil war.

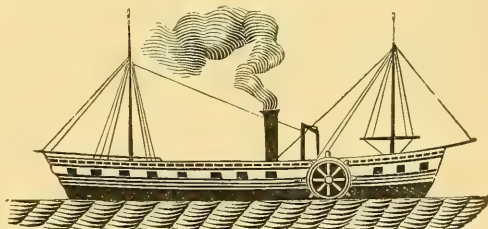
Status of the Navy of the United States at the Close of the War of 1812. James Fenimore Cooper, in his *History of the Navy of the United States*, says: "The navy came out of the struggle with a vast increase of reputation. The brilliant style in which the ships had been carried into action, the steadfastness and rapidity with which they had been handled, and the fatal accuracy of their fire on nearly every occasion, produced a new era in naval warfare. Most of the frigate actions had been as soon decided as circumstances would at all allow, and in no instance was it found necessary to keep up the fire of a sloop of war an hour when singly engaged. Most of the combats of the latter, indeed, were decided in about half that time. The execution done in these short conflicts was often equal to that made by the largest vessels of Europe in general actions, and in some of them the slain and wounded composed a very large proportion of the crews. It is not easy to say in which nation this unlooked-for result created the most surprise. . . . The ablest and bravest captains of the English fleet were ready to admit that a new power was about to appear on the ocean, and that it was not improbable the battle for the mastery of the seas would have to be fought over again."

Steam Navigation in the United States. Immediately after the close of the old war for independence James Rumsey, of Maryland, propelled a vessel by steam on the Potomac River, a fact certified to by Washington. In 1785 an association was formed to aid him, which was called the "Rumsey Society," of which Dr. Franklin was president. Nothing came of it. The next year John Fitch, a native of Connecticut, exhibited a boat on the Delaware propelled by steam; and in 1788 he applied to the Continental Congress for a patent, saying his boat could be propelled eight miles an hour by the vapor. A stock company was formed at Philadelphia, and built a steam packet-boat, which ran until the company failed in 1790. Fitch's efforts in steam navigation also failed. John C. Stevens, of Hoboken, N. J., constructed a steamboat on the waters of the Hudson that was driven by a Watt engine, moved by vapor from a tubular boiler of his own invention, and a screw propeller. The same year Oliver Evans

put a steam dredging-machine on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers propelled by a steam paddle-wheel moved by a high-pressure engine, the first of its kind ever used. Meanwhile Robert Fulton, a professional painter, had conceived a plan for steamboat navigation while an inmate of Joel Barlow's residence in Paris. He met Chancellor Livingston, of Livingston Manor, in Paris, and interested that gentleman in his projects. He tried two experiments on the Seine in 1803. Fulton visited Scotland, where a steamboat was in operation, and received from the inventor a description of its construction. With these facts in his possession, Fulton planned, and, on his return to New York in 1806, built, in conjunction with Livingston, a steamboat, which he called the *Clermont*, the title of the latter's country seat on the manor. The vessel was one hundred and thirty feet in length, eighteen in width, and seven in depth, and was of one hundred and sixty tons burden. She was propelled by a Watt & Boulton engine. Fulton was generally regarded as an unwise enthusiast, and when, on the morning of Friday, Aug. 7, 1807, the *Clermont* left New York on a trial-trip to Albany, bearing Fulton and a few friends who had faith in his enterprise, and the boat stopped a while on account of a slight imperfection, he was greeted by jeers from a crowd on shore. But she soon moved on out of sight of the deriding multitude, and made her way to Albany and back against wind and tide, frightening many along the shores of the river, who regarded it, as it cast forth sparks, flame, and smoke during the night, a monster of the deep. The great experiment then became a demonstration, and navigation by steam was then first successfully undertaken. From that day vast improvements have been made in steam navigation, until now steam-vessels are seen in all parts of the world, even among the ice-packs of the polar seas. The *Clermont* began regular trips between New York and Albany on the 1st of September, 1807, making the round trip of about three hundred miles in seventy-two hours. On that day the following advertisement appeared in the New York newspapers: "The North River steamboat will leave Paulus's Hook [Jersey City] on Friday, the 4th of September, at nine o'clock in the morning, and arrive at Albany on Saturday, at nine o'clock in the afternoon. Provisions, good berths, and accommodations are provided." Before the breaking-out of the War of 1812-15 Fulton and Livingston had caused six steamboats to be built for navigating the Hudson and for ferrying at New York. Steam navigation was soon in operation on the rivers and lakes of the United States, and quite early on the sea. In 1808 Robert L. Stevens, son of John C., went in the *Phoenix*, then lately launched at Hoboken, around to the Delaware River; and in July, 1819, the steamship *Savannah* crossed the Atlantic Ocean from New York to Liverpool in twenty-six days. Six years later the steamship *Enterprise* went from Falmouth, England, to the East Indies, the first voyage of the kind ever made. For this achievement her com-

mander (Captain Johnson) received \$50,000. These were extraordinary voyages at that time. The beginning of the regular navigation of the ocean between Europe and America was postponed until June, 1838, when the *Great Western* crossed the Atlantic from Bristol to New York in eighteen days. From that time steam navigation between the continents has been regularly kept up, and the Atlantic is now traversed by steam-vessels from New York to Liverpool in from seven to ten days. Steamships are seen on every sea. They are employed in arctic explorations; and in the early part of 1879 a steamship made the first voyage from the waters of the Atlantic to those of the Pacific through the ocean lying at the north of Europe and Asia. The first American steam-vessel seen in the East India seas was the schooner *Midas*, which became a passenger-boat in Chinese waters in 1844. It is said that Jonathan Hull, an Englishman, first suggested steam navigation in 1736.

Steamboat Navigation on the Hudson River in 1813. Announcements similar to the following in the New York papers at that exciting period, when the War of 1812-15 was in progress, were of frequent occurrence: "The Albany steamboat which arrived yesterday brings intelligence that Fort Erie had surrendered to the troops of the United States under Generals Dearborn and Lewis, with little or no resistance on the part of the enemy." The following advertisement, taken from the *New York Evening Post* of June, 1813, with a copy of a cut of "the steamboat" at its head, will seem curious to the traveller now:



HUDSON RIVER STEAMBOATS.

For the Information of the Public.

The *Paragon*, Captain Wiswall, will leave New York every Saturday afternoon at five o'clock. The *Car of Neptune*, Captain Roorback, do., every Tuesday afternoon at five o'clock. The *North River*, Captain Bartholomew, do., every Thursday afternoon at five o'clock.

The *Paragon* will leave Albany every Thursday morning at nine o'clock. The *Car of Neptune*, do., every Saturday morning at nine o'clock. The *North River*, do., every Tuesday morning at nine o'clock.

PRICES OF PASSAGE.

From New York to Verplanck's Point, \$2; West Point, \$2.50; Newburgh, \$3; Wappinger's Creek, \$3.25; Poughkeepsie, \$3.50; Hyde Park, \$4; Esopus, \$4.25; Red Hook, \$4.50; Catskill, \$5; Hudson, \$5; Coxsackie, \$5.50; Kinderhook, \$5.75; Albany, \$7.

From Albany to Kinderhook, \$1.50; Coxsackie, \$2; Hudson, \$2; Catskill, \$2.25; Red Hook, \$2.75; Esopus, \$3; Hyde Park, \$3.25; Poughkeepsie, \$3.50; Wappinger's Creek, \$4; Newburgh, \$4.25; West Point, \$4.75; Verplanck's Point, \$5.25; New York, \$7.

All other way passengers to pay at the rate of one dollar for every twenty miles. No one can be taken on board and put on shore, however short the distance, for less than one dollar.

Young persons from two to ten years of age to pay half price. Children under two years, one fourth price. Servants who use a berth, two thirds price; half price if none.

Steedman, CHARLES, was born at Charleston, S.C., Sept. 24, 1811, and entered the navy in 1828. He served on the coast of Mexico during the war against that country. He was in command of the *Dolphin* in the Paraguay expedition (which see) in 1859-60. He performed excellent service as commodore on the Southern coasts in 1861-62, and commanded the *Ticonderoga* in both attacks on Fort Fisher (which see). In 1866 he was in command of the European squadron, and in 1870 of the navy-yard at Boston. In June, 1871, he was made Rear-admiral United States Navy. Died Nov. 13, 1890.

Steedman, JAMES BARRETT, was born in Northumberland County, Penn., July 30, 1818. He was in Ohio in 1849, where he organized a company to cross the plains to California, gold-hunting. Returning, he became a member of the Board of Public Works of Ohio. Mr. Steedman entered the military service as colonel of Ohio volunteers in 1861, and was active in western Virginia. He afterwards joined the army under Buell in Kentucky, and was appointed brigadier-general in July, 1862. At the battle of Perryville (which see) he was distinguished. The following year (1863) he commanded a division of the reserved corps of the Army of the Cumberland, and was made major-general of volunteers in April, 1864, for distinguished services in the battle of Chickamauga (which see). He was active in the Atlanta campaign in 1864; and when Sherman departed for the sea, he joined General Thomas in Tennessee, and was distinguished in the battle of Nashville (which see). He resigned July 9, 1866, and became revenue collector at New Orleans. D. Oct. 18, 1883.

Steele, FREDERIC, was born at Delhi, N. Y., in 1821; died at San Mateo, Colombia, in 1868. He graduated at West Point in 1843; served during the war against Mexico; and was major of infantry at the beginning of the Civil War,



FREDERIC STEELE.

in service in Missouri. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers for his good conduct at the battle of Wilson's Creek (which see), and major-general in November, 1862. He commanded a division under Sherman, and took

part in the battle of Chickasaw Bluff and the capture of Fort Hindman (which see). He commanded a division of Grant's army in the siege of Vicksburg, and afterwards he commanded the Department of Arkansas to the end of the war. General Steele assisted in the capture of Mobile (which see) in April, 1865, and was then transferred to Texas. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general in the United States Army.

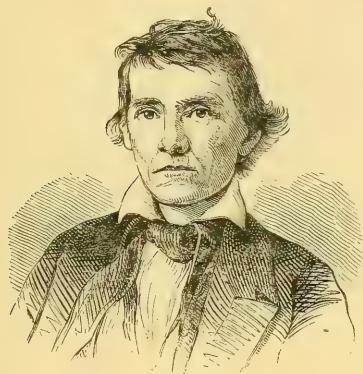
Steele, JOHN, was born at Lancaster, Penn., in 1758; died Feb. 27, 1827. He was captain in the Pennsylvania line during the Revolution; was wounded at Brandywine; was commander of Washington's life-guard in 1780; and assisted in the capture of Cornwallis. He was State Senator after the war, and was a commissioner to settle the Wyoming difficulties. (See *Wyoming*.) Steele was Collector of the Port of Philadelphia a long time, and general of the Pennsylvania militia.

Steinwehr, ADOLPH WILHELM FRIEDRICH (Baron von), was born at Blaukenburg, Duchy of Brunswick, Sept. 25, 1822. His father and grandfather were in the Prussian military service, and he was educated at the military academy of Brunswick. He came to the United States in 1847, and offered his services to the government in the war against Mexico. He failed to get a commission in the army, and returned to Germany. Coming again to the United States in 1854, he settled on a farm in Connecticut; and when the Civil War broke out he raised a regiment in New York, and with it fought in the battle of Bull's Run. In the fall of 1861 he was made brigadier-general, and commanded the second brigade of Blenker's division. After the organization of the Army of Virginia (which see) Steinwehr was appointed to command the second division of Sigel's corps, and was active in the campaign in Virginia from August to December, 1862. He was in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg in 1863.

Stephen, ADAM, was an officer of merit in the French and Indian and other colonial wars, serving with distinction under Braddock. He was afterwards in command of Fort Cumberland, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. Returning from an expedition against the Creek Indians, he was assigned to the defence of the Virginia frontier and made brigadier-general. Commanding a Virginia regiment when the war for independence began, he was made (September, 1776) brigadier-general in the Continental service, and in February, 1777, major-general. His behavior was exemplary in the battle of Brandywine; but, yielding to temptation, he was intoxicated at the battle of Germantown, and was dismissed from the army.

Stephens, ALEXANDER HAMILTON, acknowledged to be one of the ablest statesmen in the South when the Civil War broke out, was born in Taliaferro County, Ga., Feb. 11, 1812. He was educated at Franklin College, and graduated in 1832. Being left an orphan, he was indebted to the care of friends for his education and youth-

ful training for usefulness. He was admitted to the practice of the law in 1834 at Crawfordsville, Ga., and soon rose to eminence. His first care was to reimburse expenditures by his



ALEXANDER HAMILTON STEPHENS.

friends and to purchase from the hands of strangers the home of his childhood at Crawfordsville. In early manhood he adopted the doctrine of state supremacy (which see) in all its breadth, and always believed in the righteousness of slavery. In this doctrine and belief he always acted consistently. Though small in stature and weak in constitution, he gave many instances of personal courage. He entered the Legislature of Georgia as a member in 1834, and remained there until 1841. In 1842 he was elected to the State Senate; and from 1843 to 1859 was a representative in Congress, where he was an able and industrious worker on committees, and fluent in debate. Like all leaders in the slave-labor states, he favored the annexation of Texas, and supported Clay for President in 1844. He took a leading part in effecting the compromises of 1850 (which see), and was an active supporter of the Kansas-Nebraska Act (which see). When the old Whig party broke up, he joined the Democrats, and was a firm supporter of Buchanan's administration. He favored Douglas's election to the Presidency, and in various public addresses denounced those who advocated a dissolution of the Union. On this subject he and Robert Toombs, of Georgia, were diametrically opposed, and at public meetings during the autumn and winter of 1860-61 these popular leaders had strong contentions in public. Stephens always setting forth the beneficence and value of the Union, Toombs denouncing it as an oppressor and a hindrance to the progress of Georgia. In a speech at Milledgeville opposing secession, Stephens said, "Some of our public men have failed in their aspirations. That is true, and from that comes a great part of our troubles." Toombs was present, and keenly felt this thrust at demagogues of every hue. When a Georgia state convention debated the propriety of passing an ordinance of secession, Stephens, who was a member, opposed the scheme; but when it was

adopted by a clear majority, he, in accordance with his views of paramount allegiance to his state, acquiesced in it and signed it. In his speech against it, he had said, "Should Georgia determine to go out of the Union, I speak for one, though my views might not agree with theirs, whatever the result may be, I shall bow to the will of the people of my state." A month later Mr. Stephens was vice-president of a league formed for the destruction of the Union. In a speech at Richmond (April 22, 1861) he justified the secession movement, and there and elsewhere declared that slavery was the true corner-stone of the "Confederate government" then just formed. Mr. Stephens was confined some time as a state prisoner in Fort Warren, in Boston harbor, but was released Oct. 11, 1865. He published a history of the Civil War, under the title of *History of the War between the States*—a title that is a misnomer, for there never was a war between the *states*: it was a war between the national government and insurgents in several states. In 1866 he was chosen a delegate to the Philadelphia "National Union Convention." In 1877 he represented Georgia in Congress, and retained his seat until elected governor of that state in 1882. He died March 3, 1883.

Stephens, JOHN LLOYD, was born at Shrewsbury, N. J., Nov. 23, 1805; died in New York, Oct. 12, 1852. He graduated at Columbia College in 1822; studied at the Litchfield Law School, and practised in New York. From 1834 to 1836 he was in Europe, and went to Egypt and into Arabia and the Holy Land. He travelled in Greece, Turkey, Russia, and Poland, and published accounts of incidents of travel in those countries. In 1839 he was appointed special ambassador to Central America, when he explored the ancient ruins in that country. On his return he published a work, in two volumes, entitled *Incidents of Travel in Central America, Chiapa, and Yucatan*. In 1842 he again visited that region and made further investigations, and in 1843 he published *Incidents of Travel in Yucatan*. All of his works were very popular, those on the antiquities of Yucatan having acquired an enormous sale. They are regarded as the richest contributions on the subject of American antiquities ever made by one man. The late Frederic Catherwood accompanied Mr. Stephens, and made numerous drawings for the books. Mr. Stephens was a director of the Ocean Steam Navigation Company. He was also President of the Panama Railroad Company, and was active in the construction of the road. In the Constitutional Convention of the State of New York (1846) Mr. Stephens was a delegate from the city of New York.

Steuben (Baron), FREDERICK WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, was born at Magdeburg, Prussia, Nov. 15, 1730; died at Steubenville, N. Y., Nov. 28, 1794. He was educated at Neisse and Breslau. At the siege of Prague he was, at the age of fourteen years, a volunteer under his father, and he was so distinguished at Prague and Rossbach in 1757 that he was made adjutant-general the next year. In 1761 he was sent prisoner

to St. Petersburg, but was soon released, and in 1762 was placed on the staff of Frederick the Great of Prussia. In 1764 he was appointed grand-marshal and general of the guard of the

ed over his grave by private subscription, the recumbent slab bearing only his name and title.



FREDERICK WILLIAM AUGUSTUS STEUBEN.

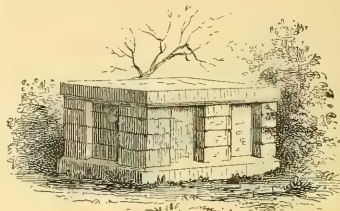
Prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, who made him a Knight of the Order of Fidelity. Leaving an ample income, he came to America late in 1777 (arriving at Portsmouth, N. H., in November), and joined the army under Washington at Valley Forge. He was appointed inspector-general of the army with the rank of major-general in March, 1778, and fought as a volunteer in the battle of Monmouth in June. Steuben introduced thorough discipline in the army, and prepared a manual of tactics which was approved by Congress. He commanded in Virginia in 1781, and was distinguished at Yorktown in October. The State of New Jersey gave him a small farm

at the close of the war, and the State of New York gave him 16,000 acres of wild land in Oneida County. The national government gave him an annuity of \$2500. He withdrew from society, built a log house on his domain, and lived there until his death. He gave a tenth of his estate to his aids—



STEUBEN'S LOG HOUSE.

North, Popham, and Walker—and his servants, and parcelled the remainder among twenty or thirty tenants. He was generous, witty, cheerful, and of polished manners. Steuben was buried in his garden at Steubenville. Afterwards, agreeably to his desires, his aids had his remains wrapped in his cloak, placed in a plain coffin, and buried in a grave in the town of Steuben, about seven miles northwest of Trenton Falls. There, in 1826, a monument was erect-

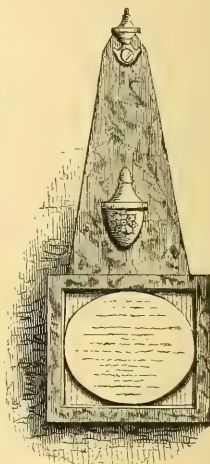


STEUBEN'S RURAL MONUMENT.

His grateful aid, Colonel North, caused a neat mural monument to be erected to his memory upon the walls of the German Reformed Church edifice in Nassau Street, between John Street and Maiden Lane, New York city, with a long and eulogistic inscription.

Steuben in Virginia.

Baron Steuben was in Virginia when Arnold invaded the state. (See *Arnold in Virginia*.) He had been left there by General Greene to gather up and discipline the levies voted for the Southern Army by that state. On the appearance of this new danger, the militia flocked to his standard. Believing Petersburg to be Arnold's chief object, the baron kept his small force on the southern side of the James, and after the traitor had burned Richmond and gone down the river on a marauding expedition, Steuben (with General Nelson) pursued him with Virginia militia, when Arnold fled up the Elizabeth River. Soon afterwards, Lafayette and Wayne joined Steuben in chasing Cornwallis down the Virginia peninsula.



STEUBEN'S MURAL MONUMENT.

Stevens, EBENEZER, was born in Boston in 1752; died in New York city, Sept. 2, 1823. At the age of twenty-one he formed one of the famous "Boston Tea-party" (which see), and soon afterwards went to Long Island. He entered the military service in 1775, and raised two companies of artillery and one of artificers for the expedition against Canada. In November, 1776, he was appointed major, and commanded the artillery at Ticonderoga and in the battle of Stillwater, or Bemis's Heights (which see). In April, 1778, he was made lieutenant-colonel and assigned to Lamb's artillery regiment; and he served with Lafayette in Virginia in 1781, participating in the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. He was for many years a leading merchant in New York, and major-general of militia, serving in defence of the city of New York in 1814.

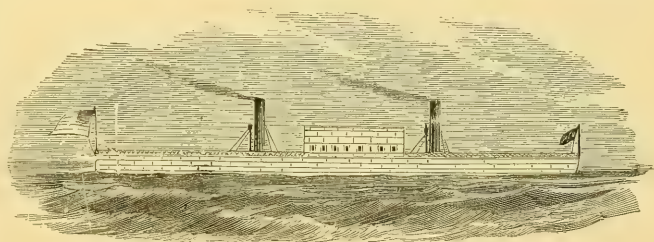
Stevens, EDWARD, was born in Culpepper County, Va., in 1745; died there, Aug. 17, 1820. At the battle of Great Bridge (which see) he commanded a battalion of riflemen, and was soon afterwards made colonel of a Virginia regiment, with which he joined the army under Washington and fought in the battle of Brandywine, saving a part of the army there from capture by his skill and bravery. After the battle of Germantown (which see) he was made a brigadier-general. He was distinguished in the battle near Camden (see *Sanders's Creek, Battle at*) and at Guilford Court-house (which see). He was highly commended by General Greene for his services. At the latter battle he was severely wounded. He was also distinguished in the siege of Yorktown. General Stevens was a State Senator from the organization of the state government in Virginia until 1790.

Stevens, ISAAC INGALLS, was born at Andover, Mass., March 25, 1818; killed in battle, Sept. 1, 1862. He graduated at West Point, first in his class, in 1839, and entered the Engineer Corps. He was attached to General Scott's staff during the war in Mexico (1847-48) as adjutant, and was severely wounded in the attack on the city of Mexico. He resigned in 1853, and was appointed Governor of Washington Territory and placed in charge of the survey of a route for a North Pacific railway, establishing its practicability. Governor Stevens was a representative in Congress from Washington Territory from 1857 till 1861. A leading Democrat, he was in the convention at Charleston and Baltimore in 1860 (which see), and supported Breckinridge for the Presidency; but when the secession movements began he advised Buchanan to dismiss Floyd and Thompson, and supported the government nobly with his sword in the Civil War that ensued, entering the military service as colonel of the Seventy-ninth New York Highlanders. He was active under Sherman in the Port Royal expedition in 1862; was afterwards attached to Pope's command, leading a division; and in the battle at Chantilly fell while bearing aloft the colors of one of his regiments and cheering on his men. He had been made major-general of volunteers July 4, 1862.

Stevens, JOHN, inventor, was born in New York in 1749; died at Hoboken, N. J., in 1838. Seeing John Fitch's steamboat on the "Collect" in New York in 1787, he became interested in the subject of steamboat navigation, and experimented for nearly thirty years. He unsuccessfully petitioned the Legislature of New York for the exclusive navigation of the waters of the state. He built a propeller in 1804—a small open boat worked by steam. It was so successful that he built the *Phoenix*, a steamboat completed soon after Fulton and Livingston had set the *Clermont* afloat. (See *Fulton, Robert.*) The

latter having obtained the exclusive right to navigate the waters of New York, Stevens placed his boats on the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. In 1812 he published a pamphlet urging the United States government to make experiments in railways traversed by carriages propelled by steam, and proposed the construction of a railway for such a purpose from Albany to Lake Erie. This was nearly a quarter of a century before such a work was accomplished.

Stevens, ROBERT LIVINGSTON, son of John Stevens, the inventor, was born at Hoboken, N. J., in 1788; died there, April 20, 1856. At the age of twenty years he built a steamboat with concave water-lines, the first application of the wave-line to ship-building. He discovered the utility of employing anthracite coal in steam navigation in 1818, when coal was about to become an article of commerce. In 1822 he first substituted the skeleton wrought-iron for the heavy cast-iron walking-beam, and in 1824 first applied artificial blast to the boiler furnace. In 1827 he introduced the "hog-frame" for steamboats to prevent their bending in the centre. Mr. Stevens began the first steam ferriage between New York and the New Jersey shores in 1816, and was the inventor of the T rail for railroads. He was a projector of the Camden and Amboy Railroad, and was its president for many years. About 1815 he invented an improved bomb for the naval service. In 1842 he was commissioned by the United States government to build an immense steam iron-clad floating



STEVENS'S IRON-CLAD FLOATING BATTERY.

battery for the defence of the harbor of New York. It was left unfinished at the time of his death, and in 1880 was sold at auction. (See *Floating Batteries.*)

Stevens, THADDEUS, was born at Peacham, Vt., April 4, 1793; died in Washington, D. C., Aug. 11, 1868. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1814, and removed to York, Penn., where he taught school, studied law, and was admitted to the bar, practising for many years successfully in Gettysburg. In 1842 he removed to Lancaster, where he became a leader of the bar. Having served many years in the State Legislature, he was sent to Congress in 1848, and was among the most earnest opposers of the extension of slavery. He was a member of Congress from 1857 until his death, and was a recognized leader. He was always conspicuous for his zeal and industry, and was radical in everything. He advocated the emancipation of the slaves with vehemence, urging President Lincoln to issue a

proclamation to that effect, and he initiated and pressed the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. He always advocated extreme measures towards those who instigated and promoted the great insurrection.

Stevens, THOMAS HOLDUP, was born in Charleston, S. C., in 1793; died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 22, 1841. His original name was Holdup, Stevens being added by legislative enactment in 1815. He entered the United States Navy in 1808, and was made lieutenant in July, 1813. In 1812 he volunteered for lake service, and in December he was severely wounded by a canister-shot through his hand while storming a battery at Black Rock, near Buffalo. In the summer of 1813 he superintended the fitting and rigging of Perry's fleet at Erie, and in the battle (see *Lake Erie, Battle of*), Sept. 10, he commanded the sloop *Trippe*, behaving gallantly. He was afterwards in command of different vessels.

Stevens, THOMAS HOLDUP, Jr., son of the preceding, was born in Connecticut, May 27, 1819, and entered the navy in 1836. He was active in naval operations on the southern coast, and in movements against Mobile in the Civil War. He was specially distinguished in operations against forts Wagner and Sumter in 1863, and in the capture of the Confederate fleet and of Fort Morgan in the summer of 1864. His gallantry and coolness won for him the highest consideration.

Stevenson, THOMAS G., was born in Boston in 1836; killed at Spottsylvania, Va., May 10, 1864. He was an excellent tactician, and when the Civil War began he drilled a large number of young men, who afterwards became distinguished in the field. He raised a regiment, and participated with it as colonel in the capture of Roanoke Island and New Berne (which see). He was active in eastern North Carolina, and was made brigadier general late in 1862; served in the reduction of Fort Wagner in 1863, and was in command of the First Division of the Ninth Corps in the Army of the Potomac when he fell.

Stewart, CHARLES, was born in Philadelphia, July 28, 1778. His parents were natives of Ireland. He was the youngest of eight children, and lost his father when he was two years old. At the age of thirteen he entered the merchant service as a cabin-boy, and rose rapidly to be commander of an Indiaman. In 1798 he was commissioned a lieutenant in the navy, making his first cruise with Captain Barney. In 1800 he was appointed to the command of the schooner *Experiment*, and fought and captured the French schooner *Deux Amis* (Two Friends) Sept. 1. Soon afterwards he captured the *Diana* (Sept. 14), besides recapturing a number of American vessels which had been taken by French privateers. In the war with Tripoli (which see), Stewart was distinguished for skill and bravery, and was Decatur's favorite. In May, 1804, he was made master-commandant and placed in command of the frigate *Essex*. He was promoted to captain in 1806, and was employed in superintending

the construction of gunboats at New York. In December, 1812, Captain Stewart was appointed commander of the frigate *Constellation* (which he had previously commanded), and assisted in the defence of Norfolk against British marauders. He sailed on a cruise in the frigate *Constellation* in December, 1813, and after her return she was laid up for a long time. Again sailing in her, he captured the *Cyane* and *Levant* (see



CHARLES STEWART, AGED 86.

Constitution, Cruise of). and this was his last exploit in the War of 1812-15. After the war he was in command of the Mediterranean Squadron (1817-20), and from that time until the breaking-out of the Civil War he was almost constantly in the naval service of his country afloat or ashore. In 1857 he was placed on the retired list on account of his age, but in 1859 he was replaced on the active list by special legislation. In July, 1862, he was promoted to rear-admiral on the retired list. Admiral Stewart died at Bordentown, N. J., Nov. 7, 1869, in the ninety-second year of his age.

Stiles, EZRA, D.D., LL.D., was born at North Haven, Conn., Dec. 15, 1727; died in New Haven, May 12, 1795. He graduated at Yale College in 1746, was tutor there for six years, and its president for seventeen years (1778-95). Dr. Franklin having sent an electrical apparatus to Yale College, Stiles and one of his fellow-tutors entered with zeal upon the study of this new science, and performed the first electrical experiments in New England. In consequence of religious doubts, he began to study law in 1752, and gave up preaching, for which he had been licensed in 1749. His doubts having been removed, he resumed preaching at Newport, R. I., in 1755. In 1777 he was invited to the presidency of Yale College and accepted, entering upon the duties June 23, 1778, and filled that office until his death. After the death of Professor Daggett, in 1780, Dr. Stiles filled his place

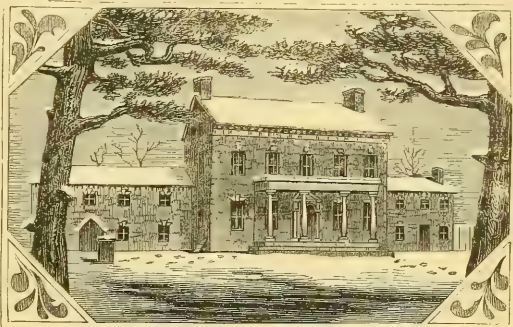
himself as professor of divinity. By hard study he learned several Oriental languages, and corresponded with Jesuits in Latin, and Greek bishops in Greek. He was, undoubtedly, one of the most gifted men of his time. He wrote an interesting *History of Three of the Judges of King Charles I., 1794*—Goffe, Whalley, and Dixon (which see)—who came to this country. His published addresses and sermons, and his MS. diary and other works are preserved at Yale in forty-five bound volumes.

Stirling, SIR THOMAS, of Ardoch, Scotland, entered the royal army in 1757; served in America under Abercrombie and Amherst (1758–60); and in 1765 was stationed at Fort Chartres, Illinois, whence he marched with his command to Philadelphia in 1766. Throughout our war for independence he commanded the Forty-second Regiment, as its lieutenant-colonel. He was in the battle of Long Island and at the capture of Fort Washington (which see) in 1776; was at some of the most important engagements until 1780, when, as brigadier-general, he accompanied General Clinton in the capture of Charleston (which see). He rose to the rank of general in January, 1801, having been created a baronet in 1796.

Stockbridge Indians. After the affairs of Lexington and Concord, about fifty domiciliated Indians of the Stockbridge tribe, accompanied by their wives and little ones, and armed mostly with bows and arrows, a few only with muskets, planted their wigwams in the woods near where the Charles River enters the bay. They formed a company of minute-men, authorized by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts. On July 8 some British barges were sounding the Charles River near its mouth, when they were driven off by these Indians. On June 21, two Indians, probably of this company, killed four of the British regulars with their bows and arrows and plundered them. There is no record of their doing any other military service in the siege of Boston. These were the Indian savages "brought down upon" the British at Boston, alluded to in General Gage's letter to agent Stuart. (See *Royal Orders to Employ Indians*.)

Stockton, RICHARD, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Princeton, N. J., Oct. 1, 1730; died near there, Feb. 28, 1781. He graduated at the College of New Jersey, Princeton, in 1748; was admitted to the bar in 1754, and soon became eminent in his profession and very popular as a citizen. He was a member of the Council in 1768, and judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey in 1774. He was elected to Congress in 1776 in time to participate in the debates on the subject of independence. He signed the great Declaration, and cordially supported the measures of the Continental Congress, in which he was active and influential. He was sent on a mission to the Northern Army, and soon after his return in November, 1776, a party of loyalists captured him. He was cast into prison, and was so ill-treated that when he was exchanged his health was so shattered that

he never recovered. The British destroyed his library when they occupied Princeton at the close of 1776, and devastated his estate. His fine mansion in the suburbs of Princeton, which he called "Morven," was the scene of the destruction of his library and the mutilation of furniture and pictures. The portraits of the signer and his wife were pierced with bayonets,



MORVEN.

and the only books in his library which were saved were the Bible and Young's *Night Thoughts*.

Stockton, ROBERT FIELD, was born at Princeton, N. J., in 1796; died there, Oct. 7, 1866. He was a grandson of Richard Stockton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and entered the navy as midshipman in 1811; was conspicuous in several of the battles of the War of 1812–15; became captain in 1838, and resigned in May, 1850. In the Mediterranean and on the coast of Africa he was active and efficient—against the Algerine pirates in the first instance, and the slavers in the second—and in 1821 he made treaties with African chiefs by which was obtained the territory of Liberia. (See *Colonization Society, American*.) He also broke up the nests of many West India pirates. He was among the foremost in advocating steam-vessels for the navy, and the *Princeton*, built after his plan, in 1844, was the pioneer. In 1845 he was sent to the Pacific with fifteen hundred men, including six hundred sailors, in a small squadron, and in a few months he was chiefly instrumental in conquering California and forming a provisional United States government there. He was United States Senator from 1851 to 1853, and to him the navy is indebted for the abolition of flogging on the ships.

Stone, THOMAS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Charles County, Md., in 1743; died at Port Tobacco, Md., Oct. 5, 1787. Educated by a Scotch tutor, he became a lawyer at Frederickton, Md., at the age of twenty-one. From 1775 to 1779 he was a member of Congress, and warmly supported the resolution for independence. He was a member in 1783–84, and was president *pro tem.* at one time. He was a member of the Maryland Senate repeatedly during the intervals of his attendance upon Congress.

Stone-fleet, THE. The Confederates had sunk

obstructions in the channel leading up to Norfolk in April, 1861. This hint was acted upon by the National government in December following. It sent a number of condemned merchant-vessels, chiefly New England whale-ships, which had been stripped of their copper bottoms and filled with blocks of granite, to be sunk at the entrance to Charleston harbor. Twenty-five of them—some of four hundred tons burden—arrived off Charleston Bar Dec. 20, 1861. In their sides, below water-mark, were holes filled with wooden plugs, to be removed when they were in a proper position. Sixteen of these were sunk on the bar at the entrance of the main ship-channel, six miles from Fort Sumter, at intervals, checkerwise, so as to form disturbing currents, that would perplex, but not destroy, the navigation. It was intended as a temporary interference, as a war measure. It was a failure.

Stoneman, GEORGE, was born in Chautauqua County, N. Y., Aug. 8, 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1846. In 1861 he was captain, in command of Fort Brown, Texas, and refused to obey the order of General Twiggs (which see) to surrender the government property to the Secessionists. He chartered a steamer, evacuated the post, and proceeded to New York, where he arrived March 15. He was made major of cavalry, and served in western Virginia as inspector-general until made a brigadier of volunteers and chief of cavalry, in August. He was active in the Peninsular campaign, in 1862; and after the fall of General Kearny, at Groveton, or second battle of Bull's Run, he took command of that general's division. He succeeded General Heintzelman as commander of the Third Army Corps, which he led in the battle of Fredericksburg (which see), and was promoted to major-general in November, 1862. In the campaign towards Richmond, in May, 1863, he commanded a cavalry corps on raids; and from January to April, 1864, he led the Twenty-third Corps. Then he was transferred to the command of the cavalry in the Department of the Ohio, and until July was engaged, under Sherman, in the Atlanta campaign, where he was captured while on a raid towards Andersonville. He was exchanged, and near the close of the year he was engaged in a raid in southwestern Virginia. In the spring of 1865 he was engaged in an expedition into North Carolina. In March he was breveted major-general United States Army, and retired in 1871. Governor of Cal., 1883-87.

Stoneman's Raid (1864). General Sherman ordered General Stoneman, at Atlanta, to take his own and Garrard's cavalry, about five thousand in all, and move by the left, around Atlanta, to Macdonough, while McCook was to move by the right to Fayetteville (see *McCook's Raid*), and, sweeping round, join the latter at Lovejoy's Station, on the Macon Railway. He moved on the night of July 28 (1864). Stoneman, ambitious, tried to do too much, and failed in nearly all his undertakings on that raid. He obtained consent to go farther than Lovejoy's, after reaching that station, and attempt the cap-

ture of Macon, and, pushing on, release the captives at Andersonville. He omitted to co-operate with McCook in his movement upon the railway at Lovejoy's, and with his own command, separated from Garrard's, about three thousand in number, he pressed on to Macon. There he was met by Confederate cavalry, under General Iverson, and was compelled to turn hastily back, closely pressed by the Confederates. His command was divided. One of his brigades reached Atlanta without much loss; another was dispersed, and the remainder, one thousand strong, led by Stoneman himself, were surrounded by Iverson, and seven hundred of them made prisoners. The remainder escaped. Iverson had only about five hundred men.

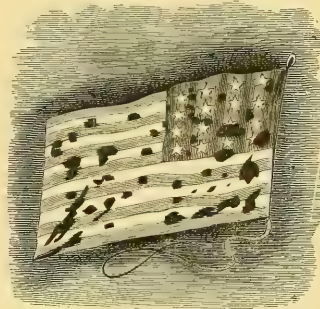
Stoneman's Raid (1865). Late in 1864 General Stoneman took command in East Tennessee, and concentrated the forces of Gillem and Burbridge at Bean's Station. He moved towards Bristol (Dec. 12, 1864), where his advance struck a force under Basil Duke, one of Morgan's officers, near Kingsport, dispersed them, and captured their trains and eighty-four of their men. He menaced the salt-works at Saltville, in southwestern Virginia. General Gillem was very active in that region, and Stoneman proceeded to destroy the salt-works. Breckinridge, who was defending them, was driven over the mountains, and they were laid waste. Late in the winter Stoneman, who had returned to Knoxville, was ordered to make a cavalry raid into South Carolina, in aid of Sherman's movements. Before he was ready to move, Sherman had advanced so far that the raid into South Carolina was unnecessary, and Stoneman proceeded to strike and destroy the Virginia and Tennessee Railway, in southwestern Virginia. It was torn up to within four miles of Lynchburg by a part of his command. At the same time Stoneman, with his main body, advanced on Christiansburg, and, sending troops east and west, destroyed about ninety miles of the railroad. Then he turned his force southward (April 9, 1865), and struck the North Carolina Railway between Danville and Greensborough. He sent Colonel Palmer to destroy the railway between Salisbury and Greensborough and the factories at Salem, N. C., while the main body moved on Salisbury, forcing the Yadkin at Huntsville (April 11), and skirmishing near there. Palmer captured a South Carolina regiment of four hundred men. Ten miles east of Salisbury (which was a depot for Union prisoners) the raiders encountered three thousand Confederates, under Pemberton, Grant's opponent at Vicksburg, now reduced from a lieutenant-general to a colonel. He had eighteen guns. This force was charged by the brigades of Gillem and Brown; its guns were captured, also three thousand small-arms, and a large collection of ammunition, provisions, and clothing, and over twelve hundred men were made prisoners. The Confederates, who fled, were chased several miles. At Salisbury the raiders destroyed ten thousand small-arms, four cotton-factories, seven thousand bales of cotton, a vast amount of ammunition, provisions, and clothing, and the railway

cracks in each direction. The Union prisoners had been removed. On April 17 Stoneman started for East Tennessee. On the 19th Major E. E. C. Moderwell, with two hundred and fifty cavalry, burned the fine bridge of the Charlotte and South Carolina Railroad, eleven hundred and fifty feet in length and fifty feet above the water, over the Catawba. It was a blackened ruin in the space of thirty minutes. After a sharp skirmish with Confederate cavalry, the raiders returned to their main body at Dallas, with three hundred and twenty-five prisoners, two hundred horses, and two pieces of artillery. During the raid the National cavalry captured six thousand prisoners, twenty-five pieces of artillery taken in action, twenty-one abandoned, and a large number of small-arms.

"Stonewall" Jackson. General Thomas J. Jackson received the name of "Stonewall" from a circumstance that occurred at the battle of Bull's Run, July 21, 1861. A furious charge, made by a New York regiment under Colonel H. W. Slocum, had shattered the Confederate line, and the troops had fled to a plateau whereon General Jackson had just arrived with reserves. "They are beating us back!" exclaimed General Bee. "Well, sir," replied Jackson, "we will give them the bayonet!" Bee was encouraged. "Form! form!" he cried to the fugitives; "There stands Jackson like a stone wall." The effect of these words was wonderful. The flight was checked, order was brought out of confusion, and ever afterwards the calm general was called "Stonewall" Jackson. (See *Jackson, T. J., and Bull's Run, Battle of.*)

Stonington, BOMBARDMENT OF (1814). On Aug. 9, 1814, Sir Thomas Hardy appeared off Stonington, Conn., with a squadron consisting of the *Ramilles*, 74 guns (flag-ship); *Pactolus*, 44 guns; bomb-ship *Terror*; brig *Dispatch*, 22 guns; and barges and launches. He anchored his little squadron within two miles of the town, and proceeded reluctantly to the execution of an order of Admiral Cochrane "to destroy the coast-towns and ravage the country." The depth of the water before Stonington would not allow the flag-ship to approach nearer the town than a mile and a half. Hardy sent a flag of truce ashore, with the following message to the selectmen, dated 5 o'clock P. M.: "Not wishing to destroy the unoffending inhabitants residing in the town of Stonington, one hour is granted them, from the receipt of this, to remove out of the town." "Will a flag be received from us in return?" inquired the magistrate of the bearer. "No arrangements can be made," he answered; and it was declared that it was the intention of the commodore to destroy the town totally. The magistrate then said, "We will defend the place to the last extremity; should it be destroyed, we will perish in its ruins!" Nearly all the inhabitants incapable of bearing arms left the place, and that evening the bomb-ship *Terror* and some launches rained shells and rockets upon the village without doing serious damage. During that bombardment some brave men in Stonington

cast up a sort of redoubt on the extremity of the peninsula on which the borough now stands, and placed upon it a battery of two cannons—a 6-pounder and an 18-pounder—and from these they hurled solid balls upon the assailants with so much effect that the bomb-ship and her consorts withdrew to the larger vessels. Some men gathered at Stonington the next day, but they were of little service; but a few from Mystic, not far away, led by Captain Jeremiah Holmes, flew to the aid of their neighbors, and did gallant service at the redoubt. Captain Holmes was a good gunner, and he took charge of the 18-pounder. With that piece he fought the British ships until his ammunition was spent, and no more could then be found. The borough seemed to be at the mercy of the invaders, and some timid citizens proposed to the captain to haul down the flag that floated over the battery, and surrender. "No!" shouted the captain, "that flag shall never come down while I



STONINGTON FLAG.

am alive!" When the wind died away, and the flag hung drooping by the side of the staff, the brave captain held it out at the point of a bayonet, that the British might see it. Several shots passed through it while it was in that position. To prevent some coward from hauling it down, the captain nailed the flag to the staff. But the old piece was not long silent. Some concealed powder was found. Double-shooting his cannon, the captain kept the British at bay until a competent force of militia, under General Isham, arrived to prevent the landing of the invaders. On the 12th, after a sharp bombardment, the discomfited squadron withdrew. Not a single life in the village had been lost, and only one person mortally wounded. Between fifty and sixty were slightly wounded, forty buildings were more or less injured, and two or three were nearly ruined.

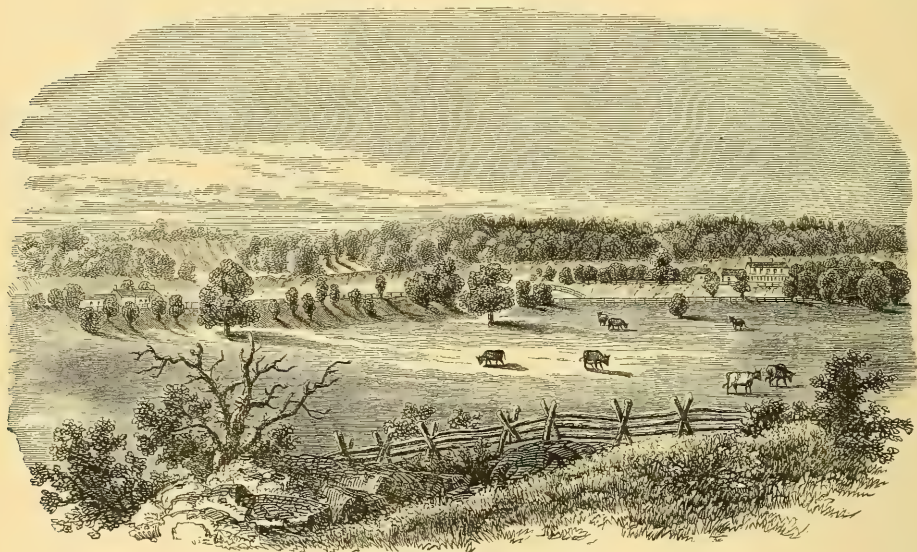
Stono Ferry, BATTLE AT (1779). After Prevost menaced Charleston, and, on account of the approach of Lincoln (see *Invasion of South Carolina*), retired to John's Island (April, 1779), both armies encamped within thirty miles of the South Carolina capital. The British cast up works at Stono Ferry, between the island and the main, and garrisoned them with eight hundred men, under Colonel Maitland. These were attacked (June 12, 1779) by about twelve hundred of Lincoln's troops, in an attempt to dis-

lodge the British. The contest was severe for more than an hour. Maitland was reinforced, and the Americans were compelled to retreat. When they fell back, the whole garrison sallied out to pursue, but the American light-horse covered the retreat so skilfully that all the wounded patriots were taken away by their friends. The Americans lost, in killed and wounded, one hundred and forty-six, besides one hundred and fifty-five missing; the British loss was somewhat less. Three days afterwards the British evacuated Stono Ferry, and retreated from island to island to Beaufort, on Port Royal Island, and thence by boats to Savannah.

Stono Ferry, SKIRMISH AT (1782). In a skirmish at Stono Ferry (September, 1782) with a British foraging party, sent out of Charleston by General Leslie, Captain Wilmot, commanding the Americans, and accompanied by Kosciuszko, was killed. His was the last blood shed in the old war for independence.

Stony Creek, BATTLE AT. When Fort George was secured (see *Fort George, Capture of*), Chauncey left Dearborn, and returned to Sackett's Harbor. The latter sent General Winder (June 1, 1813), with about eight hundred troops, including Burn's dragoons and Archer's and Towson's artillery, in pursuit of retreating General Vincent, who was making his way towards Burlington Heights, on the western end of Lake Ontario. Winder took the lake-shore road. He

after driving off a patrol of militia, under Captain Merritt. Moving on, ten miles farther, to Stony Creek, seven miles from Vincent's camp, they encountered a British picket, whom they dispersed. The main body encamped at Stony Creek; and there, on the night of the 6th, they were surprised and fiercely attacked by Vincent. The night was intensely dark, and a severe battle was fought in the gloom. The British were repulsed, but, in the darkness and confusion, both of the American commanders were captured. Meanwhile General Vincent, having been thrown from his horse in the darkness, and being unable to find either his horse or his camp, wandered off in the woods, and for a while his friends supposed he was killed. Colonel Harvey, who took the command of the British forces, hurried back to Burlington Heights with his notable prisoners. At the same time, the Americans, bereft of their generals, and fearing a renewal of the attack, retreated towards Niagara with equal precipitation. They were met by a relief-party, under Colonel James Miller. Vincent was found in the woods next day, without hat or sword, and almost famished. On their way back, the Americans were threatened by a British fleet, under Sir James L. Yeo, on their left, and hostile savages on their right; but they drove away the former with hot shot, defied the latter and the local militia, and reached Fort George in safety. In the terrible night battle at Stony Creek the Americans lost, in killed,

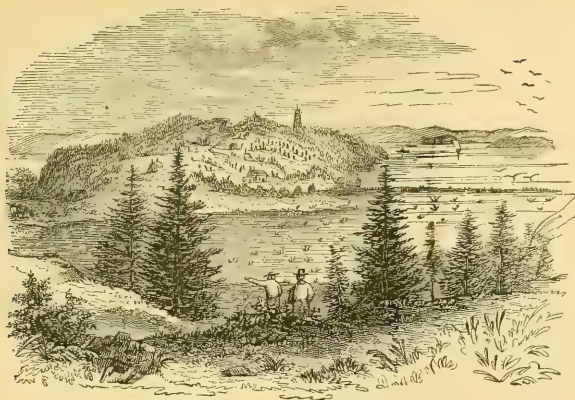


BATTLE-GROUND OF STONY CREEK.

pushed on to Twenty-mile Creek, where, hearing of reinforcements for Vincent at Burlington Heights, he prudently halted, and sent back to Dearborn for reinforcements. On the 5th he was joined by General Chandler, with about five hundred men, who, being the senior officer, took the chief command. Then the whole body moved forward to Forty-mile Creek, where they rested,

wounded, and missing, one hundred and fifty-four men; the British lost one hundred and seventy-eight.

Stony Point, CAPTURE OF, BY THE AMERICANS. The unfinished fort at Stony Point at the King's Ferry, on the Hudson, was seized by the British on the 30th of May, 1779. The fort stood upon a rocky promontory, connected with the



VIEW OF STONY POINT FROM THE SOUTHWEST.

mainland by a tide-submerged causeway across a narrow marsh—an island at high-water. It was garrisoned by a regiment of foot, some grenadiers, and artillery, the whole commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Johnson. General Anthony Wayne undertook to take the fort by storm; and at the same time a force, under General Robert Howe, was to attack the fort at Ver-

planck's Point. Several small British vessels of war were anchored in the river, within cannon-range of the forts. The latter had been enlarged and strengthened. Upon a complete surprise of the garrison depended the success of the undertaking. With the Massachusetts light infantry, Wayne marched through defiles in the mountains, and rendezvoused, at eight o'clock in the evening,

a mile and a half from the fort. Silently they had gained the spot, killing every dog on the way. At midnight they moved on the fort. A portion of the troops crossed the causeway, and formed in two columns, the van of the right, consisting of one hundred and fifty volunteers, led by Lieutenant-colonel De Fleury; that of the left, one hundred strong, also volunteers, commanded by Major Stewart. These composed the forlorn hope. They moved to the attack at two different points simultaneously, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets, followed by the two main divisions, the left led by General Wayne in person. The Americans were undiscovered until within pistol-shot distance of the pickets on the height. The pickets fired several shots. The advanced guard pressed forward with the bayonet. The garrison were aroused by the roll of the drum and the cry "To arms! to arms!" Very soon musketry rattled and cannons roared in defence of the fort, but the Americans forced their way through ev-

ery obstacle, until the van of each column met in the centre of the work. Wayne had been hit on the head and stunned by a musket-ball, but speedily recovered. The garrison soon surrendered, and not a life was taken after the flag was hauled down. Wayne wrote to Washington: "Stony Point, 16th July, 1779, 2 o'clock A. M. Dear General,—The fort and garrison, with Colonel Johnson, are ours. Our officers and men behaved like men determined to be free." At dawn the next day the guns of the fort were turned upon the works at Verplanck's Point, on the opposite side of the river, but Howe did not make the attack in time to dislodge the garrison. Lacking a force

to man the fort properly, the ordnance and stores were conveyed to West Point, the works were destroyed, and the place evacuated on the night of July 18. The British repossessed themselves of Stony Point on the 20th. Congress gave the thanks of the nation to the brave actors in this event, and voted a gold medal to Wayne and a silver medal to Stewart and De Fleury. The

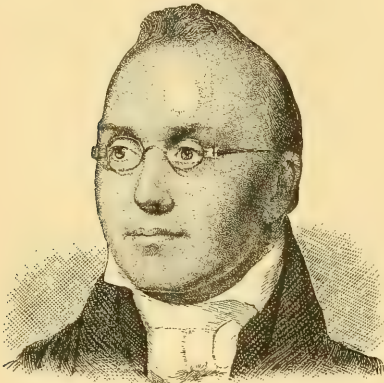


MAJOR STEWART'S MEDAL.

capture of Stony Point was regarded as one of the most brilliant as well as the most important achievements of the war.

Story, JOSEPH, was born at Marblehead, Mass., Sept. 18, 1779; died at Cambridge, Mass., Sept. 10, 1845. He graduated at Harvard University in 1798, and was admitted to the bar in 1801, beginning practice at Salem. He was a poet, and in 1804 published a volume of his poems. After serving in the State Legislature, he became a member of Congress in 1808. He was speaker of the Massachusetts Assembly in 1811, and from November of that year until his death was associate judge of the United States Supreme Court. From 1829 until his death he was Dane Professor of Law in Harvard University. His published judicial works evince very extensive learning, clear exposition, and profound views of the legal science. His commentaries on the Constitution, entitled *Conflict of Laws*, and his written judgments in his circuit make twenty-seven volumes; his judgments in

the Supreme Court of the United States make an important part of thirty-four volumes more.



JOSEPH STORY.

Strain, ISAAC G., lieutenant United States Navy, was born at Roxbury, Franklin Co., Penn., in 1821; died at Aspinwall, May 15, 1857. While yet a midshipman (1845), he led a small party to explore the interior of Brazil, and in 1848 explored the peninsula of California. In 1849 he crossed South America from Valparaiso to Buenos Ayres, and wrote an account of the journey, entitled *The Cordillera and Pampa, Mountain and Plain: Sketches of a Journey in Chili and the Argentine Provinces*. In 1850 he was assigned to the Mexican Boundary Commission (which see), and afterwards (1854) led a famous expedition across the Isthmus of Darien, for an account of which see *Harper's Magazine*, 1856-57. In 1856, in the steamer *Arctic*, Lieutenant Strain ascertained by soundings the practicability of laying an ocean telegraphic cable between America and Europe.

Streight's Raid. Colonel A. D. Streight left Nashville (April 11, 1863) with unmounted troops on steamboats, to descend the Cumberland to Fort Donelson, at Dover, and thence to sweep around the rear of Bragg's army in southern Tennessee, cut off all his railway communications in northern Georgia, destroy manufactories and depots of supplies, and in every way to cripple the Confederates. His was called an "independent provisional brigade," created for a temporary purpose. Landing at Dover, Streight marched across to the Tennessee, at Fort Henry, where he remained until the boats went down the Ohio and up the Tennessee to that post. There he embarked his men, and, landing at Eastport, made a feint with General Dodge, then moving on Tusculumbia, to mask the real intention of his expedition. He had been directed to gather up horses on the way. He remained with Dodge until after the capture of Tusculumbia. Then, with only about 300 of his 1800 men on foot, he started southward, and, soon turning eastward, hastened towards Rome and Atlanta, in Georgia. The former was the seat of extensive Confederate iron-works, and the latter the focus of several converging railways. At the same time, Dodge struck off southward, swept through a

portion of northern Alabama, destroying a large amount of Confederate property, and returned to Corinth. Streight and his raiders were pursued by Forrest and Roddy, and there was continual skirmishing and racing until they approached Rome, when Streight's ammunition and horses failed him, many of the poor beasts dying from sheer exhaustion. On the 3d of May, when near Rome, the raiders, struck by their pursuers, were compelled to surrender. The captives were sent to Richmond and confined in the loathsome Libby Prison (which see), from which Streight and 100 officers escaped (February, 1864), by burrowing under the foundation-walls of that edifice. Streight surrendered 1365 men—Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois troops.

Strength of the Colonies Discovered. The war with the French and Indians, and the contests with royal authority in which the colonies had been engaged at its close, in 1763, revealed to the colonists their almost unsuspected innate strength. During these contests, disease and weapons had slain 30,000 of the colonists. They had also spent more than \$16,000,000, of which \$5,000,000 had been reimbursed by Parliament. Massachusetts alone had kept from 4000 to 7000 men in the field, besides garrisons and recruits to the regular regiments. They served but a few months in the year, and were fed at the cost of the British government. At the approach of winter they were usually disbanded, and for every campaign a new army was summoned. Yet that province alone spent \$2,000,000 for this branch of the public service, exclusive of all Parliamentary disbursements. Connecticut had spent fully \$2,000,000 for the same service, and the outstanding debt of New York, in 1763, increased largely for the public service, was about \$1,000,000. The Southern colonies, too, had been liberal in such public expenditures, according to their means. At that time Virginia had a debt of \$8,000,000. Everywhere the English-American colonies felt the consciousness of puissant manhood, and were ready to grapple in deadly conflict with every enemy of their inalienable rights. They demanded a position of political equality with their fellow-subjects in Great Britain, and were ready to maintain their rights at all hazards.

Stribling, CORNELIUS K., rear-admiral and senior officer on the retired list of the navy, was born in South Carolina, and became a midshipman in 1812. He was assigned to the captured British vessel *Macedonian*, on her arrival at New York, Jan. 1, 1813; became a lieutenant in 1818, commander in 1840, captain in 1853, commodore in 1862, and rear-admiral on the retired list in 1866. During a long life, Admiral Stribling was ever active in the service, most of the time afloat. From 1850 to 1853 he was superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis; commanded the East India squadron from 1859 to 1861; the Philadelphia navy-yard, 1863-64; the Eastern Gulf blockading squadron, 1864-65, and was a member of the Light-house Board from 1867 to 1871. He died at Martinsburg, Va., Jan. 20, 1880.

Strickland's Plain, BATTLE AT. At Horse-neck, on the confines of Connecticut, a severe battle was fought, in 1644, between the Dutch and Indians, at a place called Strickland's Plain. Great numbers were slain on both sides, and for a century or more the graves of the dead were visible. The Dutch were victorious.

Stringer, SAMUEL, was born in Maryland, in 1734; died in Albany, N. Y., July 11, 1817. In 1755 Governor Shirley appointed him to the medical department of the Provincial army, and, at the close of the war, he married and settled in Albany. In 1775 he was appointed director-general of the hospitals in the Northern Department, under General Schuyler, and accompanied the troops that invaded Canada.

Stringham, SILAS HORTON, was born at Middledtown, N. Y., Nov. 7, 1798; died in Brooklyn, Feb. 7, 1876. He entered the navy as midshipman at eleven years of age, and was lieutenant at sixteen. He was with Rodgers in the affray



SILAS HORTON STRINGHAM.

between the *President* and *Little Belt* (which see), and in 1815 was in Decatur's expedition against the Barbary powers. In 1820 he was in the *Cyane*, which conveyed the first immigrants that settled on the coast of Liberia, Africa, and formed the nucleus of the Republic of Liberia (which see). In the war against Mexico, Captain Stringham, in command of the *Ohio*, took part in the bombardment of Vera Cruz. He was afterwards in command of different squadrons, and in 1861 was appointed flag-officer of the Atlantic blockading squadron and ordered to the *Minnesota* as his flag-ship. With her he went as joint commander with Butler, with the land and naval expedition which captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet (see *Hatteras, Forts at, Captured*), Aug. 27-28, 1861. In September he was relieved at his own request, and in July, 1862, was made a rear-admiral on the retired list. In 1871 he was made port-admiral at New York.

Stuart, GILBERT CHARLES, artist, was born at Narragansett, R. I., in 1754; died in Boston, July 9, 1825. He was taken to Edinburgh when eighteen years of age by a Scotch artist named Alexander, but soon returned, and painted at New-

port, Boston, and New York. When the war for independence broke out, he went to London, received instructions from Benjamin West, and rose to eminence. In Paris he painted a portrait of Louis XIV. He returned to America in 1793, and painted, from life, portraits of Washington and many worthies of the Revolutionary period. After residing several years in Philadelphia and awhile in Washington, he made his permanent abode in Boston in 1806. Stuart's last work was a portrait of John Quincy Adams. He is regarded as one of the best portrait-painters America has ever produced. His two daughters, Mrs. Stebbins and Miss Jane Stuart, both meritorious artists, long followed the profession of their father.

Stuart, JAMES E. B., was born in Patrick County, Va., in 1832; killed in battle, May 11, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1854 and entered the cavalry corps in 1855; served against the Cheyenne Indians and was wounded in 1857; left the army and joined the insurgents in 1861, receiving the commission of colonel of a Virginia cavalry regiment. He was one of the most daring of the cavalry officers in the Confederate army. (See *Stuart's Raid*.) He was especially active on the flanks of McClellan's army, and in the next year during the Gettysburg campaign, though invariably defeated by the National cavalry. In Grant's campaign against Richmond, in 1864, he was mortally wounded in an encounter with Sheridan's cavalry near the Confederate capital.

Stuart's Raid. J. E. B. Stuart was one of the boldest and most daring of the Confederate cavalry officers in Virginia. At about the middle of June, 1862, he, with fifteen hundred cavalry and two pieces of horse artillery, rode completely around the Army of the Potomac. He attacked and dispersed two squadrons of National cavalry at Hanover Old Church, and, sweeping round to the White House, by Trustall's Station, seized and burned fourteen wagons and two schooners, laden with forage, at Garlick's Landing, above the White House. He captured and carried away one hundred and sixty-five prisoners, two hundred and sixty mules and horses, rested three hours, and, during the night, crossed the Chickahominy on a hastily built bridge, and then leisurely returned to Richmond on the Charles City road.

Sturgis, SAMUEL DAVIS, was born in Shippenburg, Penn., in 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1846, entering the dragoons. His first service was in the war with Mexico, in which he was active. Before the battle of Buena Vista he was made prisoner, but was soon exchanged. For his energy in warfare with the Indians he was promoted to captain in 1855, and was in command of Fort Smith, Ark., until 1861, when all his officers resigned and joined the Southern insurgents. He took an active and important part in the military service during the entire period of the Civil War—first with General Lyon in Missouri; then in command of the fortifications around Washington; in operations in Kentucky; as chief of cavalry in the Depart-

ment of the Ohio; and in conflicts in Tennessee and Mississippi. He was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, and in March, 1865, was breveted brigadier and ma-



SAMUEL DAVIS STURGIS.

jor-general in the United States Army. At the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, General Sturgis was in command of a division. He died in 1889.

Stuyvesant, PETER, the last Dutch governor of New York, was born in Holland in 1602; died in New York city in August, 1682. He was a brave soldier in the Dutch military service in the West Indies, and was director, or governor, of the colony of Curaçoa. He was a strong-headed, and sometimes wrong-headed, official. He had lost a leg in battle in the West Indies, and, with a wooden one, bound with silver bands, he came to New Netherland as its director-general, or governor, late in May, 1647. He was received with joy as the successor of Kieft. He assumed great dignity; marched from the vessel to the fort with great pomp, and assured the people that justice should rule. He began his administration by the assertion of vice-regal authority, and frowned upon every expression of republican sentiment, declaring it to be treason to petition against one's magistrate, "whether there be cause or not." He defended Kieft's conduct in rejecting the interference of the council of twelve (see *Kieft, William*), saying, "If any one, during my administration, shall appeal, I will make him a foot shorter and send the pieces to Holland, and let him appeal in that way." Stuyvesant was an honest despot, and acted wisely. He set about needed reforms with great vigor, and into the community he infused much of his own energy. Enterprise took the place of indifference. He soon regulated the troubles be-

tween the Dutch on Manhattan and the Swedes on the Delaware (see *New Sweden*), made arrangements for adjusting difficulties with the Puritans in the East, and pacified the surrounding tribes of barbarians. In 1650 he arranged, at Hartford, the boundary in dispute between the English and Dutch possessions. Finding the finances of the province in a wretched condition, he perceived that taxation would be necessary, so he summoned representatives of the people to meet at New Amsterdam to provide for it. (See *Representative Government in New York*.) This germ of popular rule he tried to smother, but in vain, and there were angry controversies between the governor and the people during nearly the whole of his administration. A fort built by the Dutch on the Delaware in 1651 was captured by the Swedes in 1654. This caused Stuyvesant to lead an expedition in person against the Swedes the next year, which resulted in the subjugation of New Sweden. In 1653 a convention of two deputies from each village in New Netherland demanded certain political rights for the people, and gave the governor to understand that they should act independently of him. (See *Representative Government in New York*.) He stormed and threatened, but to no purpose. The spirit of resistance increased. Disturbed by encroachments of the English on the East, he remonstrated, but in vain, and was compelled to yield to the pressure of changing circumstances around him. Finally, when an English military and naval force came from England to assert the claim of the



PETER STUYVESANT.

Duke of York to New Netherland, and revolutionary movements occurred on Long Island, his troubles tried him most severely. His fortitude and obstinacy never forsook him. When Colonel Richard Nicolls appeared with

four ships of war and four hundred and fifty soldiers in front of New Amsterdam (August, 1664) and demanded the surrender of the province (Aug. 31), he found his alienated people willing to submit to English rule. Yet he stoutly refused the demand. Nicolls sent Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, with a letter to Stuyvesant, repeating his demand. He laid it before the Council, who said, "Read it to the people." Stuyvesant would not. The Council and magistrates insisted that he should, when the enraged governor, who had fairly earned the title of "Peter the Headstrong," unable to control his passion, tore the letter in pieces. Stuyvesant held out for a week, but on Monday morning, Sept. 8, 1664, he yielded, and the formal surrender took place. The governor went to Holland to report to his superiors, in 1665, and, returning, spent the remainder of his days on his *bouvery*, or farm, on Manhattan Island, bordering on the East River. His remains rest in St. Mark's church-yard, New York city.

Stuyvesant's Authority Resisted at Beverswyck (Albany). Van Slechtenhorst, the commissary or managing agent of the property of the young patroon, after the death of his father, Killian Van Rensselaer, proprietor of the original Van Rensselaer Manor, was a man of much force of character. (See *Patroons*.) He denied and defied the authority of the director-general at New Amsterdam over the patroon's domain. Stuyvesant, full of wrath, went to Fort Orange (Albany), with a determination to assert his authority in a more positive manner than by mere orders. The hamlet of Beverswyck had grown up around Fort Orange, and Stuyvesant ordered certain houses to be pulled down, to permit of a better defence of the fort if attacked by the Indians. He also ordered stone and timber to be taken from the lands of the patroon for use in the fortifications. Van Slechtenhorst would not permit the houses to be torn down, and forbade depredations on the patroon's property. Stuyvesant sent a company of soldiers from New Amsterdam to enforce his orders. The commissary dared them to interfere with his authority on the manor, or to touch a tree belonging to the patroon. High words ensued, but the prudent commander at Fort Orange did not proceed to blows. It was clear that the Indians would have taken sides with Van Slechtenhorst. The commissary was the victor, not only in this threatened personal encounter, but in the fulfilment of long and fiery proclamations from both parties.

Style, OLD AND NEW. Julius Cæsar caused a reform to be made in the calendar in B.C. 46, and three hundred and sixty-five days and a quarter were given as the measurement of a year, which is about eleven minutes too much, an error which has now amounted to about twelve days. Pope Gregory XIII. issued an order to add ten days to the current computation, and call the 5th of October, 1582, the 15th. Protestant countries refused to adopt the new calendar by order of the pope, and Russia adheres to the calendar of Julius Cæsar to this day. The

British government, by act of Parliament, in September, 1752, adopted the Gregorian plan, and added eleven days, the 3d of the month being called the 14th. Dates according to the old calendar are called Old Style, and those according to the Gregorian are called New Style, indicated generally by the initials O. S. and N. S. Much confusion and uncertainty respecting exact dates have occurred in consequence of the change of eleven days, for dates in English books and documents written before 1752 are old style, while for a long time afterwards books and documents bore the date according to both the old and the new style. Franklin's birthday, O. S., was Jan. 6; N. S. it is Jan. 17.

Sub-treasury System. The extraordinary session of Congress (September to October, 1837) was the first of the Twenty-fifth Congress. It was called ostensibly for the relief of the commercial interests of the country, but the President (Van Buren), in his message, expressed the opinion that the National Legislature could do nothing to mitigate the business evils that existed. The most important recommendation of the message was the measure of an independent treasury, which its opponents called a "sub-treasury." The funds of the government were then in the possession of numerous banks, all of which refused to pay specie. The President regarded the use of their circulating notes, under the circumstances, as a violation of existing law, and he proposed that the treasury of the United States should be kept by public officers, and that there should be an entire divorce of bank and state. The scheme was violently opposed, especially by those interested in banks, and final action on the matter was postponed to the regular session, when it was again pressed upon Congress by the President. A sub-treasury bill passed the Senate, but was rejected by the House of Representatives, June 25, 1838. Finally, after long and able debates, it passed both houses of Congress, and became a law by the signature of the President, July 4, 1840. The divorce of bank and state, and a return to the original design of the Constitution concerning the financial affairs of the government, after a deviation for half a century, was a conspicuous feature in the administration of Mr. Van Buren. The nuptials have since been celebrated again. (See *National Currency*.)

Sucker State. A cant name given to the state of Illinois by the Western people. On the great prairies the crawfish makes holes and descends to the water beneath. The traveller across the great plains, in early times, provided himself with a long hollow reed, by which he sucked the pure water from these holes. From this circumstance the settlers on the prairies were called *Suckers*, a name applied to all the inhabitants of the state.

Sufferings in South Carolina. In 1779 and 1780 the inhabitants of South Carolina endured unutterable woes. Their plantations were pillaged by British troops, and the property of the patriotic people was confiscated or wasted; families were divided in opinion and their homes be-

came theatres of bitter discord; patriots were outlawed and savagely assassinated; houses were laid in ashes and women and children driven to the cold shelter of forests; and loyalists of the baser sort spread terror over the land and threatened to depopulate it. Civil war in its worst form prevailed for a time, but the bravery and fortitude of the true men and women of South Carolina overcame their internal and external enemies, and gave to their state the honor of being foremost in beating the invaders out of the country.

Suffolk, OPERATIONS AT (1863). General J. J. Peck was in command of 9000 men at Suffolk, in southeastern Virginia, where he had erected strong defensive works. Believing he was preparing there a base of operations for a movement against Richmond, in conjunction with the Army of the Potomac, the Confederate authorities took countervailing measures, and in February, 1863, General James Longstreet was placed in command of the Confederate forces in that region, then fully 30,000 strong. Early in April Longstreet made a descent upon Peck with 28,000 men. He thought his movement was so well masked that he should take the Nationals by surprise. He drove in their pickets; but Peck, aware of his expedition, was ready for him. He had been reinforced by a division under General Getty, making the number of his effective men 14,000. The Confederates were foiled; and in May, 1863, Longstreet abandoned the enterprise and retreated, pursued some distance by Generals Corcoran and Dodge and Colonel Foster. The siege of Suffolk had continued for several weeks before the final dash upon it, the object being the recovery of the whole country south of the James River, extending to Albemarle Sound, in North Carolina; the ports of Norfolk and Portsmouth; eighty miles of new railroad iron; the equipment of two roads; and the capture of all the United States forces and property, with some thousands of contrabands. (See "*Contrabands*.") The services of the troops under Peck were of vast importance. Besides preserving that region from seizure, they kept Longstreet and a large Confederate force from joining Lee; which event, had it happened, might have caused the capture of the whole Army of the Potomac at Chancellorsville (which see).

Suffolk Resolutions. At a meeting of delegates of every town in Suffolk County, Mass., on the 9th of September, 1774, nineteen bold resolutions, prefaced by a long preamble, were adopted, and laid before the Continental Congress. They declared, 1. The loyalty of the people to the king; 2. That it was their duty to defend and preserve their civil and religious liberties; 3. That the late laws of Parliament concerning the people of Massachusetts were gross infractions of popular rights; 4. That no obedience was due to either or any part of the acts complained of; 5. That the act for the appointment of judicial officers by the crown was unconstitutional, and therefore not to be regarded; 6. That justices disqualified by the late acts should be supported in the continued

performance of their duties, and that creditors ought to be lenient during the confusion caused by the obnoxious laws; 7. That they recommend all collectors of taxes to retain the moneys in their hands until action should be had by arbitration or otherwise; 8. That the mandamus counsellors (which see) be recommended forthwith to resign, or be regarded as public enemies; 9. That the erection of fortifications on Boston Neck be condemned; 10. Also, the Quebec Act (which see), as dangerous to the Protestant religion; 11. That the people be recommended to prepare for war; 12. That the people should act only on the defensive as long as possible; 13. That the proposition to transport beyond the sea for trial be condemned; 14. That non-intercourse in trade with Great Britain be established; 15. That domestic arts and manufactures be encouraged; 16. That a Provincial Congress was necessary and should be chosen; 17. That obedience to the Continental Congress should be given; 18. That all riots and violence be avoided; and, 19. That provision be made for unity of action, in case hostilities should be begun at any place. These resolves formed the basis of important action in the Continental Congress.

Suffrage in Virginia. In 1670 the Assembly of Virginia passed a law that disfranchised all the poorer inhabitants. It provided that none but householders and freeholders should have a voice in the election of burgesses. This law was enacted on the pretence that the elections by the "common people" were tumultuous, and that the poor voters had not discretion enough to vote properly.

Sugar. The cultivation of the sugar-plant was introduced into this country about the year 1751 by some Jesuits from Santo Domingo, who, with some negro slaves, settled on the banks of the Mississippi, just above New Orleans. The first sugar-mill was constructed about 1758, but the juice of the cane was not converted into sugar until 1764. The business was so prosperous that in 1770 sugar was the staple product of that region. When Louisiana was ceded to Spain, sugar-making ceased there, and was not revived until 1791; but when Louisiana was purchased from France (1803) there were but a few sugar-mills in that province. In 1850 the product was 347,500 hogsheads. It decreased during the Civil War, and in 1870 the product was only 87,000 hogsheads. By the tariff law of 1890 sugar was placed upon the free list, thus making an annual saving of \$50,000,000 to the people.

Sugar Act, THE. A law was passed by Parliament (April 5, 1764) reducing by one half the duties on foreign sugar and molasses imported into the colonies, and levying duties on coffee, pimento, French and East India goods, and wines from Madeira and the Azores, which had hitherto been admitted free. This act, like others proposed or passed at about the same time, produced wide-spread discontent in the colonies.

Sugar, Molasses, and Rum Duty. The New-Englanders had begun the manufacture of rum out of molasses bought at the French West

India Islands and Louisiana. They became competitors in that traffic with the English sugar-islands. The chief seat of this distillation was Newport, R. I., which was the fourth or fifth town in population, and second or third in commerce, in the colonies. To stop this traffic, and to compel the American colonies to supply themselves with sugar from the British sugar-islands in the West Indies, a duty was imposed by Parliament upon sugar, molasses, and rum imported from the French or Dutch West Indies. The act was warmly opposed in the colonies, and smuggling was so successfully prosecuted that, though there were large importations into the colonies, very little duty was collected.

Sullivan, FORT, HONOR TO THE DEFENDERS OF. On the morning of July 30, 1776, General Lee reviewed the garrison of Fort Sullivan, and bestowed on them marked praise for their valor and fortitude in its defence. At the same time Mrs. Susanna Elliot, young and beautiful, with the women of Charleston, stepped forth and presented to Moultrie's regiment a pair of silken colors, one of blue, the other of crimson, both richly embroidered by their own hands. In a low, sweet voice, Mrs. Elliot said: "Your gallant behavior in defence of liberty and your country entitle you to the highest honors. Accept these two standards as a reward justly due to your regiment; and I make not the least doubt, under Heaven's protection, you will stand by them as long as they can wave in the air of liberty." On receiving them Moultrie said: "The colors shall be honorably supported, and shall never be tarnished." On the morning of the 4th of July Governor Rutledge visited the garrison, and in the name of South Carolina thanked them; and to Sergeant Jasper he offered a lieutenant's commission and a sword. The sergeant refused the former, but accepted the latter. (See *Jasper, Sergeant.*) The fort on Sullivan's Island which Moultrie had so gallantly defended was named Fort Moultrie.

Sullivan, JOHN, LL.D., was born at Berwick, Me., Feb. 17, 1740; died at Durham, N. H., Jan. 23, 1795. He was a lawyer and an earnest patriot, and a member of the First Continental Congress. In December, 1774, he, with John Langdon, led a force against Fort William and Mary, near Portsmouth, and took from it one hundred barrels of gunpowder, fifteen cannons, small-arms, and stores. In June, 1775, he was appointed one of the brigadier-generals of the Continental army, and commanded on Winter Hill in the siege of Boston. After the evacuation in March, 1776, he was sent with troops to reinforce the army in Canada, of which he took command on the death of General Thomas, June 2, 1776, and soon afterwards exhibited great skill in effecting a retreat from that province. On the arrival of Gates to succeed Sullivan, the latter joined the army under Washington at New York, and at the battle of Long Island (which see), in August, he was made prisoner. He was soon exchanged for General Prescott, and joining Washington in Westchester County,

accompanied him in his retreat across New Jersey. On the capture of Lee, he took command of the troops under that officer, and performed good service at Trenton and Princeton. In Au-



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gust, 1777, he made an unsuccessful attack on the British on Staten Island, and then joining Washington, commanded the right wing in the battle of Brandywine. He skilfully led in the battle of Germantown, and would have driven the British from Rhode Island, or captured them, in August, 1778, had not D'Esterre failed to co-operate with him. After a sharp battle (see *Quaker Hill, Battle at*), he withdrew with slight loss. In 1779 he was sent to chastise the Indians in the heart of New York, when he laid waste their settlements in the Genesee country, and defeated forces of Tories and savages under Sir John Johnson and Brandt. Sullivan then resigned on account of his shattered health, and received the thanks of Congress. He took a seat in Congress late in 1780, and aided in suppressing the mutiny in the Pennsylvania line. From 1782 to 1786 he was attorney-general of New Hampshire, and from 1786 to 1789 was president of that commonwealth. He was active in other public employments, and saved the state from great confusion by his prudence and intrepidity when discontented persons were stirring up the spirit of insurrection. From 1789 until his death General Sullivan was United States judge of New Hampshire.

Sullivan's Campaign against the Senecas. The atrocities of the Indians (especially the Senecas, the most westerly of the Six Nations) in the Wyoming valley, and their continual raids upon the frontier settlements in New York, caused a retaliatory expedition to be made into their country in the summer of 1779. It was led by General Sullivan, who was instructed to "chastise and humble the Six Nations." He collected troops in the Wyoming valley, and

marched (July 31, 1779) up the Susquehanna with about three thousand soldiers. At Tioga Point he met (Aug. 22) General James Clinton, who had come from the Mohawk valley with about sixteen hundred men to join him. On the 29th they fell upon some Tories and Indians who were pretty strongly fortified at Chemung (now Elmira), and dispersed them. Before they could rally, Sullivan had pushed onward to the Genesee River, when he began the work of destruction. In the course of three weeks he destroyed forty Indian villages and a vast amount of food growing in fields and gardens. In fields and granaries one hundred and sixty thousand bushels of corn were wasted by fire. The Senecas had planted orchards in the rich openings in the forest. These were destroyed. A vast number of the finest apple and pear trees, the product of many years of growth, fell before the axe; hundreds of gardens abounding with edible vegetables were desolated; the inhabitants were hunted like wild beasts; their altars were overturned and their graves trampled on by strangers; and a beautiful, well-watered country, teeming with a prosperous people and just rising from a wild state by the aid of cultivation, was cast back a century in the course of a few weeks. This dreadful scourging awed the Indians for the moment, but it did not crush them. In the reaction they had greater strength, and by it the fires of deeper hatred of the white people were kindled far and wide among the tribes upon the borders of the Great Lakes and in the valley of the Ohio.

Sully, ALFRED, was born in Pennsylvania about 1820; died at Vancouver barracks, Washington Territory, April 27, 1879. He was a son of Thomas Sully, the eminent painter, and graduated at West Point in 1841. He served in the Seminole War, and in the war against Mexico. He was colonel of a Minnesota volunteer regiment early in 1862, and in the Peninsular campaign commanded a brigade. He was also in the principal battles of the Army of the Potomac in Maryland and Virginia until the close of that year, and in the battle of Chancellorsville (which see). He was sent to the Dakota territory in 1863 to keep the Indians in subjection, where he was successful, and served in the Northeast until his death.

Sully, THOMAS, a skilful painter of portraits of women and children, was born in Lincolnshire, England, in June, 1783, and came to the United States with his parents, who were players, when he was ten years of age. At fifteen he began to paint at Charleston, S. C., and at twenty established himself as a portrait-painter at Richmond, Va. He went to Philadelphia in 1809, where he resided and practised his profession until his death, Nov. 5, 1872. During a visit to England (1837-38) he painted Queen Victoria, then just crowned and eighteen years of age. His picture of "Washington crossing the Delaware" is in the possession of the Boston Museum.

Sumner, CHARLES, LL.D., was born in Boston, June 6, 1811; died in Washington, D. C., March

11, 1874. He graduated at Harvard College in 1830. Appointed a reporter of the United States Circuit Court, he published three volumes known as *Sumner's Reports*, containing the decisions of Judge Story. He also edited the *American Jurist*, a quarterly law magazine of high reputation. For three winters, while Judge Story was absent at Washington, Mr. Sumner was lecturer to the law school at Harvard, and his familiar theme was constitutional law and the law of nations. In 1837 he visited Europe, travelled extensively on the Continent, and resided nearly a year in England. Bearing a complimentary letter to the latter country from Judge Story, he was cordially received, and was introduced by statesmen on the floor of the Houses of Parliament. In 1840 he returned to Boston, and from 1841 to 1846 he published an edition with annotations of *Vesey's Reports* in twenty volumes. His first participation in active politics was in 1845. On July 4 he delivered an oration before the municipal authorities of Boston on the "True Grandeur of Nations." At that time war with Mexico was impending. He denounced the war system as a means for determining international questions, and declared that it ought to be superseded by peaceful arbitration. This oration attracted much attention, led to much controversy, and was widely circulated in America and Europe. This was followed by many public addresses on kindred themes, and his reputation as an orator, suddenly created, made them widely and thoughtfully read. He then first appeared as a public opponent of slavery, and opposed the annexation of Texas because he believed it was intended to extend the boundaries of that labor system in our country. From that day until his death, Sumner was an earnest advocate of the emancipation of the slaves. In 1846 he addressed the Whig State Convention of Massachusetts on "The Antislavery Duties of the Whig Party," and soon afterwards published a letter of rebuke to R. C. Winthrop, representative in Congress from Boston, for voting in favor of war with Mexico. He finally left the Whig party and joined the Free-soilers (see *Free-soil Party, The*), supporting Van Buren for President in 1840. In April, 1851, Mr. Sumner was elected by a coalition of Democrats and Free-soilers in the Massachusetts Legislature to a seat in the United States Senate, to fill the place vacated by Daniel Webster. He took his seat Dec. 1, 1851, and kept it by successive re-elections until his death. He was recognized as the leader in all antislavery movements in the Senate, and his political action in the matter was guided by the formula "Freedom is national, Slavery is sectional." He took a very active part in the debates on the Kansas questions. His speech upon "The Crime against Kansas" took two days in its delivery (May 19 and 20, 1856). Some passages in it greatly incensed the members of Congress from South Carolina, and one of them (Preston S. Brooks) assaulted Mr. Sumner while he was writing at his desk in the Senate Chamber on May 26. Brooks approached Sumner with a gutta-percha cane and dealt him such a blow on the head that he fell insensible upon the floor.

From this blow he long suffered severely, and did not recover until three or four years afterwards. Brooks was rewarded for this act by his constituents with the present of a gold-headed cane and a re-election to Congress. In the Senate in January, 1862, Mr. Sumner argued that the seizure of Mason and Slidell was unjustifiable, according to the principles of international law. (See *Mason and Slidell, Capture of.*) His voice was heard frequently during the war in defence of the national policy, and in 1865 he pronounced a eulogy on President Lincoln. In April, 1869, his speech on American claims on England caused great excitement and indignation in Great Britain, where it was supposed to threaten war and an attempt to excite popular feeling against that country. In the same year his opposition to the scheme for the annexation of Santo Domingo to the United States brought him into collision with President Grant, and led to Sumner's removal from the chairmanship of the Committee on Foreign Relations in March, 1870. He afterwards separated from the Republican party, and supported (1872) for the Presidency the nominee of the Liberal Republicans and Democratic party—Horace Greeley. He opposed General Grant's renomination, and at a convention of Democrats and Liberal Republicans held at Worcester in September, 1872, he was nominated for governor of Massachusetts. He was then in England in search of health, and declined. He returned home and to the Senate late in 1872, and in the course of the session he introduced an unpopular bill, which drew from the Massachusetts Legislature in 1873 a vote of censure. It was to remove from the regimental colors of the army and from the army register the names of battles won by Union troops in the Civil War. The vote of censure was rescinded in 1874, a short time before his death. He died of *angina pectoris* after an illness of a few hours. A *Memorial of Charles Sumner* was published in Boston in 1874 by order of the Massachusetts Legislature.

Sumner, EDWIN VOSE, was born in Boston in January, 1796; died at Syracuse, N. Y., March 21, 1863. In early life he was engaged in mercantile pursuits, and entered the army as second lieutenant in 1819. He was in the Black Hawk War (which see); served many years on the frontier; was distinguished in the war against Mexico and was breveted colonel; and from 1851 to 1853 was military governor of New Mexico. In the spring of 1861 he superseded A. Sidney Johnston in command of the Department of the Pacific, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He commanded the First Corps of the Army of the Potomac in the Peninsular campaign, and was twice wounded. He was also wounded at Antietam, and in the battle of Fredericksburg he commanded the right grand division of the Army of the Potomac. In May, 1862, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army. He left two sons—Edwin V. and Samuel S.—who were captains of cavalry.

Sumner, JETHRO, was born in Virginia; died in Warren County, N. C. He was paymaster of the provincial troops in North Carolina in 1760,

and commander of Fort Cumberland. In the spring of 1776 he was appointed colonel by the Provincial Congress, and with his regiment joined Washington's army. He was made brigadier-general in the Continental service in 1779, and in 1780 was engaged in the battle near Camden. (See *Sanders's Creek, S. C., Battle at.*) In 1781, after active service in North Carolina, he joined Greene in the High Hills of Santee (which see). Sumner was in the battle of Eutaw Springs, and was active in overawing the Tories in North Carolina until the close of the war, when he married a wealthy widow at New Berne.

Sumter, THOMAS, was born in Virginia in 1734; died at South Mount, near Camden, S. C., June 1, 1832. He was a volunteer in the French and Indian War, and was present at Braddock's defeat in 1755. In March, 1776, he became lieu-



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tenant-colonel of a South Carolina regiment of riflemen, and was stationed in the interior of the state to overawe the Indians and Tories. After the fall of Charleston in 1780, Sumter hid in the swamps of the Santee; and when his state was ravaged by the British, he retreated to North Carolina, where he raised a larger force than he could arm, and with these he fought and defeated a British force at Hanging Rock (which see), and totally routed a British force on the Catawba (July 12, 1780), but was afterwards (August 18) surprised and defeated at Fishing Creek (which see) by Tarleton. He soon raised another corps and repulsed Colonel Wemyss near the Broad River (November 12), and at Blackstocks (which see) defeated Colonel Tarleton, who attempted to surprise him. So vigilant and brave was Sumter that the British called him the "South Carolina Game-cock." Raising three regiments, with Marion and Perkins he dreadfully harassed the British and Tories in South Carolina. He received the thanks of Congress (Jan. 13, 1781). Cornwallis, writing to Tarleton, said of him, "He certainly has been our greatest plague in this country." He captured the British post at Orangeburg (May, 1781), and soon afterwards

those at Dorchester and Monk's Corner. General Sumter was a warm friend of the national Constitution, and was member of Congress under it from 1789 to 1793, and again from 1797 to 1801. He was United States Senator from 1801 to 1810, when he was appointed United States Minister to Brazil. Sumter was then seventy-four years of age.

Sunbury, FORT, TAKEN. British forces were sent to Georgia from New York late in 1778, and at about the time of their landing at Savannah (Dec. 29), General Prevost, in command of the British and Indians in eastern Florida, marched northward. On Jan. 9, 1779, he captured Fort Sunbury, twenty-eight miles south of Savannah, the only post of consequence then left to the Americans on the Georgia seaboard. Campbell, who had taken Savannah, was then preparing to attack this post. Prevost pushed on to Savannah, and took the chief command of the British forces in Georgia.

Sun-worshippers in the Gulf Region. The Indians found in the region of the Gulf of Mexico and on the lower Mississippi by the Europeans, had undoubtedly been in contact with the higher civilization of Mexico and South America at that time, and were sun-worshippers. They regarded that orb as the Supreme Deity, for they perceived that it was the sum of light and life on the earth. In all their invocations for blessings, the sun was appealed to as we appeal to God—"May the Sun guard you!" "May the Sun be with you!" were usual forms of invocation. At the beginning of March the men of a community selected the skin of a large deer with the head and legs attached, which they filled with a variety of fruit and grain. Its horns were garlanded with fruit and early spring flowers. The effigy, appearing like a live deer, was carried in a procession of all the inhabitants to a plain, was placed on a high pole, and at the moment of sunrise the people all fell upon their knees with their faces towards the rising luminary, and implored the god of day to grant them the ensuing season an abundance of fruit and grain as good as that which they there offered.

Suppression of the Slave-trade. On March 13, 1824, articles of convention between the United States and Great Britain were signed at London, by diplomatists appointed for the purpose, providing for the adoption of measures to suppress the African slave-trade. The first article provided that the commanders and commissioned officers of each of the two contracting powers, duly authorized to cruise on the coast of Africa, of America, and of the West Indies, for the suppression of the slave-traffic, were empowered, under certain restrictions, to detain, examine, capture, and deliver over for trial and adjudication by some competent tribunal, any ship or vessel concerned in the illicit traffic in slaves, and carrying the flag of either nation. This convention was signed by Richard Rush for the United States, and by W. Huskisson and Sir Stratford Canning for Great Britain.

Supremacy Claimed for Parliament. Massachusetts had refused to be subject to the laws

of Parliament (see *Royal Colonial Commission, First*), and had remonstrated against such subjection as "the loss of English liberty." The Long Parliament conceded the justice of the remonstrance, but the judges, at the Restoration in 1660, asserted the legislative supremacy of Parliament over the colonies without restriction. The contest between that body and the colonies as to authority began in 1634, and continued until the Revolution in 1775.

Supreme Court of New York. The first session of the Supreme Court of the State of New York was opened by Chief-justice Jay, at Kingston, on Sept. 9, 1777. In his charge to the grand jury he said, "You will know no power but such as you [the people] create; no laws but such as acquire all their obligations from your consent. The rights of conscience and of private judgment are by nature subject to no control but that of the Deity, and in that free situation they are now left."

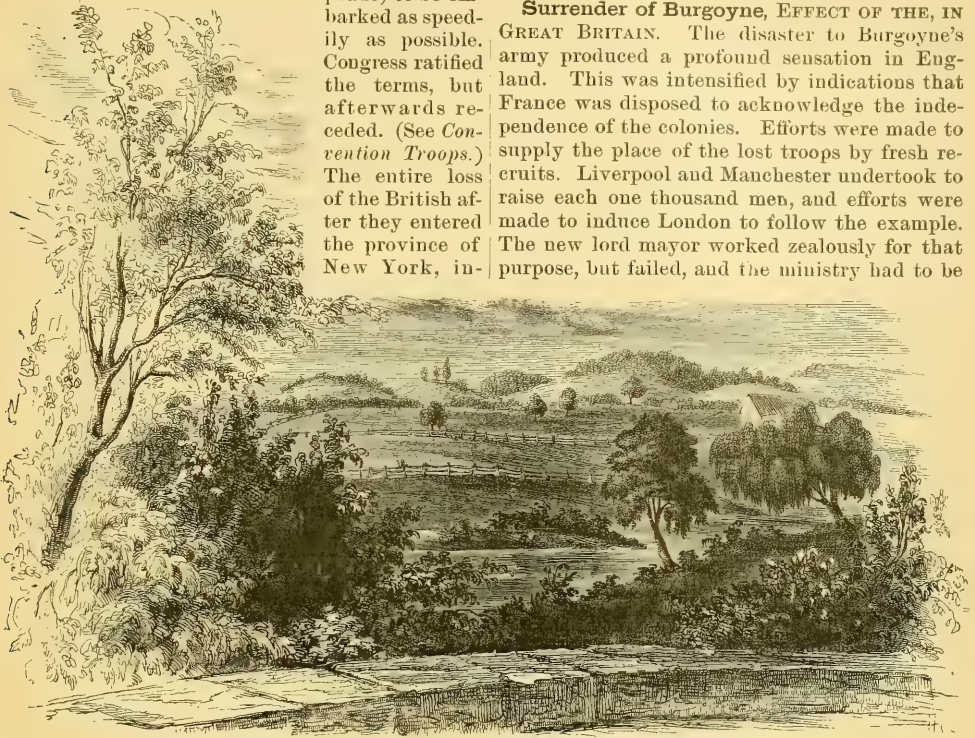
Supreme State Courts. All the states excepting Georgia established or contained some supreme tribunal authorized to review and correct the decisions of inferior courts. In Georgia the several County Courts had final jurisdiction. In New York the Senate constituted the Supreme Court of Errors, assisted by the chancellor and the judges. In New Jersey the governor and Council constituted the Court of Appeals. In Virginia a Court of Appeals was composed of the admiralty and chancery judges, and the judges of the General Court. In Maryland and South Carolina the presiding judges of the District Courts composed a Court of Appeals, but did not extend to chancery cases. The Supreme Court of North Carolina fulfilled the same functions, as did courts with the same, or nearly the same, titles in Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. (See *Chancery Jurisdiction*.)

Surrender of Burgoyne. After the battle of Oct. 7 (1777), Burgoyne retreated, in a heavy rain-storm, to the Heights of Saratoga, which he reached on the morning of the 10th. Perceiving no chance for victory or escape, negotiations for surrender were opened with Gates. These were completed, and at eleven o'clock on the morning of Oct. 17, his vanquished troops, to the number of 5,799 (of whom 2,412 were Germans) laid down their arms on the plain near the Hudson River, in front of the present Schuylerville. Besides these there were 1800 prisoners of war, including the sick and wounded, abandoned to the Americans, making the whole number included in the capitulation 7599. After the troops had laid down their arms, Burgoyne rode to the headquarters of Gates, and in the presence of many American officers he surrendered his sword to Gates, who immediately returned it with complimentary remarks. This scene is depicted on the medal awarded to Gates by Congress. The terms granted by the nominal victor were generous. The troops were not held as prisoners of war, but were allowed a free passage to their homes on the condition that they should never again take up arms against the

Americans. Arrangements were made for the march of the troops to Boston, there (the Europeans) to be embarked as speedily as possible. Congress ratified the terms, but afterwards receded. (See *Convention Troops*.) The entire loss of the British after they entered the province of New York, in-

sand six hundred muskets, and a large quantity of munitions of war.

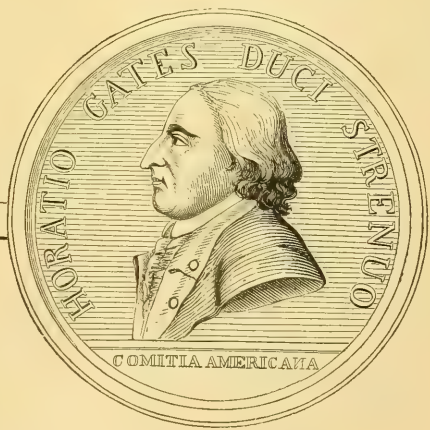
Surrender of Burgoyne, EFFECT OF THE, IN GREAT BRITAIN. The disaster to Burgoyne's army produced a profound sensation in England. This was intensified by indications that France was disposed to acknowledge the independence of the colonies. Efforts were made to supply the place of the lost troops by fresh recruits. Liverpool and Manchester undertook to raise each one thousand men, and efforts were made to induce London to follow the example. The new lord mayor worked zealously for that purpose, but failed, and the ministry had to be



VIEW OF THE PLACE WHERE THE BRITISH LAID DOWN THEIR ARMS.*

cluding those under St. Leger (see *Fort Schuyler, Siege of, and Oriskany, Battle of*), disabled and captured, was almost 10,000 men. On Burgoyne's staff were six members of Parliament.

content with a subscription of \$100,000 raised among their adherents. Nor did the plan succeed in the English counties. In Scotland it was more successful; Glasgow and Edinburgh



MEDAL STRUCK IN HONOR OF GENERAL GATES AND HIS ARMY.

Among the spoils of war were forty-two pieces of the best brass cannons then known, four thou-

both raised a regiment, and several more were enlisted in the Scotch Highlands by the great landholders of that region, to whom the appointment of the officers was conceded. The surrender created despondency among the English To-

* This view is from a bridge near Schuylerville, looking east. The water in the foreground is the Fish Creek, which enters the Hudson River less than half a mile distant.

ries, and Lord North, the prime-minister, was alarmed. (See *Conciliatory Bills*.)

Susquehanna Company, THE. The early charters granted to Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, and the Carolinas made the Pacific Ocean the nominal western boundary of those colonies. Prior occupancy by the Dutch and the settlement of boundaries had created an exception in favor of New York and New Jersey; but all the country west of the Delaware within the same parallel of latitude with Connecticut was still claimed by that colony as a part of their domain. In 1753 an association called the "Susquehanna Company" was formed, and, with the consent of the Connecticut Assembly, applied to the crown for leave to plant a new colony west of the Delaware. It was granted, and the company sent agents to the convention at Albany in 1754, who succeeded in obtaining from representatives of the Six Nations the cession of a tract of land on the eastern branch of the Susquehanna River—the beautiful valley of Wyoming. The proprietaries of Pennsylvania claimed that this land was within the limits of their charter. The French and Indian War prevented any attempt at settlement until 1762, when about two hundred colonists commenced building and planting near the site of Wilkesbarre. Already another Connecticut association, called the "Delaware Company," had begun a settlement on the Delaware River (1767). Proclamations were issued and writs of ejectment were placed in the hands of the sheriff of Northampton County. In the autumn of 1763 a war-party of the Six Nations descended the Susquehanna and murdered Teedyuscung, the beloved old chief of the Delawares, and charged the crime upon the Connecticut settlers. The Delawares believed the tale, and at noon on the 14th of October they attacked and massacred thirty of the settlers in the fields. Men, women, and children fled to the mountains, from which they saw their homes plundered and burned and their cattle taken away. They made their way back to Connecticut. The settlement was broken up. Meanwhile Pennsylvania took possession of the Wyoming valley and built a fortified trading-house there. In 1769 forty pioneers of the Susquehanna Company went there to assert their rights, and civil war prevailed there for some time. (See *Pennymite and Yankee War*.) In 1771 the Assembly of Connecticut proposed to make an effort to adjust all the difficulties, but the Governor of Pennsylvania refused to enter into any negotiation. The Connecticut Assembly then made out a case and sent it to England for adjudication. It was submitted to the ablest lawyers in the realm, and was decided in favor of the Susquehanna Company. The decision was unheeded by Governor Penn, and in 1775 civil war again began there, which was soon finished by the more important events of the war for independence.

Sutter (or Suter), JOHN A., on whose property the first discovery of gold in California was made, was of Swiss ancestry. He was born at

Kandern, Baden, Feb. 3, 1803; died at Washington, D. C., June 19, 1880. He graduated at the Military Academy at Berne in 1823, and entered the "Swiss Guard" as lieutenant. He served in the Spanish campaign of 1823-24, and remained in the Swiss army until 1834, when he emigrated to the United States, settled in Missouri, and became a naturalized citizen. There he engaged in a thriving cattle-trade with New Mexico by the old Santa Fé trail. Speaking French, German, Spanish, and English fluently, he became one of the best known and most popular of frontiersmen. Hearing of the beauty and fertility of the Pacific coast, he set out from Missouri with six men in 1838, and crossed two thousand miles of a region which had rarely been trodden by civilized men. He went to Oregon, and descended the Columbia River to Vancouver. Thence he proceeded to the Sandwich Islands. There he bought and freighted a ship, and in her proceeded to Sitka, the capital of Alaska, then a Russian possession. The venture was successful, and he sailed to the Bay of San Francisco in July, 1839. On the banks of the Sacramento River, California, he established himself, gathered a little colony there, put various industries in motion, and accumulated an immense fortune. Within two years after his arrival in California he possessed 1000 horses, 2500 horned-cattle, and 1000 sheep; and he became a formidable rival of the Hudson's Bay Company as a trader in furs with the Indians. Sutter's Fort became a hospitable resort of explorers on the Western coasts, and Sutter rendered valuable assistance to those in distress. Frémont experienced his kindness, and at the close of the war with Mexico (which see) Captain Sutter was the leading man in wealth and influence in California. He had experienced some trouble with the Mexican authorities, who tried to drive him out of the country. In the midst of his annoyances Frémont arrived with troops, hoisted the American flag over Sutter's Fort, and so took the first step towards making California a state of the Union. It is agreed that to no man was the United States more indebted for the conquest of California than to Captain Sutter. On the 19th of January, 1848, gold was first discovered in California on his estate. (See *Gold Discovered in California*.) This discovery was a great misfortune to Captain Sutter. As a consequence of that discovery he lost his land grant of thousands of acres made by Mexican governors as a reward for military services. He was stripped of his magnificent estate and reduced to poverty. In 1864 the Legislature of California granted him a pension of \$3000 a year, when he and his wife visited Europe. The latter years of his life were spent at Litiz, Lancaster Co., Penn. He anxiously but unsuccessfully importuned Congress to grant him some indemnity for his losses.

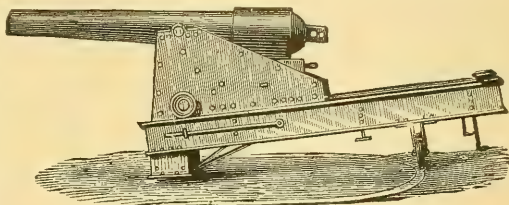
Swaanendael, COLONY OF. In anticipation of the establishment of patroonships (see *Patroons*), a partnership was formed by directors of the Dutch West India Company (which see) for making settlements on the Delaware River.

Godyn, Bloemart, Van Rensselaer, and others were the partners. They sent (Dec. 16, 1630) a ship and yacht, under the command of Pieter Heyes, with some colonists, and in the spring purchases of land were made from the Indians on both shores of Delaware Bay. Near the site of the (present) town of Lewes, in Delaware, a colony was planted, and the spot was called Swaanendael. In 1632 this little colony was destroyed by the Indians. Swaanendael was sold to the West India Company in 1633.

Swamp Fight, THE, is the name in history of one of the fierce struggles in King Philip's War. Philip and his allies—the Narragansets—had taken refuge in a fort which they had built in a pine and cedar swamp three or four miles west of South Kingston, R. I., for the protection of their winter store of food and their women and children. This fort was made more accessible by the cold that had frozen the surface of the morass. It was on rising ground in the morass—a sort of island of three or four acres—fortified by a palisade and surrounded by a close hedge a rod thick. There was but one narrow entrance to the fort, defended by a tree thrown across it, with a block-house of logs in the front and another on the flank. The Colonial soldiers were enabled to approach the fort on the frozen surface of the morass. As they approached they were met by a galling fire from the Indians, and many fell. The troops pressed on, forced the entrance, and engaged in a deadly struggle. The battle lasted two hours, when the colonists were victorious. The wigwams were set on fire and the events of the Pequod massacre were repeated. (See *Pequod War*.) The stores were consumed, with old men, women, and children. (See *King Philip's War*.) Of the colonists, six were captured and two hundred and thirty killed and wounded. In the midst of a snow-storm the colonists abandoned the scene that night (Dec. 19, 1675) and marched fifteen miles. The troops engaged in the battle were composed of six companies of foot and one of cavalry from Massachusetts, under Major Appleton; two companies from Plymouth, commanded by Major Bradford; and three hundred white men and one hundred and fifty Mohegan and Pequod Indians, in five companies, from Connecticut, under Major Treat. The whole were commanded by Josiah Winslow, son of Edward Winslow, of Plymouth.

"Swamp-angel" Battery. One of the most astonishing feats of military engineering was the construction of a redoubt in a morass of deep black mud between Morris and James islands, near Charleston, S. C., in 1863. The mud was about sixteen feet in depth, overgrown with reeds and rack marsh-grass and traversed by sluggish winding streams. Upon a platform of heavy timbers the redoubt was planted. It was com-

posed wholly of bags of sand. Heavy piles were driven under the gun-platform entirely through the mud into the solid earth, and upon it a 200-pounder rifled Parrott gun was mounted, thoroughly protected by the sand-bag parapet. The

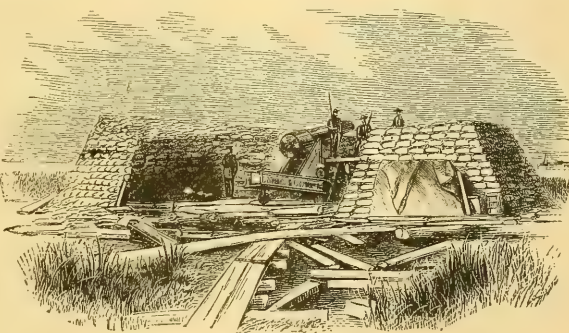


A PARROTT GUN.

gun was named the "Swamp-angel," and fired its heavy shot into Charleston, five miles distant. To do this it had to be fired at an elevation of thirty-five degrees. One of its shots went into St. Michael's Church and demolished the table of the Ten Commandments back of the chancel, excepting the portion containing the sixth and seventh. It finally burst.

Swayne, JOHN WAGER, was born at Columbus, O., in 1835. He graduated at Yale College in 1856; became a lawyer; and was a useful officer in the Civil War (1861-65), serving at the battles of Iuka and Corinth (which see), and in the Atlanta campaign, losing a leg at Salkahatchie. In June, 1865, he was made a major-general of volunteers, and was afterwards assistant commissioner of refugees, freedmen, and abandoned lands. He retired from military service Jan. 1, 1870.

Sweeney, THOMAS W., was born in Ireland in 1820, and served in the war against Mexico, in which he lost an arm. In May, 1861, he was made colonel of volunteers, and was distinguished at Wilson's Creek, where he was severely wounded. In January, 1862, he was colonel of Illinois volunteers, and was engaged in the battles at Fort Donelson, Shiloh, Corinth,



THE SWAMP-ANGEL BATTERY.

and Iuka Springs. He became brigadier-general late in 1862, and in the Atlanta campaign commanded a division, distinguishing himself in several of the battles. The city of New York

gave him a silver medal for his services in the war with Mexico, and the city of Brooklyn gave him one for his services in the Civil War. In May, 1870, he retired a brigadier-general of the United States Army. He died in 1892.

Swift, JOSEPH GARDNER, LL.D., was born at Nantucket, Dec. 31, 1783; died at Geneva, N. Y., July 23, 1865. He was the first graduate of the Military Academy at West Point (which see) as lieutenant of Engineers, Oct. 12, 1802. He rose



JOSEPH GARDNER SWIFT.

from grade to grade until he was commissioned colonel and principal engineer of the army, July 31, 1812. He planned the chief defence of New York harbor in 1812, and was chief-engineer on the Northern frontier in 1813. In February, 1814, he was breveted brigadier-general for meritorious services, and in 1816 was made Superintendent of the Military Academy. He left the army in 1818, and was appointed Surveyor of the Port of New York the same year. General Swift entered the service of the United States as civil engineer, and from 1829 to 1845 superintended harbor improvements on the Lakes. Meanwhile (1830-31) he constructed the railroad from New Orleans to Lake Pontchartrain over an unfathomable swamp, and in 1839 was chief-engineer in the construction of the Harlem Railroad. President Harrison sent him on an embassy of peace to Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia in 1841, and ten years later he and his son made a tour of Europe.

Swine, IMPROVEMENT OF. De Soto landed the first swine brought to America in Florida in 1538. Portuguese sailors introduced them into Newfoundland and Nova Scotia as early as 1553. The English settlers took some to Virginia in 1609, and in a few years they overran the colony so that the Indians ate the flesh of many running wild in the woods. It has been estimated that the product of a single pair would increase to six millions in ten genera-

tions. They were all of inferior quality, and so they remained until the close of the last century. The Duke of Bedford sent a pair of pigs—a cross between a Chinese and a large English hog—to Washington, and their descendants became numerous and greatly improved the breed of swine in this country. Early in the present century efforts were made to improve the breeds by importations. Chancellor Livingston imported some and tried to disseminate the breed, but found much opposition from the farmers, who were averse to innovations. It was at about that time that the merino sheep were introduced by Colonel Humphreys, in which the chancellor took great interest, and in derision the new breed of swine were called “merino hogs.” A wag wrote:

“Let Humphreys rear his Spanish sheep
In spite of Yankee dogs:
Our worthy chancellor will keep
Flocks of merino hogs.
Our tall and stately big-eared swine
That served our fathers well
Must bow before the superfine
Small hogs of Clermont dell.”

Sykes, GEORGE, was born in Maryland about 1823, and graduated at West Point in 1842. He served in the war with Mexico, and was breveted captain for gallant services at Cerro Gordo. He became assistant commissary of Twiggs's division of the army in Mexico, and was promoted to captain in 1855. In May, 1861, he was commissioned major of infantry United States Army, and in September was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He was promoted to major-general in November, 1862. He commanded a division of the Fifth Corps of the Army of the Potomac under Generals Fitz-John Porter and Butterfield, and took a conspicuous part in nearly all the battles fought by that army. In June, 1863, he was placed in command of the Fifth Corps, with which he fought at Gettysburg, and afterwards was active in Virginia. General Sykes was breveted major-general United States Army for services in the Rebellion. He died at Fort Brown, Texas, Feb. 9, 1880.

Symmes, JOHN CLEVES, jurist, was born on Long Island, N. Y., July 21, 1742; died in Cincinnati, Feb. 26, 1814. He married a daughter of Governor William Livingston, of New Jersey. In 1785-86 he was a member of the Continental Congress; was Judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey, and Chief-justice. Making a purchase of a vast tract of land between the Great and Little Miami rivers, Ohio, he settled there towards the close of the last century. His daughter Anna was the wife of President Harrison. His nephew, **JOHN CLEVES**, was a soldier in the War of 1812, but is known as the author of the theory that the earth is hollow



SYMMES'S MONUMENT.

habitable within, open at the poles for the admission of light, and containing within it half a dozen concentric hollow spheres, also open at their poles. He petitioned Congress to fit out an expedition to test his theory. It was first promulgated in 1818. Mr. Symmes died in Hamilton, O., May 19, 1825; and over his grave is a short column, surmounted by a globe showing open poles.

Symmes's Purchase. Soon after the passage of the ordinance of 1787 for the establish-

ment of a government northwest of the Ohio (which see), lands in that region which had been surveyed in anticipation of this action of Congress were sold. An association called the "Ohio Company" (which see) bought five million acres between the Muskingum and Scioto rivers, fronting on the Ohio; and John Cleves Symmes, of New Jersey, purchased two million acres in the rich and beautiful region on the Ohio between the Great and Little Miami rivers, including the site of Cincinnati.

T.

Talbot and a Fire-brig. Silas Talbot, of Rhode Island, accepted the command of a fire-brig on the Hudson. By orders of Washington, after gaining Harlem Heights (Sept. 15, 1776), Talbot attempted the destruction of the British vessels of war, lying off (present) One Hundred and Twenty-fourth Street. At two o'clock on the morning of the 16th, when it was dark and cloudy, Talbot left his hiding-place under the Palisades, three or four miles above Fort Lee, ran down the river with a fair wind, and, grappling the *Romney*, set his brig on fire. The crew of the brig escaped in a boat, and the *Romney* soon freed herself without injury. The other war-vessels fled out of the harbor in alarm.

Talbot, SILAS. was born in Rhode Island about 1750; died in New York, Jan. 30, 1813. He was captain in a Rhode Island regiment at the siege of Boston; accompanied the American army to New York, and, for skilful operations with fire-

prize (the *Pigot*) he cruised off the New England coast, capturing several prizes, and was commissioned captain in September, 1779. In 1780 he was captured and confined in the prison-ship *Jersey* (which see), removed to England, and exchanged in 1781. After the war he purchased the confiscated estate of Sir William Johnson, near the Mohawk River; served in the New York Assembly, and was a member of Congress in 1793-94. He was employed in 1794 to superintend the construction of the frigate *Constitution*, which, in 1799, was his flag-ship in a cruise to the West Indies. He resigned in September, 1801.

Talladega, BATTLE AT. On the evening of Nov. 8, 1813, Jackson and his troops were resting within six miles of Talladega, one of the chief gathering-places of the hostile Creeks. It was in Talladega County, Ala., a little east of the Coosa River. Jackson's forces were composed of 1200 infantry and 800 mounted men. He disposed them for action so as to enclose the foe in a circle of armed men. He moved at sunrise, Nov. 9. When the attack began the Indians rushed out with great fury, and their yells at first so alarmed the militia that some of them fell back, but were soon rallied and fought gallantly. The battle soon became general, and raged for about fifteen minutes, when the Indians broke and fled in all directions. They were pursued for several miles, and over 300 of the dusky warriors were slain, besides a large number wounded. The Americans lost fifteen killed and eighty-five wounded. Among the few trophies of victory borne back to the Coosa was a coarse banner, on which were the Spanish arms, an evidence of the complicity of the Spaniards with the Indians. The chastisement of the Indians at Tallasahatchee (which see) and Talladega had an immediate and powerful effect upon them, and promised a speedy termination of the war.



SILAS TALBOT.

rafts against the British shipping there, received from Congress the commission of major. Talbot received a severe wound in the defence of Fort Mifflin (which see), and gave material aid to General Sullivan on Rhode Island in 1778. A few weeks later he captured a British floating battery anchored in one of the channels commanding Newport, and for this brilliant exploit was commissioned lieutenant-colonel. In his

Tallasahatchee, BATTLE AT. The massacre at Fort Mimms (which see) stirred the indignation of the whole people of the Southwest. A cry for help went northward. Jackson was then prostrate at a Nashville inn, from the effects of a bullet received from the hand of Thomas H. Benton, in a duel. He appealed to the Tennesseans to take the field, promising to be with them as soon as possible. Five thousand men speedily responded. Jackson despatched (Sept.

26, 1813) General John Coffee, with 500 dragoons and as many mounted volunteers as could join him immediately, towards the Creek country. Jackson, with his arm in a sling, joined him soon afterwards, and drilled his troops thoroughly for the emergency. When he arrived at the Coosa he was informed that the hostile Creeks were assembled at Tallasahatchee, a town in an open woodland. Jackson sent the stalwart Coffee, with 1000 horsemen, to attack them. He was accompanied by friendly Creeks and Cherokees. On the morning of Oct. 3, by a manœuvre, the Indians were decoyed out of the town, when they fell upon the Tennesseans furiously. They were immediately smitten by a volley of bullets and a charge of the cavalry. The Creeks fought valiantly. Inch by inch they were pushed back by the narrowing circle of their assailants, who attacked them at all points. Not one would ask quarter, but fought as long as he could wield a weapon. Every warrior was killed. In falling back to their village, they became mingled with the women and children, and some of these were slain. Fully 200 Indians perished, and eighty-four women and children were made prisoners. The loss of the Americans was five killed and forty-one wounded, most of them slightly. Having destroyed the town and buried the dead, Coffee marched back to Jackson's camp on the Coosa, followed by a train of sorrowful captives. Thus was commenced the fearful chastisement of the Indians for their work at Fort Mimms.

Tallmadge, BENJAMIN, was born at Setauket, L. I., Feb. 25, 1754; died at Litchfield, Conn., March 7, 1835. He entered the patriot army as lieutenant of a Connecticut regiment in June, 1776, and soon rose to the rank of colonel. In



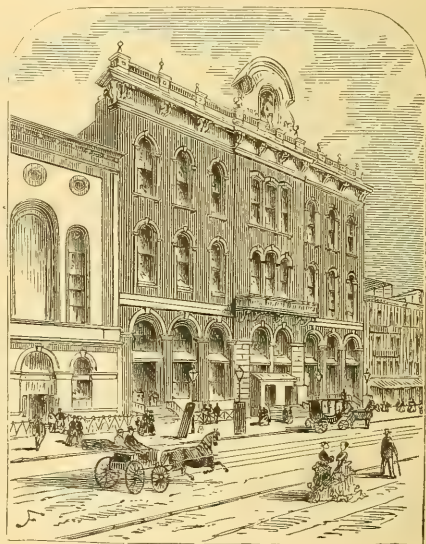
BENJAMIN TALLMADGE.

1779-80 he was engaged in expeditions against bodies of British and Tories on Long Island, and was in some of the principal battles of the war. In the fall of 1780 he had the custody of Major André until after that officer's execution. He was long in Washington's military family, and was his secret correspondent. He became a successful merchant, and, from 1801 to 1817, was a member of Congress.

Tammany, Sr., was a great and good chief of the Delawares, called Tamenand by the early settlers of Pennsylvania. He is supposed to have been one of those who made the famous treaty with William Penn. (See *Penn's Treaty*.)

He was revered by the Delawares almost like a deity, and old and young went to him for counsel. He never had his equal among them. In the old war for independence, the admirers of the good chief conferred upon him the title of saint, and he was established as the patron saint of America. His name was inserted in some calendars, and his festival was celebrated on the first day of May each year. After the Revolution an association was formed in Philadelphia, called the Tammany Society. On the 1st of May they paraded the streets, with bucktails in their hats, and proceeded to a pleasant retreat out of town, which they called the "wigwam," where, after a long talk, or Indian "palaver," had been delivered, and the calumet of peace and friendship had been duly smoked, they spent the day in festivity and mirth. After dinner, Indian dances were performed in front of the wigwam, the calumet was again smoked, and the company separated.

Tammany Society (or Columbian Order). This society, still in existence, was formed chiefly through the exertions of William Mooney, an upholsterer in the city of New York, at the beginning of the administration of President Washington. Its first meeting was held on May 13, 1789. The society took its name from St. Tammany, or Tamenand (which see), a noted Delaware chief, of whom it was said, "he loved liberty more than life." The officers of the society consisted of a grand sachem and thirteen inferior sachems, representing the President and the governors of the thirteen states. Besides these there was a grand council, of which the sachems were members. It was a very popular society and patriotic in its influence. Its mem-



TAMMANY HALL.

bership included most of the best men of New York city. No party politics were tolerated in its meetings. But when Washington denounced "self-constituted societies," in consequence of

the violent resistance to law made by the secret Democratic societies, at the time of the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), nearly all the members left it, believing their society to be included in the reproof. Mooney and others adhered to the organization, and from that time it became a political society. They met at first in Martling's Long Room, southeast corner of Nassau and Frankfort streets. In the year 1800 the society determined to build a wigwam, and Tammany Hall was erected by them on that spot. A few years ago they abandoned the old wigwam and made their quarters in a fine building on Fourteenth Street, not far from Irving Place. Although the actual membership of the society embraced only a few hundred men, it was able for many years to control and poll over 50,000 votes, and during the latter half of the 19th century it wielded an immense power in the politics both of New York city and of the state. Its connection with the gigantic frauds of the Tweed ring (see *Tweed, William Marcy*) led to a natural reaction and a temporary check. But it soon recovered its prestige and increased power.

Tampico, a seaport town of Mexico, in the State of Tamaulipas, on the river Panuco, five miles from the Gulf of Mexico, was taken possession of by the fleet of Commodore Conner, Nov. 14, 1846, in the early part of the war with Mexico.

Taney, ROGER BROOKE, Chief-justice of the United States, was born in Calvert County, Md., March 17, 1777; died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 12, 1864. He graduated at Dickinson College in 1795, and was admitted to the bar in 1799. He was of a family of English Roman Catholics who settled in Maryland. At the age of twenty-three he was a member of the Maryland Assembly; was State Senator in 1816, and in 1827 was Attorney-general of the State of Maryland. In 1831 President Jackson appointed him United States Attorney-general, and in 1836 he was appointed Chief-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, to succeed Judge Marshall. In 1857 he gave his famous opinion in the Dred Scott case (which see), and was one of the most earnest upholders of the slave-system in our republic.

Tar, Pitch, and Glass first made in Virginia. With the seventy immigrants that came to Virginia with Newport, in 1609, were eight Dutchmen and Polanders, who came to introduce the making of tar, pitch, glass, and potash. Excepting these Dutchmen and Poles and about a dozen others, the colonists then, according to Smith, consisted of "poor gentlemen, tradesmen, serving-men, libertines, and such like, ten times more fit to spoil a commonwealth than either to begin or help to maintain one."

Tarleton and Marion. Tarleton was one of the most alert of the British officers, and his "legion" was feared and admired. He was employed by Cornwallis in searching out partisan corps, such as Marion's and Sumter's. He was cruel, and performed the orders of his general with fidelity. When, on one occasion, he set out to pursue Marion, Cornwallis wrote (Nov. 5,

1780): "I most sincerely hope you will get at Mr. Marion." On that march Tarleton and his corps set fire to all the houses and destroyed all the corn from Camden to Nelson's Ferry; beat the widow of a general officer because she would not tell where Marion was encamped, and burned her dwelling and wasted everything about it, not leaving her even a change of raiment. And along the line of their march were seen groups of houseless women and children, who had enjoyed the comforts afforded by ample fortunes before the destroyer came, sitting around fires in the open air. Marion, on the contrary, although equally alert, was always humane. In September, 1780, a band of two hundred Tories were sent to surprise him. With only fifty-three men, he first surprised a part of his pursuers and dispersed them, capturing some who had committed great outrages; but he would not allow a prisoner to be hurt. At Black Mingo Creek, on the 28th, he made a successful attack on a guard of sixty militiamen, and made prisoners of those under its escort. At that time the British were burning houses on the Little Pedee. He allowed his men to return to protect their families and property, but would not permit them to retaliate. He wrote afterwards: "There is not one house burned by my orders or by any of my people. It is what I detest, to distress poor women and children."

Tarleton, SIR BANASTRE, was born in Liverpool, Eng., Aug. 21, 1754; died Jan. 23, 1833. At the beginning of the war for independence he purchased a commission in the British army



SIR BANASTRE TARLETON.

(dragoons), came to America, and was concerned in the capture of General Lee (which see), late in 1776. After the evacuation of Philadelphia, in 1778, he commanded a cavalry corps called the "British Legion," and accompanied the troops that captured Charleston in May, 1780. He was one of Cornwallis's most active officers in the Carolinas and Virginia, in 1780-81, and was one of the prisoners at the surrender of Cornwallis (which see). In 1789 he was a member of Parliament, and was made a baronet in 1818. He published a history of his campaigns in 1780-81.

Ta-ron-tee (or Rivière aux Canards), SKIRMISH AT. General Hull cautiously moved (July 13, 1812) from Sandwich to attack Fort Malden, eighteen miles below. He sent forward a recon-

noitring party, who returned with information that Tecumtha, with his Indians, had been lying in ambush near Turkey Creek, not far from Amherstburg, and that the forest was full of prowling barbarians. There were rumors also that British armed vessels were about to ascend the Detroit River. Hull ordered his caunons to be placed near the shore and his camp fortified on the land side. He sent McArthur in pursuit of the Indians in the woods, and Colonel Cass pushed on towards the Ta-ron-tee, as the Indians called it, with two hundred and eighty men. It is a broad and deep stream flowing through marshes into the Detroit River about four miles above Fort Malden, at Amherstburg, and was then, as now, approached by a narrow cause-

Taxation in America, EFFECT OF, ON BRITISH REVENUE. In striking a balance of losses and gains in the matter of parliamentary taxation in America, it was found in 1772 that the expenses on account of the Stamp Act exceeded \$60,000, while there had been received for revenue (almost entirely from Canada and the West India islands) only about \$7500. The operation of levying a tax on tea had been still more disastrous. The whole remittance from the colonies for the previous year for duties on teas and wines, and other articles taxed indirectly, amounted to no more than about \$400, while ships and soldiers for the support of the collecting officers had cost about \$500,000; and the East India Company had lost the sale of goods to the



VIEW AT THE RIVIERE AUX CANARDS.

way and spanned by a bridge. At the southern end of the bridge was a detachment of British regulars, Canadian militia, and Indians under Tecumtha. Cass marched up the stream to a ford, crossed it, at sunset dashed upon the enemy, and, after a conflict of a few minutes, dispersed them and drove them into the forest. He asked permission to hold the bridge as an important point in the march upon Fort Malden, but his detachment was too weak to face the peril of such nearness to the fort, and the request was denied. Besides, Hull was not then aware of the real strength of the garrison at Fort Malden, and was not prepared to attack it. The affair at the Ta-ron-tee was the first skirmish and victory in the War of 1812-15.

Tatnall, JOSIAH, was born near Savannah, Ga., in November, 1796; died June 14, 1871. He entered the United States Navy in 1812, and rose to captain in 1850. He first served in the frigate *Constellation*, and assisted in the repulse of the British at Craney Island (which see) in 1813. He afterwards served under Perry and Porter, and was engaged on the Mexican coast during the war against Mexico. He left the service of his country, obtained a commission in the Confederate service, improvised a flotilla known as the "Mosquito Fleet," and attempted to defend Port Royal Sound against Dupont. (See *Port Royal Sound, Expedition to*.) He commanded at Norfolk when the *Merrimac* was destroyed, and the Mosquito Fleet at Savannah.

amount of \$2,500,000 annually for four or five years.

"**Taxation no Tyranny**" is the title of a pamphlet written by Dr. Samuel Johnson, the eminent lexicographer, in favor of the taxation schemes of the British government. It appeared early in 1775, and is one of the most heartless, intensely bitter, and savagely insolent of all the essays of the day. It was only the echo of the angry threats and grotesque arguments of the stubborn king and venal minister, and the mad passions of the aristocracy, which were then poisoning the minds of the people of Great Britain with unreasoning hatred of the Americans. Johnson was employed by the ministry in this work of inflaming the passions of the British people to divert their attention from the monstrous injustice they were inflicting upon their fellow-subjects in America by oppressing Boston and robbing Massachusetts of its charter, and endeavoring to make its free people absolute slaves to a tyrant's will. The one great blot upon the names of Johnson and Gibbon the historian is the barter of their consciences for money; for both had expressed sympathy for the Americans up to that time. Gibbon had even written against the ministerial measures. He became suddenly silent at the time when Johnson's pen was inditing his coarse and ribald paragraphs. To them a writer of a stinging epigram alluded in the line,

"What made Johnson write made Gibbon dumb."

With unpardonable malignity he uttered ponderous sarcasms and conscious sophistries as arguments. Pointing at Franklin (then in England) with a sneer, he spoke of him as "a master of mischief, teaching Congress to put in motion the engine of political electricity, and to give the great stroke the name of Boston." To the declaration of the people of Boston that to preserve their liberties they were willing to leave their rich town and wander into the country as exiles, he heartlessly said: "Alas! the heroes of Boston will only leave good houses to wiser men." To the claim of the Americans to the right of resistance to oppression, he exclaimed, "Audacious defiance! The indignation of the English is like that of the Scythians, who, returning from war, found themselves excluded from their own houses by their slaves." To the words of "A Pennsylvania Farmer" (which see), insisting that the Americans complained only of innovations, he retorted: "We do not put a calf into the plough; we wait till he is an ox." The ministry bade him erase these lines because they were unwilling to concede that the calf had been spared, and not for its coarse ribaldry. Johnson shamelessly avowed his bargain by comparing himself, when he obeyed the commands of the ministers, to a mechanic for whom "his employer is to decide." To the assertion that the Americans were increasing in numbers, wealth, and love of freedom, he retorted: "This talk that they multiply with the fecundity of their own rattlesnakes disposes men accustomed to think themselves masters to hasten the experiment of binding obstinacy before it becomes yet more obdurate." He sneered at the teachings of the rule of progression which showed that America must in the end exceed Europe in population, and said in derision, with no suspicion that he was uttering a sure prophecy: "Then, in a century and a quarter, let the princes of the earth tremble in their palaces!" That was a sad spectacle of an old man prostituting the powers of a great intellect, and weakening the prop of his morality, by aiming such a malignant but utterly feeble shaft at his kindred in nationality struggling for freedom.

Taxation of the American Colonies. So early as 1696 a pamphlet appeared in England recommending Parliament to tax the English-American colonies. Two pamphlets appeared in reply, denying the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, because they had no representative in Parliament to give consent. From that day the subject of taxing the colonies was a question frequently discussed, but not attempted until seventy years afterwards. After the ratification of the Treaty of Paris (which see) in 1763, the British government resolved to quarter troops in America at the expense of the colonies. The money was to be raised by a duty on foreign sugar and molasses, and by stamps on all legal and mercantile paper. It was determined to make the experiment of taxing the American colonists in a way which Walpole feared to undertake. A debate arose in the House of Commons on the right of Parliament to tax the

Americans without allowing them to be represented in that body. The question was decided by an almost unanimous vote in the affirmative. "Until then no act, avowedly for the purpose of revenue, and with the ordinary title and recital taken together, is found on the statute-book of the realm," said Burke. "All before stood on commercial regulations and restraints." Then the House proceeded to consider the Stamp Act (which see).

Taxation Resisted in North Carolina. Refugees from Virginia, involved in Bacon's rebellion (which see), fostered a spirit of liberty among the inhabitants of North Carolina, and successful oppression was made difficult, if not impossible. The whole state did not at that time contain quite four thousand inhabitants. They carried on a feeble trade in Indian corn, tobacco, and fat cattle with New England, whose little coasting-vessels brought in exchange those articles of foreign production which the settlers could not otherwise procure. The English navigation laws interfered with this commerce. In 1677 agents of the government appeared, who demanded a penny on every pound of tobacco sent to New England. The colonists resisted the levy. The tax-gatherer was rude and had frequent personal collisions with the people. On one occasion he attempted to drive away a steer in satisfaction of a demand for the tax on the tobacco of a planter which had just been shipped for Boston, when the sturdy wife of the yeoman beat him off with a mop-stick and saved the animal. Finally, the people, led by John Culpepper, a refugee from South Carolina, seized the governor and the public funds, imprisoned him and six of his councillors, called a new representative Assembly, and appointed a new chief magistrate and judges. For two years the colony was free from foreign control.

Taxation Schemes (1767). In Pitt's cabinet, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, was the brilliant Charles Townshend, loose in principles and bold in suggestions. He had voted for the Stamp Act, and voted for its repeal as expedient, not because it was just. In January, 1767, by virtue of his office, on which devolves the duty of suggesting ways and means for carrying on the government, he proposed taxation schemes which aroused the most vehement opposition in America. He introduced a bill imposing a duty on tea, paints, paper, glass, lead, and other articles of British manufacture imported into the colonies. It was passed June 29. The exportation of tea to America was encouraged by another act, passed July 2, allowing for five years a drawback of the whole duty payable on the importation. By another act, reorganizing the colonial custom-house system, a Board of Revenue Commissioners for America was established, to have its seat at Boston. Connected with these bills were provisions very obnoxious to the Americans, all having relation to the main object—namely, raising a revenue in America. There was a provision in the first bill for the maintenance of a standing army in America and enabling the crown to establish a general civil list;

fixing the salaries of governors, judges, and other officers in all the provinces, such salaries to be paid by the crown, making these officers independent of the people and fit instruments for government oppression. A scheme was also approved, but not acted upon, for transferring to the mother country, and converting into a source of revenue, the issue of the colonial paper currency.

Taxes, INTERNAL, REPEAL OF (1802). For some time the internal taxes, and especially the excise, had been the source of much irritation of feeling. These taxes were denounced as anti-republican in character, and it was shown that the revenue derived from them was not very largely in excess of the expenses incurred in their collection. These taxes were abolished in 1802.

Taylor, BAYARD, traveller, was born at Kenntown Square, Penn., Jan. 11, 1825; died at Berlin, Prussia, Dec. 19, 1878. He became a printer's apprentice at seventeen years of age, and at about the same time wrote verses with much facility. His rhymes were collected and published in a volume in 1844, entitled *Ximena*. In 1844-46 he made a tour on foot in Europe, of which he published (1846) an account in *Views Afoot*. In 1847 he went to New York and wrote for the *Literary World* and for the *Tribune*, and in 1848 published *Rhymes of Travel*. In 1849 he became owner of a share in the *Tribune*, and was one of the shareholders at the time of his death. He made long journeys to different parts of the globe, continually furnishing the most interesting letters to the *Tribune*, which were afterwards published in a series of volumes under various titles. He made a long tour in the East in 1851, including a journey of four thousand miles into the interior of Africa; and the next year went first to England, and thence through Spain to Bombay and China. In the latter country, after serving two months as the secretary of the American legation at Shanghai, he joined the expedition of Commodore Perry to Japan (which see). He reached New York Dec. 20, 1853, having accomplished a journey of fifty thousand miles. He made a fourth tour in 1856-58, and in 1862-63 was secretary of legation to Russia. In 1874 he went to Iceland, and participated in the celebration of the one thousandth anniversary of the first settlement of that island by the Norwegians. Afterwards he made an admirable translation of Goethe's *Faust*. Mr. Taylor was a charming poet as well as prose writer, and published several volumes of poetry. He read a poem at Philadelphia on the 4th of July, 1876—the centennial year—and a short time before his death put forth a remarkable poem called *Deucalion*. In the spring of 1878 he went to Berlin as American minister at the German court, and died there, Dec. 19, 1878.

Taylor, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Ireland in 1716; died at Easton, Penn., Feb. 23, 1781. He arrived in the United States at the age of twenty years, but, having a good education, rose from the position of a day laborer in an iron foundry to

the station of clerk, and finally married his employer's widow, and acquired a handsome fortune. For five consecutive years he was a prominent member of the Pennsylvania Assembly, and in 1770 was made judge of the Northumberland County Court. He was elected to Congress July 20, 1776, and signed the Declaration of Independence on the 2d of August.

Taylor, RICHARD, son of President Taylor, was born in Florida. In 1861 he became colonel of Louisiana volunteers in the Confederate service, and was in the battle of Bull's Run. In October he was made a brigadier-general; served under "Stonewall" Jackson in Virginia; was promoted to major-general, and in 1863-64 served under E. Kirby Smith (which see) in the trans-Mississippi Department, opposing Banks in his Red River expedition. He was in command at Mobile, and on May 4, 1865, surrendered to General Canby. General Taylor afterwards visited England. He died in New York, April 12, 1879.

Taylor (RICHARD) in Louisiana. When General Banks left Alexandria, on the Red River, and marched to the siege of Port Hudson (which see), General "Dick" Taylor (son of President Taylor), whom he had driven into the wilds of western Louisiana, returned, occupied that abandoned city and Opelousas, and garrisoned Fort De Russy. Then he swept vigorously over the country in the direction of the Mississippi River and New Orleans. With a part of his command he captured Brashear City (June 24, 1863), with an immense amount of public property and the small-arms of four thousand National troops. By this calamity about five thousand refugee negroes were remanded into slavery. Another portion of the Confederates, under General Greene, operating in the vicinity of Donaldsonville, on the Mississippi, was driven out of that district. New Orleans was then garrisoned by only about seven hundred men, when a way was opened for Taylor to Algiers, opposite; but the Confederate leader dared not attempt to cross the Mississippi, for Farragut's vessels were patrolling its waters and guarding the city. When Banks's forces were released by the surrender of Port Hudson (July 9) they proceeded to expel Taylor and his forces from the country eastward of the Atchafalaya. This was the last struggle of Taylor to gain a foothold on the Mississippi.

Taylor, WILLIAM ROGERS, was born at Newport, R. I., April 1, 1811, and entered the navy in 1828. He was engaged on the Mexican coast during the war (1846-48), and was in the Atlantic blockading squadron in 1862-63; was flag-captain in operations against Forts Wagner and Sumter in 1863, and was in the North Atlantic blockading squadron in 1864-65, engaging in both attacks on Fort Fisher. In January, 1871, he was made rear-admiral. He died in 1889.

Taylor, WILLIAM VIGERON, was born at Newport, R. I., in 1781; died Feb. 11, 1858. Having been for some time in the merchant-marine service, he was appointed sailing-master in the United States Navy in April, 1813,

and ably assisted in fitting out Perry's fleet at Erie. He navigated Perry's flag-ship (*Lawrence*) into and during the battle. His last service was on a cruise in the Pacific, in command of the *Ohio*, 74 guns, in 1847.

Taylor, ZACHARY, twelfth President of the United States, was born in Orange County, Va., Sept. 24, 1784; died in Washington, D. C., July



ZACHARY TAYLOR

9, 1850. His father, a soldier of the Revolution, removed from Virginia to Kentucky in 1785, where he had an extensive plantation near Louisville. On that farm Zachary was engaged until the twenty-fourth year of his age, when, in 1808, he was appointed to fill the place of his brother, deceased, as lieutenant in the United States Army. He was made a captain in 1810;

commissioned a major; but on the reduction of the army, in 1815, he was put back to a captaincy, when he resigned, and returned to the farm near Louisville. Being soon reinstated as major, he was for several years engaged in military life on the northwestern frontier and in the South. In 1819 he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel. In 1832 he was commissioned a colonel, and was engaged in the Black Hawk War (which see). From 1836 to 1840 he served in Florida (see *Seminole War, The Second*), and in 1840 was appointed to the command of the first department of the Army of the Southwest, with the rank of brigadier-general by brevet. At that time he purchased an estate near Baton Rouge, to which he removed his family. After the annexation of Texas (which see), when war between the United States and Mexico seemed imminent, he was sent with a considerable force into Texas, to watch the movements of the Mexicans. In March, 1846, he moved to the banks of the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras, and in May engaged in two sharp battles with the Mexicans on Texas soil. (See *Palo Alto, Battle of*, and *Resaca de la Palma, Battle of*.) Taylor was promoted to the rank of major-general. He entered Mexico May 18, 1846, and soon afterwards captured the stronghold of Monterey (which see). He occupied strong positions, but remained quiet for some time, awaiting instructions from his government. Early in 1847 a requisition from General Scott deprived him of a large portion of his troops, and he was ordered to act on the defensive only. While so doing, with about five thousand men, he was confronted by Santa Ana with twenty thousand. Taylor defeated and dispersed the Mexicans in a severe battle at Buena Vista, Feb. 23, 1847. During the remainder of the war the valley of the Rio Grande remained in the quiet possession of the Americans. During his campaign in Mexico he acquired the nickname of "Old Rough and Ready," in allusion to the plainness



GENERAL TAYLOR'S RESIDENCE AT BATON ROUGE.

and after the declaration of war, in 1812, he was placed in command of Fort Harrison (which see), which he bravely defended against an attack by the Indians. Taylor was active in the West until the end of the war. In 1814 he was

of his personal appearance and deportment. On his return home, in November, 1847, he was greeted everywhere with demonstrations of warmest popular applause. In June, 1848, the Whig National Convention, at Philadelphia,

nominated him for the office of President of the United States, with Millard Fillmore, of New York, for Vice-President. Both were elected. General Taylor was inaugurated March 4, 1849. On the 4th of July, 1850, he was seized with a violent bilious fever, and died on the 9th. President Taylor was of medium height, stout form, dark complexion, high forehead, and keen, penetrating eyes, and had an expression of much kindness and good-nature. At the time of his election to the Presidency, General Taylor was living on his plantation, near Baton Rouge, La., his residence being a fair specimen of the ordinary farm-houses in the cotton-growing states. The picture of it here given is from a pencil-sketch made by the general for the author, in November, 1848. The portrait of him was made from a daguerreotype taken at about the same time.

Taylor's Cabinet. On the 5th of March, 1849, President Taylor nominated to the Senate the following named gentlemen for his constitutional advisers: John M. Clayton, of Delaware, Secretary of State; William M. Meredith, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; George W. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of War; William B. Preston, of Virginia, Secretary of the Navy; Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, Secretary of the Interior; Jacob Collamer, of Vermont, Postmaster-general; Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, Attorney-general. These nominations were unanimously confirmed by the Senate, and on the 8th of March each took the oath of office and entered upon his duties.

Tea in Politics. Among other articles imported into the colonies upon which a duty was laid in 1767, was tea, the furnishing of which, for England and her colonies, was a monopoly of the East India Company. In consequence of the violent manifestation of opposition to this method of taxation, and especially of the serious effects upon British trade by the operations of the non-importation league, Lord North, then prime-minister, offered a bill in Parliament, in the spring of 1770, for the repeal of the duties upon every article enumerated (see *Taxation Schemes*) excepting tea. He thought, unwisely, that tea, being a luxury, the colonists would not object to paying the very small duty imposed upon it, and he retained that simply as a standing assertion of the right of Parliament to tax the colonists. It was a fatal mistake. The bill became a law April 2, 1770. The minister mistook the character and temper of the Americans. It was not the petty amount of duties imposed, for none of this species of taxation was burdensome; it was the principle involved, which lay at the foundation of their liberties. They regarded the imposition of ever so small a duty upon one article as much a violation of their sacred rights as if a heavy duty on tea was imposed. The ministry would not yield the point, and a series of troubles followed, culminating in the destruction of cargoes of tea in Boston harbor and at other places by determined citizens. (See *Boston Tea Party*.)

Tea, LEAGUE AGAINST ITS USE. Merchants in

Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, and other places agreed not to import tea, and there were combinations against its use in various places. Before North introduced his repeal bill into Parliament (see *Tea in Politics*), the mistresses of three hundred families in Boston subscribed to a league (Feb. 9, 1770), binding themselves not to drink any tea until the revenue act should be repealed. Three days afterwards (Feb. 12) the young maidens followed the example of the matrons, and multitudes signed the following document: "We, the daughters of those patriots who have, and do now, appear for the public interest, and in that principally regard their posterity—as such, do with pleasure engage with them in denying ourselves the drinking of foreign tea, in hopes to frustrate a plan which tends to deprive a whole community of all that is valuable in life." Violators of the non-importation agreements were sometimes handled roughly. A Boston merchant (Theophilus Lillie) of Tory tendencies continued to sell tea openly, which excited popular indignation. A company of half-grown boys placed an effigy near his door with a finger upon it, pointing towards his store. While a man was attempting to remove it, he was pelted with dirt and stones. Running into the store, he seized a gun, and discharged its contents among the crowd. A boy named Snyder was killed, and a lad named Samuel Gore was wounded. The affair produced intense excitement, not only in Boston, but throughout the colonies. The funeral of Snyder was a most impressive pageant. His coffin, inscribed "Innocence itself is not safe," was borne to "Liberty Tree," where an immense concourse were assembled, who thence followed the remains to the grave. Six of Snyder's school-mates bore the coffin, and nearly five hundred school-boys led the procession. The bells of Boston were tolled; so, also, were those of the neighboring towns.

Tea-plant, THE. This plant, which played such a conspicuous part in our history just previous to the old war for independence, was brought to Europe by the Dutch East India Company, and first appeared in Holland. It was known in England so early as 1650, and in 1660 it began to be used as a rare luxury in the London coffee-houses. Samuel Pepys, who was Secretary to the Admiralty, made the following record in his diary, under date of Sept. 26, 1661: "I sent for a cup of tea (a Chinese drink), which I had never drunk before." In 1667 the English East India Company (formed in 1600) sent their first order to import tea, directed to their agent at Bantam, to the effect that he should send home one hundred pounds of the best tea he could get. It was nearly one hundred years before the exports were very large or its use became extensive in England and in the English-American colonies. So early as 1770 the cultivation of the tea-plant was undertaken in Georgia, and from time to time the attempt has been renewed. Sufficient has been discovered by these experiments to show that, with proper cultivation, it may become an important industry in some parts of our Republic. The plant

barely survives the winter in the latitude of Washington, but in North Carolina and in Georgia it flourishes. The imports of tea into the United States for five years, ending June 30, 1874, for home consumption, was 2,528,644 hundredweight. The total value in gold was \$99,728,243.

Tea-ships, RECEPTION OF. When news reached America that tea-ships were loading for colonial ports, the patriots took measures for preventing the unloading of their cargoes here. The Philadelphians moved first in the matter. At a public meeting held Oct. 2, 1773, in eight resolutions the people protested against taxation by Parliament, and denounced as "an enemy to his country" whoever should "aid or abet in unloading, receiving, or vending the tea." A town-meeting was held in Boston (Nov. 5), at which John Hancock presided, which adopted the Philadelphia resolutions, with a supplement concerning remissness in observing non-importation and non-consumption agreements, but insisting upon a strict compliance with them in the future. A tea-vessel, bound for Philadelphia, was stopped (Dec. 25, 1773) four miles below that city, information having been received of the destruction of tea in Boston. Another, driven by stress of weather to the West Indies, did not arrive at New York for several months afterwards. When it arrived (April 21, 1774) at Sandy Hook the pilots, under instructions from the city committee, refused to bring her up, and a "Committee of Vigilance" soon took possession of her. When the captain was brought to town, he was ordered to take back his ship and cargo. The consignees refused to interfere; and meanwhile another ship, commanded by a New York captain, was allowed to enter the harbor, on the assurance that she had no tea on board. A report soon spread that she had tea on board, and the captain was compelled to acknowledge that he had eighteen chests, belonging to private parties, and not to the East India Company. The indignant people poured the tea into the harbor, and the captain of the East India tea-ship—with grand parade, a band of music playing "God save the King," the city bells ringing, and colors flying from liberty-poles—was escorted from the custom-house to a pilot-boat, which took him to his vessel at the Hook, when, under the directions of the Vigilance Committee, the vessel was started for England. A tea-ship (the *Dartmouth*) arrived at Boston late in November, 1773, and was ordered by a town-meeting (Nov. 29) to be moored at Griffin's Wharf. It was voted by the same meeting that the "owner be directed not to enter the tea-ship at his peril;" and the captain was warned not to suffer any of the tea to be landed. Two other tea-ships that arrived there were served in the same way, and suffered outrage. (See *Boston Tea Party*.) A fourth tea-vessel, bound for Boston, was wrecked on Cape Cod, and a few chests of her tea, saved, were placed in the castle by the governor's orders. About twenty chests brought in another vessel, on private account, were seized and cast into the water. In Charleston a cargo was landed, but, being stored in damp cellars, was spoiled.

11.—19*

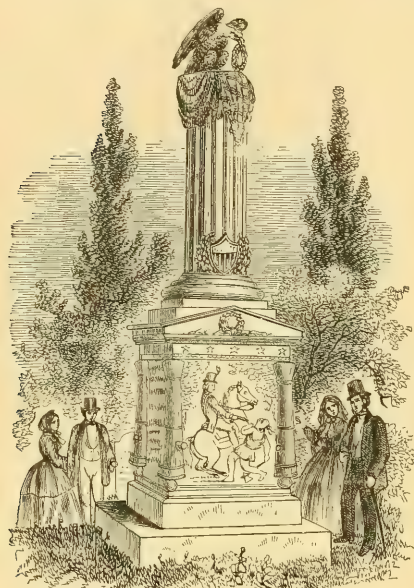
Tecumtha (or **Tecumseh**), an Indian warrior, and chief of the Shawnoese, was born at Old Piqua, near Springfield, O., about 1770; killed in battle Oct. 5, 1813. He was one of the boldest and most active of the braves who opposed Wayne (1794-95), and was at the Treaty of



TECUMTHA.

Greenville (which see). So early as 1804 he had begun the execution of a scheme, in connection with his brother, "The Prophet," for confederating the Western Indians for the purpose of exterminating the white people. He visited many tribes with his brother, who pretended to be a commissioner from the Great Spirit. He had partially succeeded in 1811, when his plans were defeated by Governor Harrison. (See *Tippecanoe, Battle of the*.) He next sought the alliance of the Southern Indians, and visited the Creeks for the purpose, and in the War of 1812-15 he was the active ally of the British, and received the commission of brigadier-general in the British army. Assisting General Proctor in the battle of the Thames, he was slain there. Who killed Tecumtha? was an unsettled, and, at one time, quite exciting question. It was supposed, at the time of the battle on the Thames, that he was slain by the pistol of Colonel Richard M. Johnson. Indeed, the friends of Colonel Johnson asserted it positively as an undoubted fact; and during the political campaign when he was a candidate for the Vice-Presidency of the United States the question caused much warm discussion. That he killed an Indian under circumstances which were warranted was never denied. Two Indian warriors lay dead upon the spot after the battle, one of whom was believed to be Tecumtha. They were stripped naked. It has been pretty clearly shown that neither body was that of Tecumtha, for his was carried away by his warriors. The exasperated Kentuckians mutilated the supposed body of Tecumtha, and later Kentuckians have record-

ed, by a sculpture in marble upon Colonel Johnson's monument, in the cemetery at Frankfort, their conviction that he killed Tecumtha. The matter is of no historic importance. The spell-



JOHNSON'S MONUMENT.

ing of Tecumtha's name here is in accordance with the correct pronunciation of it, according to the testimony of the late Colonel Johnson, of Ohio, who was for many years agent of the United States government among the Shawnoese.

Tecumtha among the Creeks. This great Shawnoese warrior had been among the Seminoles in Florida, the Creeks in Alabama and Georgia, and tribes in Missouri in the spring of 1811, trying to induce them to join in a confederacy which he was forming in the Northwest to exterminate the white people on the borders and save the country to the Indians. He went on a similar mission in the autumn, taking with him his brother, "The Prophet" (which see), partly to employ him as a cunning instrument in managing the superstitious Indians, and partly to prevent his doing mischief at home in Tecumtha's absence. About thirty warriors accompanied them. His mission now was to engage the barbarians as allies for the British and against the Americans. The Choctaws and Chickasaws, through whose country Tecumtha passed, would not listen to him; but the Seminoles and Creeks lent him willing ears. He addressed the assembled Creeks for the first time in the lower part of (the present) Autauga County, Ala., late in October. Soon afterwards, having addressed the Creeks at different points, he approached a great Council called by Colonel Hawkins, United States Indian Agent, at Toockabatcha, the ancient Creek capital, where fully 5000 of the barbarian nation were gathered. Tecumtha marched with dignity into the square with his train of thirty followers, entirely naked excepting their

flaps and ornaments, their faces painted black, their heads adorned with eagles' feathers, while buffalo-tails dragged behind, suspended by bands around their waists. Like appendages were attached to their arms, and their whole appearance was as hideous as possible, and their bearing uncommonly pompous and ceremonious. They marched round and round in the square, and then approaching the Creek chiefs, gave them the Indian salutation of a hand-shake at arm's length and exchanged tobacco in token of friendship. So they made their appearance each day until Hawkins departed. That night a council was held in the great round-house. It was packed with eager listeners. Tecumtha made a fiery and vengeful speech, exhorting the Creeks to abandon the customs of the pale faces and return to those of their fathers; to cast away the plough and loom and cease the cultivation of the soil, for it was an unworthy pursuit for noble hunters and warriors. He warned them that the Americans were seeking to exterminate them and possess their country; and he told them that their friends, the British, had sent him from the Great Lakes to invite them to the war-path. The wily Prophet, who had been told by the British when a comet would appear, told the excited multitude that they would see the arm of Tecumtha, like pale fire, stretched out in the vault of heaven at a certain time, and thus they would know by that sign when to begin the war. The people looked upon him with awe, for the fame of Tecumtha and the Prophet had preceded them. Tecumtha continued his mission with success, but found opponents here and there. Among the most conspicuous of them was Tustinuggee-Thlucco, the "Big Warrior." Tecumtha tried every art to convert him to his purposes. At length he said, angrily, "Tustinuggee-Thlucco, your blood is white. You have taken my redsticks and my talk, but you do not mean to fight. I know the reason; you do not believe the Great Spirit has sent me. You shall believe it. I will leave directly and go straight to Detroit. When I get there, I will stamp my foot upon the ground and shake down every house in Toockabatcha." Strangely enough, at about the time Tecumtha must have arrived at Detroit, there was heard a deep rumbling under ground all over the Alabama region, and there was a heaving of the earth that made the houses of Toockabatcha reel and totter as if about to fall. The startled savages ran out, exclaiming, "Tecumtha is at Detroit! Tecumtha is at Detroit! We feel the stamp of his foot!" It was the shock of an earthquake that was felt all over the Gulf region in December, 1812. At the same time the comet—the blazing arm of Tecumtha—appeared in the sky. These events made a powerful impression on nearly the whole Creek nation, but it did not move the "Big Warrior" from his allegiance to the United States. The Creeks rose in arms, and in less than two years their nation was ruined. Tecumtha's visit brought dreadful calamities on them.

Tecumtha and the Prophet. Among the Shawnoese (which see) in Ohio, in 1811, were two brothers, one an orator and warrior named

Tecumtha (signifying "a wild-cat springing on its prey"), the other also a warrior and "medicine-man," who was called "The Prophet." They were born of a Creek mother, with another brother, all at the same birth, and were named, respectively, Tecumtha, Elkwatawa (the Prophet), and Kamskaka. The first was intrepid, active, crafty, and unscrupulous; the second was also crafty and unscrupulous, pretending to hold intercourse with, and receive instructions from, the Great Spirit, and to possess miraculous powers. As early as 1805 he assumed to be supernaturally guided. Up to that period he had been noted only for drunkenness and stupidity. He had lost an eye in an encounter. His mission cunningly began by his falling suddenly one day while lighting his pipe, and lying apparently dead until he was being borne away for burial, when he opened his eyes and said, "Be not fearful; I have been in the Land of the Blessed. Call the nation together, that I may tell them what I have seen and heard." They assembled, and he told a marvellous story of the land he had seen and the instructions and warnings he had received; and from that time he was a preacher of righteousness among his people—a thorough hypocrite and artful deceiver of them. So great was his influence that his disciples believed he possessed many of the powers of the Great Spirit, and told wonderful tales of his doings—making pumpkins as large as wigwams spring out of the ground, and corn so large that one ear would feed a dozen men. So great was his fame at one time, and so many flocked to Greenville (his home in western Ohio) to see him, that the southern shores of lakes Superior and Michigan were almost depopulated, and traders were compelled to abandon business. Not more than one third of the deluded fanatics returned, the greater part having perished from the effects of hunger, cold, and fatigue. The Prophet finally lost caste among his people and died. Tecumtha served the British in the War of 1812–13 as a leader of the Indians, with the rank of brigadier, and was killed at the battle on the Thames, in Canada (Oct. 5, 1813), by troops under the command of Colonel Richard M. Johnson.

Telegraph in Massachusetts (1799). A telegraph on an improved plan was invented by Jonathan Grant, of Belchertown, Mass., in the above year. The inventor set up one of his lines between Boston and Martha's Vineyard, places ninety miles apart, at which distance he asked a question and received an answer in less than ten minutes.

Telegraphic Despatches, SEIZURE OF. By an order of the government of the United States, issued April 19, 1861, the originals of the despatches in the telegraph offices in all the principal cities of the free-labor states received during a year previous were seized by United States marshals at the same hour (three o'clock, P.M.) on April 20. The object was to obtain evidence of the complicity of politicians in those states with the enemies of the Republic. Every despatch that seemed to indicate such complicity was sent to

Washington, and the government obtained such positive evidence of such complicity that the offenders became exceedingly cautious and far less mischievous. Such offenders who persisted in "giving aid and comfort to the enemy" were arrested and imprisoned in Fort McHenry, at Baltimore; Fort Lafayette, New York; and Fort Warren, Boston. Within six months after the tragedy at Baltimore (April 19, 1861), no less than one hundred prisoners of state, to whom the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* was denied, were confined in Fort Lafayette.

Telegraphy. Until the perfecting of the electro-magnetic telegraph by Professor Morse in 1844, telegraphy was carried on by means of contrivances visible to the eye. The Morse system is now universally used, but seems yet in its infancy. The astonishing developments of its capabilities fill us with perpetual wonder, and its use has become an absolute necessity. Its growth has been marvellous. In 1846, three men conducted the entire telegraph business in the United States from a dingy basement in New York city; in 1876, 1000 persons were employed in that business in New York city alone, and one company (the Western Union), which monopolized the business, had a building, chiefly used for the purpose, which cost about \$2,000,000. In 1890 there were 183,917 miles of telegraph communication over the Republic. Telegraphic communications are freely sent over the wires in opposite directions at the same moment.

Telephone, THE, is a speaking instrument, first brought to public notice in 1877–78, by which, by means of the electro-magnetic telegraph, sounds may be transmitted to great distances, and conversation may be carried on by persons many scores of miles apart. A singer or an instrumental musician may perform in one city, and every tone may be distinctly heard by an audience in a room in another city. The telephone has become an instrument of common use in keeping up audible communications with various places. It was first used in public communications on March 7, 1879, when every phase of the proceedings in Congress pending the passage of the Silver Bill over the President's veto was transmitted vocally from the Capitol to the Treasury Department in Washington, and thence by telegraph to the President's house. The telephone is very extensively used among business men in cities. In 1890 there were 193,213 miles of telephone wires in use in the United States. In connection with these there were 444,861 instruments, producing a rental of \$2,657,361 per year.

Telfair, EDWARD, Governor of Georgia in 1786, and from 1790 to 1793, was born in Scotland in 1735; died at Savannah, Sept. 17, 1807. He came to America in 1758 as agent for a mercantile house; resided first in Virginia, then in North Carolina, and finally settled as a merchant in Savannah in 1766. An active patriot there, he was on the revolutionary committees, and was one of a party which broke open the magazine at Savannah and removed the gunpowder in 1775. He served in the Continental Congress in

1778, and again from 1780 to 1783, and in 1786 was elected governor.

Temperance Societies. The first modern temperance society was formed in 1789 by two hundred farmers of Litchfield County, Conn., who agreed not to use "any distilled liquor in doing their farm-work the ensuing season." Organized societies of a similar kind began to be formed in 1811, and in 1826 the first public temperance society was organized in the United States. The total-abstinence principle was not adopted until 1836, when a national convention held at Saratoga, N. Y., took that higher stand. The Washingtonian Society, the first formed on total-abstinence principles, was organized in Baltimore in 1840 by six men of intemperate habits, who signed a pledge to totally abstain from intoxicating drinks. At the first anniversary of the society, one thousand reformed drunkards walked in procession.

Temporary Government for Western Territory. In 1784 Congress provided a temporary government for the country ceded by the several states and the Indians "beyond the mountains." Such territory was to be divided into distinct states; the inhabitants of any such division might be authorized to hold a convention of "their free males of full age" for the purpose of establishing a temporary government, and to adopt the constitution and laws of any state already established, and, under certain restrictions, to make political divisions in the newly organized territory into counties and townships. These were to be preliminary movements. It was provided that when any such state had acquired 20,000 inhabitants, the latter, on giving due proof thereof to Congress, should receive authority from that body to call a convention of representatives to establish a permanent government for themselves on the following basis: 1st. That they should forever remain a part of the Confederation of the United States of America; 2d. That they should be subject to the Articles of Confederation equally with those of the original states; 3d. That they should in no case interfere with the rights of the United States to the soil of such states, nor with the ordinances and regulations which Congress might find necessary for securing the title of such soil to *bona fide* purchasers; 4th. That they should be subject to pay a part of the national debt contracted or to be contracted; 5th. That no tax should be imposed on lands belonging to the United States; 6th. That these respective governments should be republican in form; and, 7th. That the lands of non-resident proprietors should in no case be taxed higher than that of the residents within any new state. It was also provided that whenever any of the new states should have as many free inhabitants as the least populous of the thirteen original states, it should be admitted into Congress by delegates on an equal footing with the original states, provided the requisite number of the states forming the Union should consent to such admission.

Tender Law in Massachusetts. Very little money had been in circulation in the Massachu-

setts colony during its earlier years, for what coin the settlers brought with them soon went back to England to pay for imported articles. Taxes were paid in grain and cattle, at rates fixed by the General Court. Every new set of emigrants brought some money with them, and the lively demand for corn and cattle on the part of the new-comers raised the prices to a high pitch. When the political changes in England (see *Long Parliament, The*) stopped emigration, prices fell, and a corresponding difficulty was felt in paying debts. In 1640 the Legislature of Massachusetts enacted that grain, at different prices for different sorts, should be a legal tender for the payment of all debts. To prevent sacrifices of property in cases of inability to pay, corn, cattle, and other personal goods, or, in default of such goods, the home and lands of the debtor, when taken in execution, were to be delivered to the creditor in full satisfaction, at such value as they might be appraised at by "three intelligent and indifferent men"—one to be chosen by the creditor, another by the debtor, and a third by the marshal. Beaver-skins were also paid and received as money, and held a place next to coin in the public estimation. At one time, musket-balls, at one farthing each, were made legal tender. A more available currency was found in wampum (which see), the money of the Indians.

Tennessee was originally a part of North Carolina, and was claimed as a hunting-ground by the Chickasaws, Choctaws, Shawnoese, and even by the Six Nations (which see). No tribe made it a fixed habitation excepting the Cherokees, who dwelt in the extreme southeast part. Earl Loudon, Governor of Virginia, sent Andrew Lewis thither in 1756 to plant a settlement, and he built Fort Loudon, on the Tennessee River, about thirty miles from the site of Knoxville. It was besieged by Indians in 1760 and captured, the inmates being murdered or reduced to captivity. Armed men from Virginia and North Carolina retook the fort in 1761, and compelled the barbarians to sue for peace, when the settlements along the Holston and Watauga rapidly increased. The settlers were known as the "Watauga Association" from 1769 to 1777. The territory was represented in the North Carolina

Legislature as the District of Washington. In 1785 the State of Frankland or Franklin (which see) was organized, but was reunited with North Carolina in 1788, and the next year that state ceded the territory to the national government.

In 1790 it was organized, together with Kentucky, as "The Territory South of the Ohio." A distinct territorial government was granted to Tennessee in 1794, and in 1796 (June 1) it entered the Union as a state. The constitution then framed



STATE SEAL OF TENNESSEE.

was amended in 1835, and again in 1853. The seat of government was migratory, having been at Knoxville, Kingston, Nashville, and Murfreesborough until 1826, when it was permanently fixed at Nashville. Tennessee took an active part in the War of 1812–15, especially in the operations in the Gulf region. Like those of Kentucky, the large majority of the people of Tennessee were opposed to secession in 1861, but their governor, who sympathized with that movement, finally plunged the state into revolution and the horrors of civil war, which raged fearfully at times within its borders. When the question of calling a convention to consider the subject of secession was submitted to the people (Feb. 9, 1861), there was a majority of 12,000 votes against it. After the attack on Sumter the Legislature was summoned to meet. It submitted the question of secession to the people, and it was declared that a large majority were in favor of it. (See *Tennessee Ordinance of Secession*.) The authorities had formed a military league with the Confederate States government, which the Legislature ratified, and from that time until the end of the war Tennessee was a theatre of distressing hostilities. They ceased only when Hood was driven from Tennessee near the close of 1864. (See *Nashville, Battle of*.)

On Jan. 9, 1865, a state convention assembled at Nashville and proposed amendments to the constitution abolishing slavery and prohibiting the legislative recognition of property in man. The military league with the Confederacy, the ordinance of secession, and all acts of the Confederate States government were annulled, and the payment of any debts contracted by that government was prohibited. These proceedings were ratified by the people, and W. G. Brownlow was chosen governor. In April the Legislature ratified the Thirteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, reorganized the state government, and elected senators to Congress. The Fourteenth Amendment to the national Constitution having been ratified by the state in 1866, it was soon afterwards admitted to representation in Congress. The constitution of the state was revised early in 1870. Population in 1890, 1,767,518.

Tennessee, ANNEXATION OF, to the CONFEDERACY. On the 1st of May, 1861, the Legislature of Tennessee authorized its governor to take measures to annex that state to the Southern Confederacy, by which the whole military rule of the commonwealth should be subjected to the will of the leader of that league. (See *Tennessee Ordinance of Secession*.) The governor appointed Gustavus A. Henry, Archibald O. W. Totten, and Washington Barrow commissioners for the purpose. They negotiated a treaty with the agent of the Confederate States, H. W. Hilliard, and on the 7th a copy of the treaty was submitted to the Legislature. So Tennessee was bound to the fortunes of the Confederacy. By the treaty the authorities of Tennessee were to "turn over" to the Confederate States "all the public property, naval stores, and munitions of war of which she might then be in possession, acquired from the United States, on the same terms and in the same manner as the

other states of the Confederacy." Already the governor (Harris) had ordered (April 29, 1861) the seizure of Tennessee bonds to the amount of \$66,000 and \$5000 in cash belonging to the United States in the hands of the collector at Nashville. At about that time Jefferson Davis, disgusted with the timidity of Governor Magoffin, of Kentucky, recommended the Kentuckians "true to the South" to go into Tennessee and there "rally and organize."

Tennessee, DEPARTMENT OF THE. After the battle at Corinth (Oct. 4, 1862) there was brief repose in General Grant's department; and, by general orders (Oct. 16), it was much extended and called the "Department of the Tennessee," with headquarters at Jackson. Grant made a temporary division of it into four districts, commanded, respectively, by Generals W. T. Sherman, S. A. Hurlbut, C. S. Hamilton, and T. A. Davies, the first commanding the district of Memphis, the second that of Jackson, the third of Corinth, and the fourth of Columbus.

Tennessee Ordinance of Secession. Governor Isham G. Harris called the Legislature of Tennessee to meet on April 25, 1861, and in a message to them he strongly urged the immediate secession of the state. He urged that there was no propriety in wasting time in submitting the question to the people, for a revolution was imminent. A few days afterwards Henry W. Hilliard, a commissioner of the "Confederate States of America" (which see), clothed with authority to negotiate a treaty of alliance with Tennessee, appeared (April 30) and was allowed to address the Legislature. He expressed his belief that there was not a true-hearted man in the South who would not spurn submission to the "Abolition North," and considered the system of government founded on slavery which had just been established as the only form of government that could be maintained in America. The Legislature, in which was a majority of Secessionists, authorized (May 1) the governor to enter into a military league with the Confederate States, by which the whole military rule of the commonwealth was to be subjected to the will of Jefferson Davis. (See *Virginia Ordinance of Secession*.) It was done on May 7. The eighteen members from East Tennessee (which section remained loyal) did not vote. The Legislature passed an act to submit to a vote of the people of Tennessee a declaration of independence and an ordinance of secession; also an ordinance for the adoption of the constitution of the Confederate States of America. The governor was empowered to raise 50,000 volunteers "for the defence of the state," and, if necessary, to call out the whole available military strength of the commonwealth, to be under the absolute immediate control of the governor. He was also authorized to issue bonds of the state for \$5,000,000, to bear an annual interest of eight per cent. So the purse and the sword of Tennessee were placed in the hands of the disloyal governor before the people were allowed to be heard on the vital subject of secession from the Union. Yet they ventured to

speak in the face of threatened violence, and competent authority declared that the vote was against secession by a large majority. It is also said by competent authority that, by a concerted plan of making false election returns and the changing of figures at Nashville by the governor and his confederates, Harris asserted in a proclamation (June 24) that the vote in the state was 104,913 for secession, and 47,238 against secession. Even this report showed that East Tennessee—the mountain region of the state—was loyal by an overwhelming majority.

Tennessee, POSITION OF (1861). The people of Tennessee—the daughter of North Carolina—like those of the parent state, loved the Union supremely; but their governor (Isham G. Harris) was an active enemy of the Republic, and had been for months in confidential correspondence with the public enemies in the Gulf States and in South Carolina and Virginia. To further the cause of disunion, he labored incessantly to bring about the secession of Tennessee. He called a special session of the Legislature at Nashville Jan. 7, 1861, and in his message he recited a long list of so-called grievances which the people of the state had suffered under the rule of the national government. He appealed to their passions and prejudices, and recommended amendments to the national Constitution favorable to the perpetuation and protection of the slave system. The Legislature provided for a convention, but decreed that when the people should elect the delegates they should vote for "Convention" or "No Convention"; also, that any ordinance adopted by the convention concerning "Federal relations" should not be valid until submitted to the people for ratification or rejection. The election was held Feb. 9, 1861, and the Union candidates were elected by an aggregate majority of about sixty-five thousand; and, by a majority of nearly twelve thousand, decided not to have a convention. The loyal people were gratified, and believed the secession movements in the state would cease. It was a delusive belief and hope. (See *Tennessee Ordinance of Secession*.)

Tennessee Troops (1812). Tidings of the declaration of war reached Andrew Jackson at the Hermitage, near Nashville, a week after that event, and on the same day (June 26) he authorized Governor Blount to tender to the President of the United States the services of himself and 2500 men of his division (he was a major-general of Tennessee militia) as volunteers for the war. Madison received Jackson's generous offer with gratitude, and accepted it "with peculiar satisfaction." The Secretary of War wrote (July 11) a cordial letter of acceptance to Governor Blount, and that official publicly thanked Jackson and his volunteers for the honor they had done the State of Tennessee by their patriotic movement. Everything seemed so quiet below the Tennessee River that it was past mid-autumn before the Tennessee volunteers were called upon. On Oct. 21 Governor Blount was asked for 1500 volunteers to be sent to

New Orleans to reinforce Wilkinson, and he made a requisition upon Jackson for that number. The latter immediately entered upon that military career which rendered his name famous. On Dec. 10, when the weather in Tennessee was intensely cold and deep snow lay upon the ground, about 2000 troops assembled at Nashville, bearing clothes for both cold and warm weather. When organized, these consisted of two regiments of infantry of 700 men each, commanded respectively by Colonels William Hall and Thomas H. Benton, and a corps of cavalry, 670 in number, under the command of Colonel John Coffee. These troops were composed of the best physical and social materials of the state. On the 7th of January, 1813, the little army went down the Cumberland River in boats, excepting the mounted men, whom Coffee led across the country to join the others at Natchez, on the Mississippi. In a letter to the Secretary of War, General Jackson, alluding to the conduct of some Pennsylvania and New York troops on the Niagara frontier who had constitutional objections to going into a foreign country by invading Canada, said: "I am now at the head of 2070 volunteers—the choicest of our citizens—who go at the call of their country to execute the will of the government, 'who have no constitutional scruples,' and, if the government orders, will rejoice at the opportunity of placing the American eagle on the ramparts of Mobile, Pensacola, and Fort Augustine, effectually banishing from the Southern coasts all British influence." Jackson was then forty-six years of age. The troops, after many hardships, reached Natchez and disembarked, when they met an order from Wilkinson to halt there and await further orders, as he had no instructions concerning their employment; nor had he quarters for their accommodation. There Jackson and his men waited until the 1st of March, when he wrote to the Secretary of War, saying he saw little chance for the employment of his small army in the South, and suggested that they might be used in the North. Day after day he waited anxiously for an answer. At length one came from John Armstrong, the new Secretary of War, who wrote simply that the causes of calling out the Tennessee volunteers to march to New Orleans had ceased to exist, and that on the receipt of that letter they would be dismissed from public service. He was directed to turn over to General Wilkinson all public property that may have been put into his hands. The letter concluded with the tender of cold and formal thanks of the President to Jackson and his troops. The hero's anger was fiercely kindled because of this cruel letter, which dismissed his army five hundred miles from their homes, without pay, without sufficient clothing, without provisions, or means of transportation through a wilderness in which barbarians only roamed. He wrote fiery letters to the President, Secretary of War, and Governor Blount, and took the responsibility of disobeying his orders and taking the troops back to Nashville before he would dismiss them. The Secretary apologized, saying

he did not know that Jackson had moved far from Nashville when he wrote the letter. Late in March he began his homeward movement. It was full of peril and fatigue, and took a month to accomplish it, moving eighteen miles a day. The general shared the privations of his soldiers, who admired his wonderful endurance. They said he was as "tough as hickory," and he received the nickname, which he bore through life, of "Old Hickory." Drawn up in the public square at Nashville, the Tennessee volunteers were presented with an elegant stand of colors from the ladies of Knoxville, and were there disbanded, May 22, 1813.

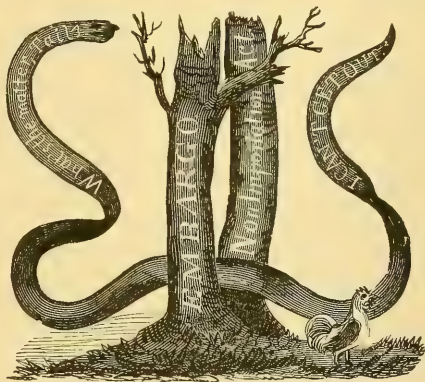
Tenure-of-office Act. Late in February, 1867, a bill was passed by Congress limiting the powers of the President in removals from office. Among other things, it took from the President the power to remove members of his cabinet excepting by permission of the Senate, declaring that they should hold office "for and during the term of the President by whom they may have been appointed, and for one month thereafter, subject to removal by and with the consent of the Senate." The President vetoed this bill (March 2), when it was passed over his veto and became a law.

Terms of Peace (1779). At the suggestion of the French ministers (Gerard and Luzerne) that the United States ought to accept an indirect acknowledgment of independence from Great Britain and make concessions in regard to boundaries (see *Yearnings for Peace*), Congress debated the matter at different times from February to August, 1779. They would listen to nothing short of absolute and full acknowledgment of their independence as preliminary to negotiations for peace. Concerning boundaries, fisheries, etc., they insisted upon the Mississippi as low down as latitude 31° north (present southern boundary of the State of Mississippi) as the western boundary. For the southern boundary, the thirty-first degree to the Appalachicola, and down that river to meet a due west line drawn from the head of the St. Mary River and through it to the Atlantic Ocean—the northern boundary of Florida as fixed by the proclamation of 1763. The northern boundary was to be the original limits of the province of Quebec (see *Treaty of Paris*)—a line drawn from the outlet of Lake Nepissing to the St. Lawrence at the forty-fifth degree; thence along that parallel across the foot of Lake Champlain to the head of the Connecticut River; thence by the height of land separating the waters that flow, respectively, into the St. Lawrence and the sea, to meet a due north line drawn from the head of the St. Croix River; which line, and the river itself, from its source to its mouth, were to form the northeastern boundary. Rather than continue the war, they were willing to give up a claim to the peninsula between Lakes Erie, Ontario, and Huron. The right to fish on the Banks of Newfoundland and the free navigation of the Mississippi were at first insisted upon, but this point was finally yielded. These definitions formed the

basis of instructions to the commissioners sent to Europe.

Ternay, CHARLES LOUIS (D'Arzac de), French admiral, commander of the fleet that brought troops to America under Rochambeau. He entered the French service in 1738; commanded a squadron in the invasion of Newfoundland in June, 1762; resigned in 1772; and in 1779 was Governor of Bourbon and the adjacent islands. He arrived at Newport, R. I., with the French troops July 10, 1780, and died there, Dec. 15, 1780, aged fifty-eight years.

Terrapin War. The opponents of the War of 1812 denounced the embargo acts in unmeasured terms of scorn and ridicule. They called the conflict a "Terrapin War"—the nation, by extinguishing commerce, drawing within its own shell like a terrapin. Squibs, epigrams, caricatures, and songs were levelled against the acts. Newspapers and speakers especially condemned the "land embargo"—the cutting off trade with Canada. The trade so suddenly thrown into confusion by it was represented in a caricature by a bewildered serpent which had been suddenly stopped in its movements by two trees, marked, respectively, "Embargo" and "Non-intercourse." The wondering snake is puzzled to know what has happened, and the head cries out, "What's the matter, tail?" The latter answers, "I can't get out." A cock, representing France, stands by, crowing joyfully.



FAC-SIMILE OF A NEWSPAPER CUT.

In the late spring and early summer of 1812 a very popular song was sung at all gatherings of the Federalists. The following is a copy:

"Huzza for our liberty, boys,
These are the days of our glory—
The days of true national joys,
When terrapins gallop before ye!
There's Porter and Grundy and Rhea,
In Congress who manfully vapor,
Who draw their six dollars a day,
And fight bloody battles on paper!
Ah! this is true Terrapin war!

"Poor Madison the tremors has got,
'Bout this same arming the nation;
Too far to retract, he cannot
Go on—and he loses his station.
Then bring up your 'regulars,' lads
In 'attitude' nothing ye lack, sirs.
Ye'll frighten to death the Danads,
With fire-coals blazing aback, sirs!
Oh, this is true Terrapin war!

' As to powder and bullet and swords,
 For, as they were never intended,
 They're a parcel of high-sounding words,
 But never to action extended.
 Ye must frighten the rascals away,
 In 'rapid descent' on their quarters;
 Then the plunder divide as ye may,
 And drive them headlong in the waters.
 Oh, this is great Terrapin war!"

Territorial Dispute between Massachusetts and New York Settled. By the terms of its original charter, Massachusetts claimed a part of the territory west of the Hudson River. Commissioners of Massachusetts and New York met at Hartford, Dec. 16, 1786, and made an amicable settlement. It was agreed that Massachusetts should have the pre-emptive right to two large tracts of land in the State of New York, the whole being about five million acres. Of that domain, two hundred and thirty thousand acres were near the centre of the State of New York; the remainder bordered on Lake Erie. All the residue claimed by Massachusetts was ceded to New York. In the matter of the tracts of land in New York, Massachusetts ceded to New York the sovereignty and jurisdiction of all the territory, and New York ceded to Massachusetts the property of the soil. The line commenced in the forty second degree of north latitude, eighty-two miles west of the northeast corner of Pennsylvania, and was called the "Pre-emption Line." It ran through Seneca Lake at its mouth, about the middle of Geneva, and through Sodus Bay—the meridian of the city of Washington. This tract included most of the beautiful Genesee County.

Territories of the United States. All the states of the Republic have been first organized by acts of Congress as territories, excepting the original thirteen states; Texas, which was received into the Union by annexation; California, which was admitted immediately as a state; and West Virginia, which was formed from a part of Virginia. There are at the present time (1890) four organized territories, as shown in the following table:

NAME.	Date of Creation.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1890.
Arizona.....	1863	113,000	59,691
New Mexico.....	1850	122,580	153,593
Oklahoma.....	1890	39,030	61,701
Utah.....	1850	84,476	207,905

The District of Alaska, with an area of 531,000 square miles, has no territorial organization, but is under the direct control of the Federal Government. The District of Columbia is governed by the United States Congress; and the Indian Country or Territory is set apart for the use of the different Indian tribes.

Terry, ALFRED HOWE, was born at Hartford, Conn., Nov. 10, 1827. He was educated at Yale College, and received an honorary degree from that institution in 1865. He was admitted to the bar in 1848, and practised law from 1854 to 1860. He led volunteers from New Haven in the battle of Bull's Run, retiring in good order when defeat was certain, hurrying up the rear

of the retreat, and saving a large amount of government property. Raising a Connecticut regiment, he was attached to the expedition to the coast of South Carolina, under General T. W. Sherman, and occupied Hilton Head. He assisted in the capture of Fort Pulaski (which see), and was placed in command of it; and during the summer of 1862 he had command of the posts and forts on the eastern coast of Florida, having been made brigadier-general in March. He led a division in the operations against Fort Wagner, and afterwards in the Army of the James, in its operations against Petersburg and Richmond. From May to December, 1864, he commanded the Tenth Corps; and in January, 1865, aided by the fleet of Porter, he captured Fort Fisher. For this act he was made major-general of volunteers and brigadier-general United States Army. He afterwards captured Wilmington, N. C., and was breveted major-general United States Army. After the surrender of Lee he was in command of Richmond, and was finally employed as commander in the Northwest. He died December 16, 1890.

Test Oath. Congress passed an act (July 22, 1862) which required that every member of Congress should make oath that he had not "voluntarily borne arms against the United States since he had been a citizen thereof," or "voluntarily given aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in hostility thereto," and had never "yielded voluntary support to any pretended government, authority, power, or constitution within the United States hostile or inimical thereto."

Texas. The first European settlement made in Texas was by La Salle, in 1685, by accident. (See *La Salle, Robert Cavalier de*.) In 1689 Captain De Leon, a Spanish officer, was sent to drive out the French. He found them scattered, and the next year he returned with one hundred and ten men and some friars, and on the site of a fort built by La Salle, on Matagorda Bay, established a Spanish mission. A Spanish governor, with troops, was sent thither in 1691, but Indian hostilities and menaces of famine caused the settlement to be abandoned in 1693. In 1714 the French again attempted to plant settlements in Texas, under the direction of Crozat, of Louisiana (which see). Soon afterwards (1715) Spanish missions were

planted at various points in the present domain of Texas; the name of "New Philippines" was given to the country, and a governor-general was appointed. The Indians slaughtered the people at some of the missions, and in 1765 there were not more than seven hundred and fifty white inhabitants in Texas.



STATE SEAL OF TEXAS.

After the cession of Louisiana to the United States a controversy arose about its western boundary (see *Louisiana, Purchase of*), which was amicably settled, in 1806, by General Wilkinson and the Spanish commander, establishing the territory between the Sabine River and Arroya Honda as neutral ground. In 1806 revolutionary movements, incited by those of Aaron Burr (see *Burr's Mysterious Expedition*), began in that region, and many skirmishes and battles occurred, chiefly by invasions of Americans. In conflicts in 1813 the Spanish lost about one thousand men; and in a conflict the same year, a force of about twenty-five hundred Americans and revolted Mexicans was nearly destroyed. Only about one hundred escaped. The Spaniards murdered seven hundred of the peaceable inhabitants of San Antonio. After the close of the War of 1812-15 Lafitte (which see) made Galveston Island his headquarters, established there a town named Campeachy, and remained there until 1821, when the settlement was broken up by United States forces. In 1819 the Sabine was established as the eastern boundary of Texas, but dissatisfaction caused disturbances to continue, and the territory was almost deserted. In 1820 Moses Austin, then living in Missouri, received from the Spanish authorities of Mexico a grant of land in Texas, and, dying, his son, Stephen F., received a confirmation of the grant in 1823. Emigrants from the United States flocked into Texas. A thousand families were soon there. Spanish rule was harsh towards the American colonists, and they were so oppressed that, in 1833, when Texas contained twenty thousand Americans, a convention was held, and measures were taken to obtain the independence of the state. Committees of safety were established in 1835, and that year armed resistance to the government of Mexico, of which Santa Aña was the head, began. Battles were fought; San Antonio de Bexar was taken by the insurgents, under Samuel Houston (which see), who was commander-in-chief. By the victory of San Antonio the Mexican forces were driven out of Texas. On the 20th of December, 1835, a "Declaration of Independence" was issued, and soon afterwards Santa Aña, with seventy-five hundred men, provided with artillery, ammunition, and stores, set out for Texas, and in February, 1836, he invested the Alamo, a strong fort near San Antonio. It was bombarded eleven days, when it was carried by storm by four thousand men, and the entire garrison were butchered. After that the war-cry of the Texans was "Remember the Alamo!" In that assault the Mexicans lost sixteen hundred men. A convention assembled in March, issued another declaration of independence, adopted a constitution, and made David G. Burnet provisional president of the declared Republic of Texas. The constitution was signed March 17. On the 27th Colonel Fanning's command were captured at Goliad, and, in violation of the terms of surrender, were massacred. Houston, meanwhile, was falling back before the Mexican troops, in order to divide and scatter them. On the San Jacinto

he gave battle, and won a victory, killing and wounding eight hundred and thirty-two Mexicans, and taking seven hundred and thirty prisoners, among them Santa Aña, who commanded in person. The war was ended, and Texas was independent. General Houston was elected President in September, 1836. The first Congress assembled in October, and the independence of Texas was acknowledged by the United States in March, 1837. In 1839-40 it was acknowledged by France, England, Holland, and Belgium. The Mexican government sent marauding expeditions into Texas from 1841 to 1843. In the latter year President Tyler made propositions to the President of Texas for its annexation to the United States. That measure was effected, and on Dec. 29, 1845, Texas was declared to be a state of the Union. Its annexation led to a war with Mexico (see *Mexico, War with*), begun in 1846, and ended by treaty in February, 1848. It then embraced an area of 376,163 square miles. In 1850 the state ceded to the United States its claim to all territory beyond its present limits (274,356 square miles), in consideration of \$10,000,000 in bonds, with the proceeds of which the state debt was paid. In 1860 politicians began to move for secession. Governor Houston opposed them, but a convention, on Feb. 1, 1861, passed an Ordinance of Secession. (See *Texas Secession Ordinance*.) Soon afterwards General Twiggs betrayed the United States troops in Texas into the hands of the Secessionists (see *Twiggs, David E., Treacherous Conduct of*), and the state was arrayed against the Union. The last engagement of the Civil War (which see) occurred on the soil of western Texas. A. J. Hamilton was appointed by the President provisional governor in the summer of 1865, and measures were taken for the reorganization of civil government there. Under the "Reconstruction Acts" of 1867, Texas, with Louisiana, was made a military district, and subjected to military rule under General Sheridan. A convention assembled Dec. 7, 1868, adopted a constitution, which was ratified at an election (Nov. 30 to Dec. 3) in 1869, and a governor and legislature were chosen at the same time. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the national Constitution were ratified (Feb. 23, 1870), and on March 30, by act of Congress, the state was entitled to representation in Congress. On April 16 the government was transferred to the civil authorities. Population in 1890, 2,235,523.

TEXAS, ATTEMPTS TO "REPOSSESS" IT (1863.) General Banks sent General Franklin, with four thousand troops, accompanied by four gunboats, under Lieutenant Crocker, to seize the Confederate post at Sabine Pass, on the boundary-line between Louisiana and Texas, preparatory to an attempt to recover the latter state from Confederate control. The expedition sailed from New Orleans Sept. 5, 1863. A premature attack of the gunboats on the garrison at Sabine Pass (Sept. 8) was unfortunate, and the expedition was a disastrous failure. Two of the gunboats were captured, and the transports, with Franklin's troops, fled back to New Orleans, the Nationals having lost two hundred men made pris-

ouers and fifty killed and wounded; also two gunboats and fifteen heavy rifled cannons. The garrison attacked consisted of about two hundred men, and only forty were present. Banks now concentrated his forces on the Atchafalaya, for the purpose of penetrating Texas by way of Shreveport, on the Red River; but this design was abandoned for a time (see *Red River Expedition*), and it was determined to attempt to seize and hold the coast harbors of Texas. To mask this movement, General C. C. Washburne, with a considerable body of troops, advanced from Brashear City to Opelousas, to give the impression that a march upon Alexandria and Shreveport was again begun. When, in obedience to orders, he began falling back, he was suddenly and furiously struck by Confederates under Dick Taylor, and a regiment (Twenty-third Wisconsin) on which the blow fell was reduced from two hundred and twenty-six men to ninety-eight, most of them made prisoners. Meanwhile about six thousand National troops, under General Dana, with some war-vessels, had sailed for the Rio Grande. Banks, in person, accompanied the expedition. The troops debarked (Nov. 2) at Brazos Santiago, drove a small Confederate cavalry force stationed there, and followed them to Brownsville, opposite Matamoros, which Banks entered on Nov. 6. At the close of the year the National troops occupied all the strong positions on the Texan coast excepting Galveston Island (see *Galveston, Surrender of*) and a formidable work at the mouth of the Brazos River, and the Confederates had abandoned all Texas west of the Colorado River.

Texas Committee of Safety (1861). The Secession Convention of Texas appointed a Committee of Safety to carry out the scheme of disunion before the people could think or act upon the Ordinance of Secession. The committee was immediately organized, and appointed two of their number (Devine and Maverick) commissioners to treat with General David E. Twiggs, then in command of the National troops in Texas, for the surrender of his army and the public property under his control to the authorities of Texas. Twiggs gladly performed that act. This Committee of Safety so managed the votes cast on the 23d of February, concerning the Ordinance of Secession (see *Texas Secession Ordinance*), that there seemed to be full twenty-three thousand majority in favor of the ordinance, when it is asserted that really a very large proportion of the people of Texas were opposed to it.

Texas, INDEPENDENCE OF. Texas was a part of the Spanish province of Mexico which had declared itself independent of Spain. In 1824, when a considerable number of colonists from the United States were there, the Mexican government united Coahuila, hitherto a separate state, with Texas, and placed a Mexican as governor over the united states. He treated the Americans there with great injustice, and some of them, engaged in a revolution, were compelled to retreat into the United States in 1827. In 1830 Bustamente, who had made himself dictator of Mexico, issued a decree forbidding the

people of the United States to enter Texas as colonists. The American settlers in Texas then numbered about twenty thousand, and in 1833 they held a convention, determined to separate Texas from Coahuila, prepared a state constitution, and requested Santa Aña, then at the head of the government of Mexico, to admit them as a separate state of the republic. Colonel S. F. Austin, representing the American colonists, went to Mexico, where Santa Aña detained him until 1835; during which time—keeping the Texans quiet by promises of compliance with their desires—he prepared to occupy the country with his troops. A Committee of Safety was created in Texas, which assumed governmental powers. The people armed. A skirmish took place with some Mexicans, near Gonzales, Oct. 2, 1835, and other battles followed. On Nov. 9 a provisional government was formed in a delegate convention, called the "Consultation," and a governor and lieutenant-governor were chosen. At the same time Samuel Houston, of Tennessee, who had settled in Texas, was chosen commander-in-chief of the forces, and Austin was sent as commissioner to the United States. After San Antonio de Bexar was captured (Dec. 10, 1835), the entire Mexican force was driven out of Texas, and on the 20th a Declaration of Independence was adopted, and issued at Goliad, by Captain Philip Dimitt and others. Santa Aña, with a well-provided army of seventy-five hundred men, set out for the recovery of Texas. He invested the Alamo (February, 1836), a strong fort near San Antonio, with four thousand men, and, after bombarding it eleven days, carried it by storm. It was garrisoned by about one hundred and seventy men, under Captain W. B. Travis. The whole garrison were massacred (March 6) by order of Santa Aña—only one woman, a child, and a servant were saved. "Remember the Alamo!" was a Texan war-cry after that. The Mexicans lost, in the attack, sixteen hundred men. On March 1 a convention issued a Declaration of Independence, and a provisional president (David G. Burnet) was chosen. On the 27th the command of Colonel Fanning, at Goliad, were massacred in cold blood, and successive defeats of the Texans produced a panic. Houston, meanwhile, in order to scatter the Mexican forces, continually fell back, until he reached San Jacinto. There, at the head of a force of eight hundred troops, he gave battle (April 21, 1836) to about twice that number of Mexicans, and in the pursuit of them killed six hundred and thirty, wounded two hundred and eight, and took seven hundred and thirty prisoners. Among the latter, captured the next day, was President Santa Aña. His force was annihilated. The survivors fled westward in terror. The war was practically at an end. The Mexicans did not again invade Texas. Houston was elected President of the Republic (September, 1836). The independence of Texas was acknowledged by the United States in March, 1837, but Mexico never gave up her claim to it until the close of the war in 1846-48. (See *Annexation of Texas*.)

Texas, PERSISTENT REBELLION IN. Notwithstanding the downfall of the civil and military power of the Confederacy east of the Mississippi, the insurgents west of it, under the command and influence of General E. Kirby Smith, were disposed to continue the conflict longer. He addressed his soldiers on April 21, telling them that upon their prowess depended "the hopes of the [Confederate] nation." He assured them that there were hopes of success from abroad. "Protract the struggle," he said, "and you will surely receive the aid of nations who already deeply sympathize with you." Public meetings were held in Texas, where resolutions to continue the contest were adopted. To meet this danger, General Sheridan was sent to New Orleans with a large force, and made preparations for a vigorous campaign in Texas. His appearance dismayed the trans-Mississippi insurgents, and they refused to longer follow their leaders in the hopeless struggle. Kirby Smith formally surrendered his whole command to General Canby (May 26, 1865), but exhibited "the bad faith," said Grant in his report, "of first disbanding most of his army, and permitting an indiscriminate plunder of the public property." So ended the Civil War in the field.

Texas Secession Ordinance. The venerable governor of Texas, Samuel Houston, opposed secession movements in his state with all his might; but an organization known as "Knights of the Golden Circle" (which see) was working secretly and effectively in the cause of disunion. Among the "Knights" were many members of the Legislature and active politicians, all over the state. Sixty of these irresponsible persons, early in January, 1861, called a state convention, to meet at Austin on the 28th of that month; and a single member of the Legislature issued a call for the assembling of that body at the same time and place. When they met, the Legislature, by a joint resolution, declared the convention a legally constituted body. Governor Houston protested against the assumption of any power by the convention, except to refer the matter of secession to the people. The convention assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives, on the appointed day, under the chief management of Judge John H. Reagan. A commissioner from South Carolina (McQueen) was there to assist in the management. Not one half of the one hundred and twenty-two counties in the state were represented. On the 1st of February, 1861, an ordinance of secession was adopted by a vote of one hundred and sixty-six against seven. It declared that the national government had failed "to accomplish the purpose of the compact of union between the states," and the chief grievance complained of was that the national government would no longer uphold the slave system. They therefore abrogated, in the name of the people of Texas, the Ordinance of Annexation adopted July 4, 1845. They talked of a "resumption of sovereign powers" with some plausibility, for Texas was the only state in the Union that had ever possessed them, as an absolutely independent state. They decreed that

the ordinance should be submitted to the people, but the day named (Feb. 23) was so early that no opportunity was afforded the people for discussion. They appointed a "Committee of Safety" and delegates to the general convention at Montgomery.

Texas State Convention, USURPATIONS OF THE. Governor Houston, of Texas, in his address to the people of his state, early in March, 1861, revealed what he called its usurpations. He had denounced the convention as an illegal body, gathered through fraud and violence. "To enumerate all its usurpations," he said, "would be impossible, as a great portion of its proceedings were in secret. This much has been revealed: It has elected delegates to the provisional council of the Confederate States" (which see) "at Montgomery, before Texas had withdrawn from the Union; and also, on the 2d day of March, annexed Texas to the Confederate States and constituted themselves members of Congress, when it was not officially known by the convention until the 4th of March that a majority of the people had voted for secession. While a portion of these delegates were representing Texas in the Congress of the Confederate States, two of them, still claiming to be United States Senators, have continued to represent Texas in the United States Senate, under the administration of Mr. Lincoln—an administration which the people of Texas have declared odious and not to be borne. Yet Texas has been exposed to obloquy and forced to occupy the ridiculous attitude, before the world, of attempting to maintain her position as one of the United States, and, at the same time, claim to be one of the Confederate States. It has created a Committee of Safety" (see *Texas Committee of Safety*), "a portion of which has assumed the executive power of the government, and, to supplant the executive authority, have entered into negotiations with Federal officers." (See *Twigg's, David E., Treacherous Conduct of.*) "This committee, and commissioners acting under it, have caused the Federal troops to be removed from posts in the country exposed to Indian depredations, and had them located, with their arms and field-batteries, on the coast, where, if their desire is to maintain a position in the country, they cannot only do so successfully, but destroy the commerce of the state. They have usurped the power to withdraw these troops from the frontier; but though in possession of ample stores, munitions of war, and transportation, have failed to supply troops in place of those removed. As a consequence, the wail of women and children is heard upon the border. Devastation and ruin have thus come upon the people; and though the convention, with all the means in its power, has been in session two weeks [adjourned session], no succor has been sent to a devastated frontier. . . . The convention has assumed to appoint agents to foreign states, and created offices, civil and military, unknown to the laws, at its will, keeping secret its proceedings. It has deprived the people of a right to know its doings. It has appointed

officers and agents under its assumed authority. It has declared," he said, "that the people of Texas ratify the provisional government of the Confederate States, requiring all persons then in office to take an oath of allegiance to the same or suffer the penalty of removal." It had changed the State Constitution and established a test-oath of allegiance to the Confederate States, and, "in the exercise of its petty tyranny," had required the governor and other officers to appear at its bar at a certain time to take the oath. It had assumed to create organic laws, and to put the same into execution. "It has overthrown," he said, "the theory of free government by combining in itself all the departments of government and exercising the powers belonging to each." The governor concluded by saying: "I have refused to recognize this convention. I believe it has received none of the powers it has assumed either from the people or the Legislature. I believe it guilty of a usurpation which the people cannot suffer tamely and preserve their liberties. I am ready to lay down my life to maintain the rights and liberties of Texas. I am ready to lay down office rather than yield to usurpation and degradation." These charges, in general, might be appropriately applied to the secession conventions of other states. It may be seen, by the proceedings of these conventions, that in each case they unwarrantably stretched the powers given by choosing from among its partisans, without the consent of the people, delegates to a general convention to form a confederacy independent of the old Union.

Textile Fabrics. The first cotton-factory in the United States was started at Beverly, Mass., in 1789, by a company who only succeeded in *introducing* that industry, with very imperfect machinery. A woollen-factory was in operation at Hartford, Conn., in 1789, and in 1794 one was established at Byfield, Mass. The same year a carding-machine for wool was first put into operation in our country. It was constructed under the direction of John and Arthur Schofield. Samuel Slater (which see) may be considered the father of cotton-manufacturing in the United States. But his operations were only in spinning the yarn. It remained for a citizen of the United States, Francis C. Lowell, a merchant of Boston, to introduce the weaving of cotton cloth here. He invented a power loom, and in 1812 he and Francis S. Jackson erected a mill at Waltham, Mass. The machinery was constructed by Paul Moody. After many failures and alterations, they succeeded in perfecting looms that worked well, and in 1813 they had also a spinning-mill, with 1300 spindles. Slater's Rhode Island mill had then only 144 spindles. In 1890 full 14,550,000 spindles were at work in the United States. In 1870 there were 956 cotton-manufacturing establishments in the United States, employing 135,369 persons, to whom more than \$39,000,000 were paid in wages that year. The aggregate value of their productions was \$177,500,000. There were 489,250,000 yards of print-cloth or calico made that year. The total value of the product of the

woollen manufactures in the United States in 1870 was about \$200,000,000.

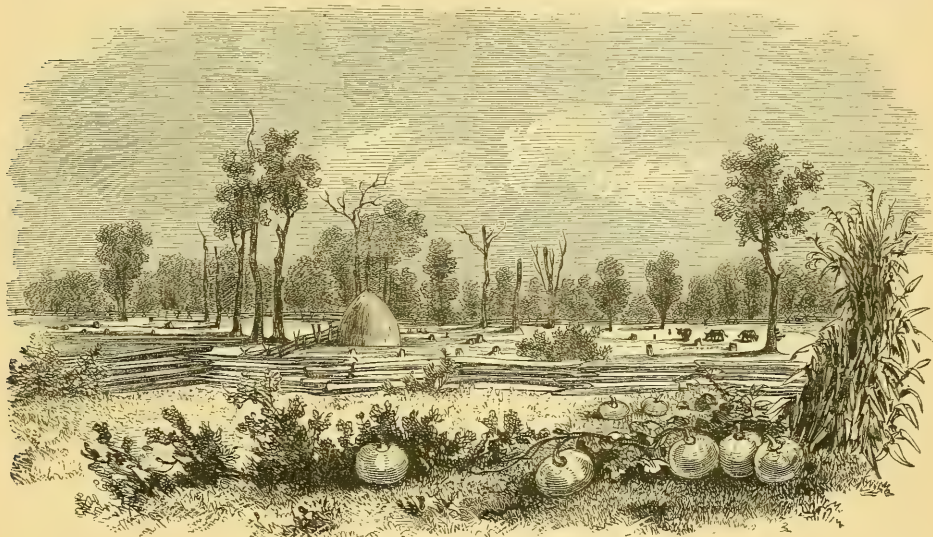
Textile Fabrics First Made in New England. The difficulty of paying for imported goods in Massachusetts, about 1640, stimulated the people to new kinds of industry. Among other things, cotton and woollen cloths were manufactured. The cultivation of hemp and flax was successfully undertaken. Vessels were sent to the West Indies for cotton, and, at Rowley, where a colony of Yorkshire clothiers had recently settled, the fabrication of linen, woollen, and cotton cloth was set on foot.

Thacher, JAMES, M.D., was born at Barnstable, Mass., Feb. 14, 1754; died at Plymouth, Mass., May 24, 1844. He joined the Continental army at Cambridge in 1775, and served through the war as surgeon, being present at many of the prominent battles in the North. He kept a diary, and in 1824 published a *Military Journal of the Revolution*, a work of great historical value. He was author, also, of several other works, scientific, philosophical, and historical.

Thames, BATTLE OF THE. When General Harrison landed his invading army near Fort Malden, Canada (see *Harrison's Invasion of Canada*), General Proctor, in command of the British troops there, fled northward, leaving the fort, navy buildings, and store-houses in flames. Proctor had impressed into his service all the horses of the inhabitants to facilitate his flight. Harrison wrote to the Secretary of War (Sept. 27): "I will pursue the enemy to-morrow, although there is no probability of overtaking him, as he has upwards of 1000 horses and we have not one in the army. I shall think myself fortunate to collect a sufficiency to mount the general officers." Harrison did pursue. On the 1st of October he was joined by Colonel Richard M. Johnson, with his cavalry, at Sandwich. There a council of officers was held. Only two lines of pursuit were feasible — one by Lake Erie to Long Point, the other by land to the rear of the fugitives. The latter was chosen. McArthur and his brigade were left to hold Detroit; Cass's brigade and Ball's regiment were left at Sandwich, and 3500 men, mostly Kentucky volunteers, started in pursuit towards Chatham, on the River Thames, where, it was ascertained, Proctor had encamped. General Cass accompanied Harrison as volunteer aid. Learning that some small vessels containing the enemy's artillery and baggage were escaping on Lake St. Clair towards the mouth of the Thames, Commodore Perry despatched a portion of his fleet (the *Niagara*, *Lady Provost*, *Scorpion*, and *Tigress*), under Captain Elliott, in pursuit. Perry soon followed in the *Ariel*, accompanied by the *Caledonia*. The little squadron reached (Oct. 2) the mouth of the Thames, with the baggage, provisions, and ammunition-wagons of the Americans, but the vessels of the enemy had escaped up that stream. Harrison pressed forward rapidly, along the border of the lake and up the Thames. Three of Perry's armed vessels also went up the river as convoys to transports.

The British had encamped at Dolsen's—700 white men and 1200 Indians—but on the approach of Harrison they continued their flight, Tecumtha cursing Proctor for his cowardice.

the pursuit was so sharp and close that Proctor was compelled to make a stand on the bank of the Thames, near the Moravian town (which see), his left on the river, where the bank is high



APPEARANCE OF THE THAMES BATTLE-GROUND IN 1860.

The former boasted of the victory he should win, but kept on retreating, destroying bridges and other property in his flight, burning his own vessels and leaving arms behind. At last,

and precipitous, and on his right a marsh, running almost parallel with the river for about two miles. The space between was covered with woods, with very little undergrowth. The British regulars were formed in two lines between a smaller swamp and the river, their artillery being planted in the road, near the bank of that stream. The Indians were posted between the two swamps, and so disposed as easily to flank Harrison's left. They were commanded by Tecumtha, assisted by Oshawahnah, a brave Chippewa chief. Harrison's force was now little more than 3000 in number, composed of 120 regulars, five brigades of Kentucky volunteers, under Governor Shelby, and Colonel Johnson's regiment of mounted men. Harrison attacked (Oct. 5, 1813), and a severe battle ensued. Tecumtha was slain, and his amazed followers, who had fought desperately, broke and fled to the shelter of the swamp. The whole British force was speedily vanquished, and most of them were made prisoners. Proctor escaped in a carriage, with his personal staff, a few dragoons, and mounted Indians, hotly pur-



OSHAWAHNAH.

grand council there. In that council he appeared with all his testimonials of bravery—his "stars and garters"—as seen in the picture. Around his hat was a silver band. He also displayed a silver gorget, medals, etc., a sash of bead-work, strings of wampum, and an ornamented tomahawk pipe. He was then about ninety years of age. He had been a famous warrior—the hero of fifteen battles. He was a mild-spoken, pleasant man, very vigorous in mind and body. He was yet living in 1861, the principal of seven or eight chiefs, on Walpole Island, in Lake St. Clair, opposite the town of Algoma, Mich., fifty miles above Detroit. Walpole Island is about ten miles in length. The Indians are Chippewas, Potawatomes, and Ottawas. They were settled here by the Indian agent of the British government at the close of the War of 1812. They were placed in charge of a superintendent in 1839. They numbered in 1867 about one thousand. Their principal business is hunting in the country around the Canadian borders of Lake St. Clair.

* This picture is from a photograph of life of Tecumtha's lieutenant at the battle of the Thames, taken at Brantford, Canada, in September, 1858, when he was attending a

gained some distance by Johnson and his horsemen. He made his way to the western end of Lake Ontario, and there his military career was ended. Censured by his superiors, rebuked by the Prince Regent (which see), and scorned by honorable men for his career of cruelty and cowardice in America, Proctor sank into merited obscurity. Harrison's victory was complete. The whole country resounded with his praises. Congress gave him and Shelby the thanks of the nation and each a gold medal. At the battle of the Thames six brass cannons taken from Hull at Detroit were recovered, on two of which were engraved the words "Surrendered by Burgoyne at Saratoga." These may now be seen at West Point, on the Hudson. The loss in this short but decisive battle is not exactly known. It lasted only about fifteen minutes. The Americans lost about 45 killed and wounded; the British 44, besides 600 made prisoners. Harrison had recovered all that Hull had lost. He had gained much. He had subdued western Canada, broken up the Indian Confederacy, and ended the war on the northwestern border of the Union. The frontier being secured, Harrison dismissed a greater portion of the volunteers. Leaving General Cass (whom he had appointed civil and military governor of Michigan) in command of a garrison at Detroit, composed of 1000 regulars, he proceeded (Oct. 23) with the remainder of his troops to Niagara, to join the "Army of the Centre." For some unexplained reason General Armstrong, the Secretary of War, treated Harrison so badly that the latter left the army, and the country was deprived of his valuable services at a most critical time.

Thanksgiving-day in New England, ORIGIN OF. In the autumn of 1621 Governor Bradford sent out four men to gather game, so that the whole colony might "rejoice together," after they had garnered the fruits of their labors. The following year (1622), at the same season, after the abundant harvest was collected, the colonists assembled, and, as an old chronicle says, "solemnized a day of thanksgiving unto the Lord." Another account says that Massachusetts and his court were invited to participate in the rejoicings, and that they remained three days, feasting on venison.

Thanksgiving-days. The first recorded public thanksgiving, appointed by authority, in America, was proclaimed in Massachusetts Bay, in 1631. Owing to the great scarcity of provisions and consequent menace of starvation, the 22d of February was appointed to be observed as a fast-day. Before that time a long-expected vessel arrived, laden with provisions, and the fast-day was changed into one of thanksgiving. The practice was sometimes observed in New Netherland. Governor Kieft proclaimed a public thanksgiving, to be held in February, 1644, on account of a victory over the Indians; and again, in 1645, because of the conclusion of peace. (See *Kieft, William*.) Thanksgivings and fasts, sometimes general and sometimes partial, were appointed in the several colonies, and early in the war for independence the

Continental Congress adopted the practice. The days appointed during the war were as follows: Thursday, July 20, 1775; Friday, May 17, 1776; and another, to be fixed by the several states, ordered by resolution, Dec. 11, 1776; Wednesday, April 22, 1778; Thursday, May 6, 1779; Wednesday, April 6, 1780; Thursday, May 3, 1781; Thursday, April 25, 1782. These eight several appointments of thanksgiving-days were made by the Continental Congress, in the form of recommendations to the executive heads of the several state governments, reciting the occasion which prompted the observance. With only one exception, Congress suspended business on the days appointed for thanksgiving. Washington issued a proclamation for a general thanksgiving by the Continental army on Thursday, Dec. 18, 1777; and again, at Valley Forge, May 7, 1778. As President, Washington appointed Thursday, Nov. 26, 1789, a day for general thanksgiving throughout the Union; also Thursday, Feb. 19, 1795. Successive Presidents of the United States were moved to do likewise, from time to time. The Book of Common Prayer, revised (1789) for the use of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, directs the first Thursday of November (unless another day be appointed by the civil authorities) "to be observed as a day of thanksgiving to Almighty God for the fruits of the earth," etc. In New England, especially, a day of thanksgiving has been annually celebrated for a century and more, and made the occasion for family reunions. The custom gradually extended to other states, and for several years the President of the United States has issued a proclamation for a day of public thanksgiving throughout the Union—usually the last Thursday in November—and the state executives have chosen the same day, so that the custom is now general in all parts of the Republic. Thanksgiving-day is now a legal holiday.

Thanksgiving, FIRST NATIONAL (1789). A few days before the adjournment of Congress (September, 1789), Elias Boudinot, a Representative, moved, in the House, that the President be requested to recommend a day of public thanksgiving and prayer to be observed by the people of the United States, in acknowledgment of the many signal favors of Almighty God, and especially his affording them the opportunity, peaceably, to establish a constitution of government for their safety and happiness. Roger Sherman, of Connecticut, supported the motion. Cavillers were ready to oppose it. Aedanus Burke, of South Carolina, did not like this "mimicking" European customs; and Tucker, of Virginia, intimated that it might be as well to wait for some experience of the effects of the Constitution before returning thanks for it; besides, he thought the question ought to be left to the state authorities. In spite of these objections, the motion was carried, and Washington issued a proclamation accordingly (Oct. 3, 1789), appointing as Thanksgiving-day Nov. 26 succeeding. (See *Thanksgiving-days*.)

Thanksgiving, PROCLAMATION FOR (1863). The friends of the Union felt that in the victory

at Gettysburg the turning-point in the war had been reached; that the victory there and at Vicksburg (which see) were sure prophecies of the ultimate, and perhaps speedy, suppression of the rebellion. The President of the United States, as the representative of the government, in a proclamation (July 15, 1863), recommended the people to set apart the 6th of August to be "observed as a day for national thanksgiving, praise, and prayer" to Almighty God "for the wonderful things he had done in the nation's behalf, and to invoke the influence of his Holy Spirit to subdue the anger which has produced and so long sustained a needless and cruel rebellion; to change the hearts of the insurgents; to guide the councils of the government with wisdom adequate to so great a national emergency; and to visit with tender care and consolation, throughout the length and breadth of our land, all those who, through the vicissitudes of marches, voyages, battles, and sieges, had been brought to suffer in mind, body, or estate; and, finally, to lead the whole nation, through paths of repentance and submission to the Divine Will, back to the perfect enjoyment of union and fraternal peace."

Thatcher, HENRY KNOX, a grandson of General Knox, was born at Thomaston, Me., May 26, 1806. He entered the navy in 1823; was made captain in 1831, and commodore in July, 1862. In 1862-63 he commanded the Mediterranean squadron, and was in command of the steam-frigate *Colorado*, of the North Atlantic squadron, in both attacks on Fort Fisher. He afterwards commanded the West Gulf squadron, and assisted General Canby in the reduction of Mobile. On May 10, 1865, Thatcher received the surrender of the Confederate naval forces at Mobile and on the Alabama River. In July, 1866, he was made rear-admiral, and retired in May, 1868. He died April 5, 1880.

Thayer, SIMEON, was born at Mendon, Mass., April 30, 1737; died at Cumberland, R. I., Oct. 14, 1800. In 1756 he served with the Rhode Island troops in the French and Indian War, and the next year in the Massachusetts line, under Colonel Frye and Rogers the Ranger. He was taken prisoner in 1757 at Fort William Henry. He accompanied Arnold in his famous expedition to Quebec (1775), and was made prisoner; but was exchanged in July, 1777, and was prominent in the defence of Red Bank and Fort Mifflin, where he was major. He was wounded in the battle of Monmouth; served in New Jersey in 1780, and in 1781 retired from the service. He left a *Journal of the Invasion of Canada in 1775*, which was published in 1867.

Thayer, SYLVANUS, LL.D., was born at Braintree, Mass., June 19, 1785; died there, Sept. 7, 1871. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1807 and at West Point in 1808, entering the corps of engineers. He was chief-engineer of Dearborn's army in 1812, and of Hampton's division in 1813. He was chief-engineer in the defence of Norfolk, Va., in 1814. In 1815 he was sent with Colonel McRae to Belgium and France to examine the fortifications there; and from

1817 to 1833 he was superintendent at West Point, and established the academy on its present exalted basis. In 1838 he was made lieutenant-colonel, and from 1833 to 1857 was constructing engineer of the defences of Boston harbor, and temporary chief of the engineer corps from 1857 to 1859. He was commissioned colonel in March, 1863, breveted brigadier-general in May, and resigned June 1.

The Fields, PUBLIC MEETING IN. The space now occupied by the Post-office, City Hall, and City Hall Park, in New York city, was in the outskirts of the town at the middle of the last century, and was called "The Fields." There, after the organization of the Sons of Liberty (1765), public meetings of citizens were held under their direction. The first of these of much note was in the middle of December, 1769, when one thousand four hundred people were gathered there, summoned by a handbill distributed over the city, addressed "to the betrayed inhabitants of the city and colony of New York," and signed "A Son of Liberty." It was inspired by an act of the Provincial Assembly, which provided an indirect method of cheating the people into a compliance with the Mutiny Act and the Quartering Act. It was the issuing of bills of credit, on the security of the province, to the amount of \$700,000, to be loaned to the people, and the interest to be applied to defraying the expenses of, ostensibly, the colonial government, but really for maintaining troops in the province—a monster bank without checks. This money scheme was denounced in the handbill as a covering to wickedness, as a virtual approval of the revenue acts, and that it was intended to distract and divide, and so to weaken, the colonies. It hinted at a corrupt coalition between acting Governor Colden and the powerful James De Lancey, and called upon the Assembly to repudiate the act concocted by this combination. It closed with a summons of the inhabitants to the Fields the next day, Monday, Dec. 17. The people were harangued by young John Lamb, an active Son of Liberty, a prosperous merchant, and vigorous writer. Swayed by his eloquence and logic, the meeting, by unanimous vote, condemned the obnoxious action of the Assembly. They embodied their sentiments in a communication to the Assembly borne by seven leading Sons of Liberty. In that house, where the leaven of Toryism was then working, the handbill was pronounced an "infamous and scandalous libel," and a reward was offered for the author. The frightened printer of the handbill gave the name of Alexander McDougall (afterwards General McDougall). He was indicted for libel, and imprisoned fourteen weeks, when he gave bail. He was arraigned, and for the nature of his answer to the indictment (months afterwards) was again imprisoned, and treated by the patriots as a martyr. In February, 1771, he was released, and this was the end of the drama in "The Fields" begun in December, 1769. (See *Committee of Fifty-one*.)

The Prophet (Elkswatawa), brother of Tecumtha, was born at Piqua, the seat of the

Piqua clan of the Shawnoese, about four miles north of Springfield, O. He was a shrewd deceiver of his people by means of pretended visions and powers of divination. By harangues



THE PROPHET.

he excited the superstition of the Indians; and such became his fame as a "medicine-man," or prophet, that large numbers of men, women, and children of the forest came long distances to see this oracle of the Great Spirit, who they believed could work miracles. His features were ugly. He had lost one eye in his youth, and, owing to dissipation, he appeared much older than his brother Tecumtha. The latter was really an able man, and used this brother as his tool. The Prophet lost the confidence of his people by the events of the battle of Tippecanoe. On

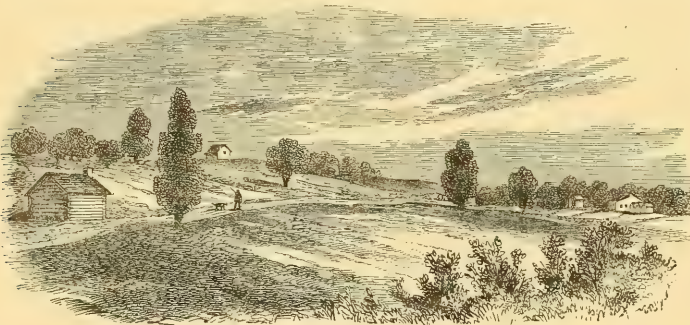
take an oath to exterminate the pale-faces. When this was accomplished the Prophet went through a long series of incantations and mystical movements; then, turning to his highly excited band—about seven hundred in number—he told them that the time to attack the white men had come. "They are in your power," he said, holding up the holy beans as a reminder of their oath. "They sleep now, and will never awake. The Great Spirit will give light to us and darkness to the white men. Their bullets shall not harm us; your weapons shall be always fatal." Then followed war-songs and dances, until the Indians, wrought up to a perfect frenzy, rushed forth to attack Harrison's camp, without any leaders. Stealthily they crept through the long grass of the prairie in the deep gloom, intending to surround their enemy's position, kill the sentinels, rush into the camp, and massacre all. The result of the battle of Tippecanoe (which see) caused the Indians to doubt his inspiration by the Great Spirit. They covered him with reproaches, when he cunningly told them that his predictions concerning the battle had failed because his wife had touched the sacred vessels and broken the charm. Even Indian superstition and credulity could not accept that transparent falsehood for an excuse, and the Prophet was deserted by his disappointed followers and compelled to seek refuge among the Wyandots.

Theatrical Performance, FIRST, IN BOSTON.

In 1750 a tragedy was performed at the British Coffee-house in King Street, Boston, by two young Englishmen, assisted by some young men of the town. The pressure for entrance to the novelty was so great that a disturbance arose, which gave the authorities reason for taking measures for the suppression of such performances. At the next session of the Legislature a law was made prohibiting theatrical entertainments, because, as it was expressed in the preamble, they tended not only "to discourage industry and frugality, but likewise greatly to increase immorality, impiety, and a contempt for religion."

Theatrical Performances, FIRST, IN AMERICA. So early as 1733, there appears to have been a sort of theatrical performance in the city of New York. In October of that year, George Talbot, a merchant, published a notice in *Bradford's Gazette*, directing inquiries to be made at

his store "next door to the Play-house." In 1750 some young Englishmen and Americans got up a coffee-house representation of Otway's *Orphans*. (See *Theatrical Performances, First in Boston*.) Regular theatrical performances were introduced into America soon afterwards, when, in 1752, a company of actors from London, led by William and Lewis Hallam, played a part



BIRTHPLACE OF TECUMTHA AND THE PROPHET.

the evening before the battle the demagogue, surrounded by his dupes, prepared for treachery and murder. He brought out a pretended magic bowl. In one hand he held a "sacred torch," in the other a string of "holy beans," which were accounted miraculous in their effects. His followers were all required to touch this talisman and be made invulnerable, and then to

of them) the *Beaux' Stratagem* at Annapolis. Soon afterwards the whole brought out the play of the *Merchant of Venice* at Williamsburg, Va. The same company afterwards played at Philadelphia, Perth Amboy, New York, and Newport. The laws excluded them from Connecticut and Massachusetts.

Theocracy, A, ESTABLISHED IN MASSACHUSETTS. At the General Court held May 18, 1631, a form of government for Massachusetts was adopted which lasted about fifty years. No man was thereafter to be admitted a freeman—that is, a citizen and voter—unless he were a member of some colonial church. The admission to these churches was so difficult that not one fourth of the population were ever members. The system of government then adopted intimately blended the Church and the State. The magistrates and the General Court, aided by the advice of the Gospel ministers, claimed and exercised supreme control in spiritual as well as in temporal matters, while in matters purely temporal the ministers were always to be consulted.

Theocracy in New England. In 1631 the government of Massachusetts was made a theocracy. In May of that year the General Court decreed that no man should be a "freeman"—a citizen and voter—unless he were a member of some colonial church. To become such was to submit to the most rigid tests of his purity of life and his orthodoxy in religion. The magistrates and General Court were aided by the clergy, and they jointly exercised a supreme control in temporal as well as spiritual matters. The clergy were always consulted in matters purely temporal. They were maintained at the public expense, for which the people were taxed; and by the joint influence of the clergy and magistrates many severe laws were enacted, sumptuary and otherwise. Men were whipped, their ears were cropped, or they were banished, for "slandering the government or the churches, or for writing letters in disparagement of the authorities in Church and State." The system of manners during the reign of this tyrannous theocracy was very austere. Gravity was a sign of holiness; all amusements were proscribed; gayety seemed to be regarded as sin; religious lectures on week-days were so frequent that their attendance imposed a heavy burden on the industry of the people, who went from town to town to hear them. There was a rigid fast in spring, answering to Lent, and a thanksgiving at the close of autumn. The observance of Christmas and other holidays of the Roman Catholic and English churches was denounced, and came to be regarded by the people as idolatrous. Even the eating of mince-pies on Christmas was discontinued. This tyrannous theocracy prevailed in Massachusetts with increasing strength for full fifty years, until the chain was gradually removed by enlightenment. "It seemed like an attempt to establish a vast Puritan monastery, with freedom only in marrying and money-making."

Thirteen United Colonies, THE. This was

the style assumed for the Union on the reassembling of the Continental Congress, Sept. 13, 1775, delegates from Georgia having been admitted and taken their seats. This was the style until the Declaration of Independence, when it was changed to "The United States of America."

Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, THE. In his annual message (Dec. 6, 1864), President Lincoln urged the House of Representatives to concur with the Senate in the adoption of an amendment to the national Constitution for prohibiting slavery in the Republic forever. The Senate had adopted it (April 8, 1864) at the preceding session by a vote of thirty-eight to six. On the 31st of January, 1865, the House adopted the amendment by a vote of one hundred and nineteen against fifty-six. The amendment was first submitted to the Senate by Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, Jan. 11, 1864; subsequently submitted to the action of the several state legislatures; and on Dec. 18, 1865, the Secretary of State officially announced its ratification. The amendment is as follows: "ARTICLE XIII. *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction. *Section 2.* Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation."

Thirty-sixth Congress, THE. The meeting of the Thirty-sixth Congress, in its last session (December, 1860), was looked forward to with deep anxiety by all Americans. The annual message of President Buchanan disappointed the people. It was so timid and indecisive that the friends and foes of the Union spoke lightly of it. It favored the views of the Secessionists to a degree that gave the friends of the Union cause for anxiety, but it fell so much short of the demands of the Secessionists that some of them spoke scornfully. Senator Jefferson Davis spoke of it as having "the characteristics of a diplomatic paper, for diplomacy is said to abhor certainty, as nature abhors a vacuum, and it is not in the power of man to reach any conclusion from that message." Senator Hale, of New Hampshire, said that if he understood the message on the subject of secession, it was this: "South Carolina has just cause for seceding from the Union; that is the first proposition. The second is that she has no right to secede. The third is that we have no right to prevent her from seceding. He goes on to represent that this is a great and powerful country, and that a state has no right to secede from it; but the power of the country, if I understand the President, consists in what Dickens makes the English constitution to be—a power to do nothing at all. . . . He has failed to look the thing in the face. He has acted like the ostrich, which hides her head, and thereby thinks to avoid danger." With no finger-post to guide them to definite action, Congress opened the business of the session. The Attorney-general (Black, of Pennsylvania) had infused

into the message the only portion that pleased the Secessionists—namely, the assertion that the national government possessed no power to coerce a state into submission in case of rebellion. Patriotic men had watched with intense interest for a few weeks the rising waves of rebellion, and instinctively drew the marked line of distinction between Jackson and Buchanan under similar circumstances. In the House of Representatives open declarations of disunion sentiments were made at the beginning. In the Senate also Senator Clingman boldly avowed the intention of the slave-labor states to revolt. "I tell those gentlemen [his political opponents] in perfect frankness that, in my judgment, not only will a number of states secede in the next sixty days, but some of the other states are holding on merely to see if proper guarantees can be obtained. We have in North Carolina only two considerable parties: the absolute submissionists are too small to be called a party." After demanding "guarantees" and "concessions," he broadly intimated that no concessions would satisfy the South; that a dissolution of the Union was at hand. He was opposed to free debate on the subject, and said that a senator from Texas had told him that a good many free debaters "were hanging up by the trees in that country." The venerable Senator Crittenden, of Kentucky, arose and rebuked Clingman, and said: "I rise here to express the hope, and that alone, that the bad example of the gentleman will not be followed." He also expressed the hope that there was not a senator present who was not willing to yield and compromise much for the sake of the government and the Union." Mr. Crittenden's mild rebuke and earnest appeal to the patriotism of the Senate were met by more scornful words from other senators, in which the speakers seemed to emulate each other in the utterance of seditious words. Senator Hale replied with stinging words to Clingman's remarks, which aroused the anger of the Secessionists. He had said, "The plain, true way is to look this thing in the face—see where we are." The disunionists thought so too, and cast off all disguise, especially Senator Iverson, of Georgia, and Wigfall, of Texas. The former answered that the slave-labor states intended to revolt. "We intend to go out of this Union," he said. "I speak what I believe, that, before the 4th of March, five of the Southern States will have declared their independence." He referred to the patriotic governor of Texas (Houston) as a hindrance to the secession of that state, and expressed a hope that "some Texan Brutus will arise to rid his country of the hoary-headed incubus that stands between the people and their sovereign will." He said that in the next twelve months there would be a confederacy of Southern States, with a government in operation, of "the greatest prosperity and power that the world has ever seen." He declared that if war should ensue the South would "welcome" the North "with bloody hands to hospitable graves." Wigfall uttered similar sentiments in a coarser manner, declaring that cotton was king. "You dare not make war on

cotton," he exclaimed; "no power on earth dare make war on cotton." He said South Carolina was about to secede, and that she would send a minister plenipotentiary to the United States, and when his credentials should be denied she would "assert the sovereignty of her soil, and it will be maintained at the point of the bayonet." In the House of Representatives Secessionists were equally bold. When Mr. Boteler, of Virginia, proposed by resolution to refer so much of the President's message as related to the great question before the House to a committee of one from each state (thirty-three), the members from the slave-labor states refused to vote. "I do not vote," said Singleton, of Mississippi, "because I have not been sent here to make any compromise or patch up existing difficulties. The subject will be decided by a convention of the people of my state." They all virtually avowed their determination to thwart all legislation in the direction of compromise or conciliation. The motion for the committee of thirty-three was adopted, and it became the recipient of a large number of suggestions, resolutions, and propositions offered in the House for amendments to the Constitution, most of them looking to concessions to the demands of the slave interest. There was such an earnest desire for peace that the people of the free-labor states were ready to make all reasonable sacrifices for its sake. In the Senate a committee of thirteen was appointed to consider the condition of the country and report some plan, by amendments to the Constitution or otherwise, for its pacification. Senator Crittenden offered a series of amendments and joint resolutions. These did not meet with favor on either side. On receiving news of the passage of the ordinance of secession by South Carolina, her two remaining representatives (Boyce and Ashmun) left the House of Representatives and returned home. Early in January the proceedings of a secret caucus of Southern members of Congress was revealed, which showed that they should remain in Congress until its close to prevent means being adopted by the government for its own security, and that the movements in the South were principally directed by secession members in Congress. These revelations astonished and alarmed the people, for the President, in a message on Jan. 8, 1861, had uttered a sort of cry of despair. The disunionists in Congress became more and more bold and defiant. Senator Toombs, of Georgia, declared himself a rebel. The two great committees labored in vain. Towards the middle of January, Hunter, of Virginia, and Seward, of New York, in able speeches, foreshadowed the determination of the Secessionists and the Unionists. During January the disloyal members of Congress began to withdraw, and early in February, 1861, the national Legislature had heard the last disloyal word spoken, for the Secessionists had left. Thenceforward, to the end of the session (March 4, 1861), Union men were left free to act in Congress in the preparation of measures for the salvation of the Republic. The proceedings of the Thirty-sixth Congress had revealed to the coun-

try its great peril, and action was taken accordingly.

Thomas, GEORGE HENRY, was born in Southampton County, Va., July 31, 1816; died in San Francisco, Cal., March 28, 1870. He graduated at West Point in 1840, and entered the Artillery. He served in the Seminole War; was with Gen-



GEORGE HENRY THOMAS.

eral Taylor in the war against Mexico; and again fought the Seminoles in Florida in 1849-50. From 1851 to 1854 he was Instructor of Artillery at West Point, and was made major of cavalry in May, 1855. From 1856 to 1860 he served in Texas, and in a fight with Indians near the Brazos River was wounded. He was made colonel of the Fifth Cavalry (Colonel Robert E. Lee's regiment) in May, 1861; and, having served in the vicinity of the Upper Potomac a while, was made brigadier-general of volunteers in August. From November, 1861, till March, 1862, he commanded a division of the Army of the Ohio, defeating the Confederates in the battle of Mill Spring (which see) in January. At Corinth, Miss. (which see), he commanded the right wing of the Army of the Tennessee, and was second in command of the Army of the Ohio at Perryville in October. For nearly a year from November, 1862, he commanded the Fourteenth Corps of the Army of the Cumberland, doing eminent service in the battles of Stone's River and Chickamauga (which see). In October, 1863, he was placed in command of the Department and Army of the Cumberland, and was made brigadier-general United States Army. He was in the battle of Missionaries' Ridge (which see), and did signal service in the Atlanta campaign, when he took post at Nashville and defended Tennessee against the invasion of Hood. (See *Franklin, Battle of*, and *Nashville, Battle of*.) For this service he was made major-general in the United States Army and received the thanks of Congress, and from the Legislature of Tennessee thanks and a gold medal. In February, 1868, he was offered the brevet of lieutenant-general by President Johnson, but he declined to receive it. General Thomas's father was of Welsh descent, and his mother was descended from a Huguenot. On Nov. 19,

1879, an exquisitely wrought equestrian statue of General Thomas, in design and execution, by J. Q. A. Ward, was unveiled at the national capital, with very imposing ceremonies—such as had never been seen there before.

Thomas, ISAIAH, LL.D., printer and author, was born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 19, 1749; died at Worcester, Mass., April 4, 1831. He was apprenticed to a printer seven years, and started business for himself in Newburyport, Mass., when he was eighteen years of age. In 1770 he transferred his printing establishment to Boston, and on July 17, 1771, began the publication of the *Massachusetts Spy*, which became the champion of the colonies contending for right and justice. The government tried to suppress it, but in vain. After the skirmish at Lexington (April 19, 1775) he transferred his printing establishment to Worcester, where he continued to publish the *Spy* until 1801, when it was continued by his son from that time until 1819. Enterprising in business, he established a book-store in Boston in 1788 with Mr. Andrews, and they established branches of their publishing business in various places. They published the *Massachusetts Magazine* from 1789 to 1796, and the *New England Almanac* forty-two years—from 1775. For many years the Bibles and school-books used in the English colonies, and in the States afterwards, were issued from Thomas's press at Worcester. He printed several editions of the Bible. In 1791 he issued a folio edition, with copperplates, and another, in quarto, with a concordance; in 1793 an edition in octavo; and in 1797 another in duodecimo. Thomas says Isaac Collins printed, at Trenton, N. J. (where he was state printer), "a handsome and very correct octavo edition of the Bible." Collins also printed a quarto edition. (See *Bible, First Editions of the, Printed in the United States*.) In 1812 Mr. Thomas founded the "American Antiquarian Society," at Worcester; provided a building for its use on his grounds; gave it between seven and eight thousand books and a most valuable series of newspapers; and bequeathed to it the land on which the hall was built. He also made a provision for the maintenance of the library and museum equal to about \$24,000. Mr. Thomas wrote and published (1810) a valuable *History of Printing*. A revised edition was recently published.

Thomas, JOHN, was born at Marshfield, Mass., in 1725; died at Chambly, Canada, June 2, 1776. He was a practising physician, and was surgeon in the Provincial army sent to Nova Scotia in 1746. In 1747 he was on Shirley's medical staff, and in 1759 he became colonel of a Provincial regiment. He commanded a regiment under Amherst and Haviland in 1760 in the capture of Montreal. Colonel Thomas was one of the most active Sons of Liberty in Massachusetts; was appointed brigadier-general by Congress in 1775; commanded a brigade during the siege of Boston (see *Siege of Boston*); and after the evacuation was sent to take command of the American troops in Canada. He joined the

army before Quebec May 1, 1776, and found the small-pox raging among the troops, of which disease he died.

Thomas, LORENZO, was born at New Castle, Del., Oct. 26, 1804; died in Washington, D. C., March 2, 1875. He graduated at West Point in 1823; served in the Seminole War and in the war with Mexico; and in May, 1861, was made adjutant-general, with the rank of brigadier-general, which office he held throughout the Civil War. In 1863 he successfully organized troops in the West. He resigned Feb. 2, 1869.

Thompson, EGBERT, was born in New York, June 10, 1822, and entered the navy in 1837. He was attached to the South Sea Exploring Expedition (which see), and was in all the operations of the home squadron in the war with Mexico. In the attacks on Fort Donelson (which see) and Island Number Ten he commanded one of the iron-clad gunboats; also in the attack on Confederate "rams" near Fort Pillow. He commanded the steamer *Commodore Macdonough* in the South Pacific squadron in 1866-67.

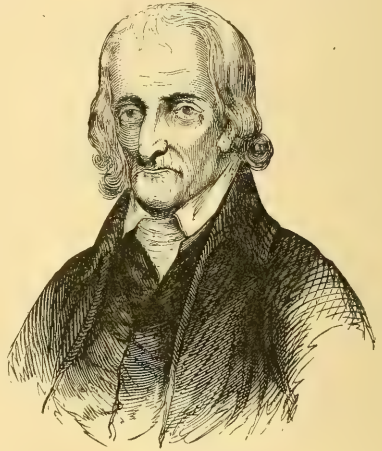
Thompson, JACOB, was born in Caswell County, N. C., May 15, 1810, and graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1831. Admitted to the bar in 1834, he began the practice of law in Chickasaw County, Miss., in 1835. He was elected to Congress in 1839, and remained in that body until 1851. For several years he was Chairman of the Committee on Indian Affairs, and he defended his adopted state when she repudiated her bonds. He was vehemently pro-slavery in his feelings, and was one of the most active disunionists in his state many years before the Civil War. He was Secretary of the Interior under President Buchanan, but resigned the office Jan. 7, 1861, and entered warmly into the disunion movements that ensued. He was Governor of Mississippi from 1862 to 1864, and was an officer in the Confederate service. (See *Indian Trust Fund, Robbery of the.*)

Thompson, SIR BENJAMIN. (See *Rumford, Count.*)

Thompson, WILLIAM, was born in Ireland; died near Carlisle, Penn., Sept. 4, 1781. He served as captain of Horse in the French and Indian War, and after the affair at Lexington he marched to Cambridge as colonel of a regiment of riflemen. He was made brigadier-general in March, 1776, and succeeded Lee in command at New York. In April he was ordered to reinforce Sullivan in Canada, and there had an unfortunate engagement at Three Rivers (which see), where he was made prisoner. He was not exchanged for two years, though allowed to go to Philadelphia on parole.

Thomson, CHARLES, LL.D., Permanent Secretary of the Continental Congress, was born at Derry, Ireland, Nov. 29, 1729; died at Lower Merion, Penn., Aug. 16, 1824. He landed at New Castle, Del., with his three sisters in 1741, and by industry they thrived. Charles was educated by the famous Dr. Allison, and became teacher in the Friends' school at New Castle.

Afterwards making his home in Philadelphia, he was favored with the friendship of Dr. Franklin, and, taking an interest in the labors in behalf of the Indians by the Friendly Asso-



CHARLES THOMSON.

ciation (which see), he attended Indian treaties. The Delawares adopted him with a name which signified "one who speaks the truth." As he was alighting from a carriage in Philadelphia with his Quaker bride—the possessor of a handsome fortune—a messenger came to him from the Continental Congress, just assembled, saying, "They want you at Carpenters' Hall to keep the minutes of their proceedings, as you are very expert at that business." Thomson complied, and he served in that capacity almost fifteen years. He was a thorough patriot, and held the respect and confidence of all his associates. He had married, at the age of forty-five, Hannah Harrison, aunt of President Harrison. Thomson was an excellent classical scholar, and made a translation of the Old and New Testaments. He had gathered much material for a history of the Revolution, but it was never used. He destroyed it.

Thornton, MATTHEW, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Ireland in 1714; died at Newburyport, Mass., June 24, 1803. In early life he came to America, was educated at Worcester, and became a physician in New Hampshire. He was in Pepperell's expedition against Louisburg in 1745 as a surgeon; presided over the New Hampshire Provincial Convention in 1775; and was a short time a delegate to the Continental Congress, taking his seat in November, 1776, when he signed the great declaration. He was made Chief-justice of the County of Hillsborough, and Judge of the Supreme Court of the state. He was in both branches of the Legislature, and in the Council in 1785.

Three Compromises of the Constitution. Compromises seemed necessary to secure a majority vote for the national Constitution. These were—first, the concession to the smaller states of an equal representation in the Senate; sec-

ond, to the slaveholders the counting of three fifths of the slaves in determining the ratio of representation; and, third, the concession to the South Carolina rice-planters of twenty years' continuance of the African slave-trade as an equivalent for the unrestricted power of Congress to enact navigation laws that would favor Northern merchants. Fortunately for humanity, the term for perpetuating the slave-trade was restricted to twenty years. (See *Records of the Federal Convention*.)

Three Rivers, BATTLE OF. When a large British and German force began to arrive in the St. Lawrence (May, 1776) the Americans retreated up the river to the mouth of the Sorel. A British force took post at Three Rivers. General Sullivan sent General Thompson with Pennsylvania troops, led by St. Clair, Wayne, and Irvine, to attack the British there. Thompson was badly beaten, and he and Irvine, with one hundred and fifty private soldiers, were made prisoners. This disaster discouraged Sullivan, and he was compelled to abandon Canada.

Threshing-machines have almost entirely superseded the use of the flail in the United States. At the Paris Exhibition in 1855 the comparison was made between the work of a flail and Pitt's American threshing-machine. In an hour six men with flails threshed thirty-six litres of wheat. In the same time the threshing-machine threshed out seven hundred and forty litres. A litre is about two and one ninth pints wine measure. Threshing-machines were rare in the United States until 1835, when American inventors made great improvements in their construction, and their use rapidly increased. At first nothing was accomplished but simple "threshing." Then came an invention for "separating;" and this was followed by an apparatus for "cleaning." Now the grain may be threshed and prepared for market by a single operation. Both horse and steam power are used for the purpose, and the saving of labor is marvellous. Steam-power machines were made in 1891 which were capable of threshing and cleaning 3000 bushels of grain in a day. In the manufacture of threshing-machines the United States leads the world, both as regards number and quality.

Ticonderoga, CAPTURE OF (1759). Pitt conceived a magnificent plan for the campaign of 1759, the principal feature of which was the conquest of all Canada, and so ending the puissance of France in America. Abercrombie, who had been unsuccessful, was superseded by General Sir Jeffrey Amherst in the command of the British forces in America in the spring of 1759. The new commander found twenty thousand Provincial troops at his disposal. A competent land and naval force was sent from England to co-operate with the Americans. The plan of operations against Canada was similar to that of Phipps and Winthrop in 1690. A powerful land and naval force, under General James Wolfe, were to ascend the St. Lawrence and attack Quebec. Another force, under Amherst,

was to drive the French from Lake Champlain, seize Montreal, and join Wolfe at Quebec; and a third expedition, under General Prideaux, was to capture Fort Niagara, and then hasten down Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence to Montreal. Amherst appeared before Ticonderoga (July 22, 1759) with about eleven thousand men. The French commander had just heard, by Indian runners, of the arrival of Wolfe before Quebec (June 27), and immediately prepared to obey a summons to surrender. The garrison left their outer lines on the 23d and retired within the fort, and three days afterwards, without offering any resistance, they abandoned that also, partially demolished it, and fled to Crown Point. That, too, they abandoned, and fled down the lake to the Isle au Noix, in the Sorel. Amherst pursued them only to Crown Point. (See *Fort Ticonderoga, Capture of, 1775*.)

Ticonderoga, EVACUATION OF (1777). With about 7000 men, Lieutenant-general Burgoyne left St. Johns, on the Sorel, in vessels, and moved up Lake Champlain. His army was composed of British and German regulars, Canadians and Indians. The Germans were led by Major-general Baron de Riedesel, and Burgoyne's chief lieutenants were Major-general Phillips and Brigadier-general Fraser. The invading army (a part of it on land) reached Crown Point, June 26, and menaced Ticonderoga, where General St. Clair was in command. The garrison there, and at Mount Independence opposite, did not number in the aggregate more than 3500 men, and not more than one in ten had a bayonet; while the invaders numbered between 8000 and 9000, including a reinforcement of Indians, Tories, and a splendid train of artillery. There were strong outposts around Ticonderoga, but St. Clair had not men enough to man them. On the 29th of June, Burgoyne issued a grandiloquent proclamation to the people, and on July 1 moved against the fort. He secured important points near it, and finally planted a battery on a hill 700 feet above the fort, since known as Mount Defiance. The battery there made Ticonderoga absolutely untenable, and a council of war determined to evacuate it. On the evening of July 5, invalids, stores, and baggage were sent off in boats to Skenesborough (now Whitehall); and at two o'clock on the morning of the 6th, the troops left the fort silently, and withdrew to Mount Independence across a bridge of boats. Thence they began a flight southwards through the forests of Vermont before daylight. The movement was discovered by the British by the light of a building set on fire on Mount Independence, and pursuit was immediately begun. (See *Hubbardton, Battle at*.) The Americans lost at Ticonderoga a large amount of military stores and provisions, and nearly two hundred pieces of artillery.

Ticonderoga, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1758). In the summer of 1758 the Marquis de Montcalm occupied the fortress of Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, with about 4000 men, French and Indians. General Abercrombie personally commanded the expedition designed to capture this

fortress, and at the beginning of July he had assembled at the head of Lake George about 7000 regulars, nearly 9000 provincials, and a heavy train of artillery. Viscount George Augustus Howe, Colonel of the Sixtieth (Royal American) Regiment, and then a brigadier-general, was Abercrombie's second in command. Howe was then thirty-four years of age, a skilful soldier, and greatly beloved by his men. The army moved (Sunday, July 5) down the lake in 900 bateaux and 125 whale-boats, and spent the night at a place yet known (as then named) as Sabbath-day Point. At dawn they landed at the foot of the lake, about four miles from Ticonderoga. The whole country was covered with a dense forest, and tangled morasses lay in the way of the English. Led by incompetent guides, they were soon bewildered; and while in that condition the right column, led by Lord Howe, was suddenly attacked by a small French force. A sharp skirmish ensued. The French were repulsed with a loss of 148 men made prisoners. At the first fire Lord Howe was killed, when the greater part of the troops fell back in confusion to the landing-place. From the prisoners Abercrombie learned that a reinforcement for Montcalm was approaching. He was also told of the strength of the garrison and the condition of the fortress; but the information, false and deceptive, induced him to press forward to make an immediate attack on the fort without his artillery. This was a fatal mistake. The outer works were easily taken, but the others were guarded by abatis and thoroughly manned. Abercrombie ordered his troops to scale the works in the face of the enemy's fire (July 8), when they were met by insuperable obstacles. After a bloody conflict of four hours, the assailants were compelled to fall back to Lake George, leaving about 2000 men dead or wounded in the forest. Abercrombie then hastened to his camp at the head of the lake. The loss of the French was inconsiderable.

Ticonderoga, LINCOLN'S ATTEMPT TO RECOVER. While Burgoyne was pressing down the valley of the Upper Hudson towards Albany, General Lincoln, in command of troops eastward of that river, attempted to recover Ticonderoga and other posts in the rear of the invaders. On Sept. 13 (1777) he detailed Colonel John Brown with 500 men for the purpose. Brown landed at the foot of Lake George, and by quick movements surprised all the posts between that point and Fort Ticonderoga, four miles distant. He took possession of Mount Defiance and Mount Hope, the old French lines, 200 bateaux, several gunboats, an armed sloop with 290 prisoners, besides releasing 100 American prisoners. He then proceeded to attempt the capture of Ticonderoga and Mount Independence opposite, but it was found impracticable, and Brown abandoned the enterprise and rejoined Lincoln.

Tilghman, TENCH, was born in Baltimore in 1744; died there April 18, 1786. Before the Revolution he was a merchant. He was one of Mercer's Flying Camp (which see) as captain of a company of Philadelphia light infan-

try. In August, 1776, he became Washington's aid and confidential secretary, and remained in that position until the close of the war, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel after April, 1777. He was thoroughly patriotic, and much of the time while with Washington for five years he refused pay for his services. He was in every action in which the main army was concerned. He was chosen by Washington to bear to Congress at Philadelphia despatches announcing the surrender of Cornwallis. In a letter to General Sullivan in Congress (May 11, 1781), he had highly commended Tilghman as deserving of great consideration.

Timby, THEODORE R., inventor, was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., in 1822. He conceived the idea of a revolving turret for military purposes when he was a lad. At the age of nineteen he made a model, and at the beginning of 1843, Mr. Timby, not quite twenty-one years of age, filed his first caveat in the United States Patent Office. He obtained other patents for improvements, and received for his invention the official sanction of the national government several years before the time when Captain Coles, of the British Navy, claims to have invented the turret. When the Civil War broke out, Mr. Timby perfected his invention and obtained a fifth patent—a broad one—for it was for “a revolving tower for offensive or defensive warfare, whether used on land or water.” The constructors of “monitors,” after the affray with the *Merrimac*, recognized the validity of Mr. Timby's claim, and paid him a liberal sum for the right to use his invention.

Tingey, THOMAS, Commodore, United States Navy, was born in England in 1750; died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 25, 1829. He was appointed captain in 1798, commanded the *Ganges* in 1799, and captured many French vessels. He was in the naval service fifty years, twenty-eight of which he was in command of the navy-yard at Washington. (See *Washington, Capture of*.)

Tippecanoe, BATTLE OF THE. In the summer of 1811, the followers of Tecumtha and his brother showing signs of hostility, the governor of Indiana suggested to the government the propriety of establishing a military post high up the Wabash. The government proposed the seizure of Tecumtha and his brother as hostages for peace. A regiment under Colonel John Boyd, stationed at Pittsburgh, was ordered to repair to Vincennes to be placed under Harrison's command, and the latter was authorized, should the Indians begin hostilities, to call out the militia. Harrison agreed with the people of Vincennes that decisive measures should be taken at once. Tecumtha had gone south, and it was evident that his brother, the Prophet, was stirring up the Indians to war. Harrison, with Boyd's regiment, 300 strong, and 500 militia partly from Kentucky, including two or three mounted companies, went up the Wabash about sixty miles to Terre Haute, and near there established a post called Fort Harrison. Thence he sent Delaware chiefs on a mission to the Prophet, who

treated them with scorn. The troops pressed forward, and on the 6th of November (1811) they encamped within three miles of the Prophet's town. For more than a day they had discerned savages hanging on their flanks, for the Prophet had become aware of their approach. Harrison arranged his camp in the form of an irregular parallelogram, having on its front a battalion of United States Infantry under Major G. R. C. Floyd, flanked on the left by one company, and on the right by two companies, of Indiana militia under Colonel J. Bartholomew. In the rear was a battalion of United States Infantry under Captain W. C. Baen, acting as major, with Captain R. C. Barton, of the regulars, in immediate command. These were supported on the right by four companies of Indiana militia, led respectively by Captains Suelling, Posey, Scott, and Warriek, the whole commanded by Lieutenant-

tinguished. A desperate fight ensued. Nineteen twentieths of the troops had never seen a battle. The combat soon extended to almost the whole square. The Indians advanced and retreated several times until, after daylight, they were attacked and dispersed by the mounted men, leaving forty of their dead on the field. Harrison's loss was upwards of sixty killed, and twice as many wounded. The mounted men rode to the Prophet's town and found it entirely deserted. They had left much that was valuable behind. The town was burned, and Harrison deemed it prudent to make a speedy retreat, encumbered as he was with the wounded. He destroyed much of the baggage of the army to afford transportation to the wounded, and fell back to Vincennes. This battle of Tippecanoe gave Harrison a decided military reputation. The battle-ground is close by Battle Ground



TIPPECANOE BATTLE-GROUND IN 1860.

colonel L. Decker. The right flank, eighty yards wide, was filled with mounted riflemen under Captain Spencer. The left, about one hundred and fifty yards in extent, was composed of mounted riflemen under Major-general S. Wells, and led by Colonels F. Geiger and David Robb. Two troops of dragoons under Colonel J. H. Daviess, were stationed in the rear of the first line, and at a right-angle with those companies was a troop of cavalry as a reserve, under Captain B. Parke. In the centre were the wagons, baggage, officers' tents, etc. Having supped, Harrison gave instructions to the several officers, and very soon the whole camp, excepting the sentinels on duty, were soundly slumbering. There was a slight drizzle of rain, and the darkness was intense. In the camp of the Prophet all were awake, prepared to execute his orders, and after midnight (Nov. 7, 1811) the warriors crept through the prairie grass, and with horrid yells fell upon Harrison's camp. The whole camp was soon awakened, and their fires were ex-

tinguished. A desperate fight ensued. Nineteen twentieths of the troops had never seen a battle. The combat soon extended to almost the whole square. The Indians advanced and retreated several times until, after daylight, they were attacked and dispersed by the mounted men, leaving forty of their dead on the field. Harrison's loss was upwards of sixty killed, and twice as many wounded. The mounted men rode to the Prophet's town and found it entirely deserted. They had left much that was valuable behind. The town was burned, and Harrison deemed it prudent to make a speedy retreat, encumbered as he was with the wounded. He destroyed much of the baggage of the army to afford transportation to the wounded, and fell back to Vincennes. This battle of Tippecanoe gave Harrison a decided military reputation. The battle-ground is close by Battle Ground

Titles of Nobility. In the new Naturalization Bill was a clause prohibiting the use of a title of nobility by an alien after he should become a citizen of the United States. This provision was first suggested by Giles, of Virginia. The New England Federalists ridiculed it, and it became a subject of warm debate in Congress. They argued that a title was harmless, and that to refuse it might seem churlish, especially to require its renunciation by an unhappy exile. "The very judge," they said, "who administered the oath or pledge to such a naturalized citizen

might the next moment address him as 'marquis,' 'count,' or 'my lord,' and who could prevent it? . . . Why not require him to renounce his connection with the Jacobin Club, if he should be a member of it?" asked a New England member. "Why not require him to renounce the pope?" Priestcraft, he thought, was quite as dangerous as aristocracy. Giles, who had called for the yeas and nays, placed these New-Englanders in a dilemma in which they must vote for his proposition or be numbered among the friends of aristocracy—then a very unpopular position. To force Giles to abandon his call for the yeas and nays, Dexter, of Massachusetts, moved as an additional amendment that in case the applicant for citizenship were a slaveholder, he should renounce, along with his titles of nobility, all his claim, right, and title as an owner of slaves. This motion produced an intense excitement among the Southern members. It was declared to be an indirect attack upon the Constitution and those who held slaves. Another said it would wound the feelings and alienate the affections of six or eight states of the Union. The motion had its intended effect. Giles, who saw the awkwardness of voting against titles of nobility and in favor of slaveholding in the same breath, professed his readiness to give up the yeas and nays. Holding slaves to be as sacred property as any other, he would never consent to prohibit immigrants from holding slaves. Titles of nobility were but names, and nobody was obliged to give them up unless he wished to become an American citizen. It was argued by Lee, of Virginia, that, as the cause of the obnoxious provision was the fear of harboring among us a class who, because of the nature of their education, their habits of assumed superiority, the servile court they had uniformly received, could not make good citizens of a free republic, the same reasoning applied to the existing relations of superiority and servility between master and slave would prove the Southern slaveholder to be unfit for an American citizen—a relation really more objectionable than that of lord and vassal. The vote in favor of the renunciation of the use of titles was carried, fifty-eight to thirty-two.

Tlascalans. Cortez, in his march towards the city of Mexico, came to the province of Tlascala. He resolved to pass through it, for he believed great treasures awaited him at the palace of Montezuma, who had sent an order to him to depart out of his domain, which, like other orders from the emperor, had been accompanied by rich presents. "Truly, this is a great monarch and rich," said Cortez; "with the permission of God, we must see him." Approaching near the confines of Tlascala, Cortez met 5000 of their warriors to fight his 500 foot-soldiers, fifteen horsemen, and six field-pieces. The Tlascalans were in ambush. The field-pieces did terrible execution. The Tlascalans were slaughtered by scores, when the garrison surrendered themselves as vassals of the crown of Castile and engaged to become allies of Cortez in all his future operations in Mexico. He entered their chief city, Sept. 23, 1519, and took the province

under his protection. With several thousand of these new allies, Cortez resumed his march on Mexico.

Tobacco, a plant so called by the natives of Hayti, or Santo Domingo. It played an important part in the early history of Virginia, and was found there under cultivation by the natives by the first adventurers sent by Raleigh, and by them introduced into England, where its use rapidly increased. When the English became seated at Jamestown, they began its cultivation, and it soon became the staple agricultural product of the colony, and their chief source of revenue. Within less than ten years it became the standard currency of the colonies, by the price of which values were regulated. The standard price was about sixty-six cents a pound. For the seven years ending in 1621, the annual exportation of tobacco to England from Virginia averaged about 143,000 pounds. King James tried to suppress its inordinate use, and wrote *A Counter-blast to Tobacco*; and in May, 1621, Parliament passed a bill for that purpose, by which no tobacco was allowed to be imported into England except from Virginia and the Somers Isles (Bermudas), and none was allowed to be planted in England. It was also subject to a crown duty of sixpence per pound. In 1624 the king forbade by proclamation its cultivation except in Virginia and the Somers Isles. Finally, by relaxing restrictions, it became a source of large revenue to England, amounting in 1676 to \$775,000. It was afterwards cultivated in other English-American colonies, and at the middle of the last century there were exported to England in three years 40,000,000 pounds, of which about one half was re-exported and the remainder consumed in England. In 1870 the tobacco crop in the United States was nearly 263,000,000 pounds. The amount exported in 1875 was 224,000,000 pounds. In 1888 there were in the United States 747,326 acres of tobacco under cultivation, producing over 565,000,000 pounds—or more than double the product of 1870. The value of the tobacco crop that year was nearly \$44,000,000.

Tobacco, FIRST, IN ENGLAND. Ralph Lane (which see) and his companions, who went back to England from Virginia with Sir Francis Drake, carried with them the first tobacco seen in that country. Sir Walter Raleigh introduced it to the queen and nobility. (See *Raleigh, Walter, and Elizabeth, Queen of England.*)

Tobacco-plant Cutters. In 1680 tobacco had fallen in price to a penny a pound, and the colonists were not able to buy common necessities. They petitioned for permission to resort to an old plan for reducing production and so raising the price by a cessation of crops for a year or two. The inhabitants of several counties signed a petition to the governor to call a special session of the Assembly for that purpose. The governor, alarmed by symptoms of a new rebellion, did so (April 18); but that body proceeded no further than to petition the king to order a "stint," or "cessation," in Virginia, Maryland, and Carolina. The disappointed planters assembled, and in a riotous manner

cut up the tobacco-plants extensively. They were prosecuted. Several of them were found guilty, and, under advice from England, some of them were executed—not for the act of cutting the plants alone, but for a violation of a Colonial act which pronounced the assembling of eight or more persons to destroy crops of any kind to be high-treason.

Todd, CHARLES SCOTT, was born near Danville, Ky., Jan. 22, 1791; died at Baton Rouge, La., May 17, 1871. He graduated at William and Mary College in 1809. He was a subaltern and judge-advocate of Winchester's division of Ken-



CHARLES SCOTT TODD.

tucky volunteers in 1812; was made captain of infantry in May, 1813; and was aid to General Harrison in the battle of the Thames (which see). In March, 1815, he was made inspector-general, with the rank of colonel; and in 1817 was Secretary of State of Kentucky. In 1820 he was confidential agent to Colombia, and from 1841 to 1845 he was United States Minister to Russia.

Tohopeka (or Horseshoe Bend), BATTLE AT. In February, 1814, troops from East Tennessee were on the march to reinforce Jackson for the purpose of striking a finishing blow at the power of the Creek Indians. About two thousand of them pressed towards the Coosa, and at the same time a similar number from West Tennessee were making their way into Alabama. Colonel Williams, with 600 regulars, reached Fort Strother on Feb. 6. Other troops soon joined them, and the Choctaw Indians openly espoused the cause of the United States. At the close of February Jackson found himself at the head of 5000 men. Supplies were gathered, and at the middle of March the troops were ready to move. Meanwhile the Creeks, from experience, had such premonitions of disaster that they concentrated their forces at the bend of the Tallapoosa

River, in the northeast part of Tallapoosa County, Ala., at a place called Tohopeka, or Horseshoe Bend, a peninsula containing about one hundred acres of land. White men from Pensacola and half-bloods hostile to the United States aided them in building a strong breastwork of logs across the neck of the peninsula. They pierced it with two rows of port-holes, arranged in such a manner as to expose the assailants to a cross-fire from within. Back of this was a mass of logs and brush; and at the foot of the peninsula, near the river, was a village of log huts, where hundreds of canoes were moored, so that the garrison might have the means for escape if hard pushed. They had an ample supply of food for a long siege. They were about twelve hundred in number, one fourth being women and children. There the Indians determined to defend themselves to the last extremity. To this stronghold Jackson marched, sending his stores down the Coosa in flatboats; and on the morning of March 27 he halted within a few miles of the breastworks at Tohopeka. His spies soon informed him of the position of the Indians. He sent General Coffee, with all the mounted men and friendly Indians, to cross the river two miles below and take position opposite the village at the foot of the peninsula. Then he pressed forward and planted two cannons within eighty yards of the breastworks on the neck, and opened fire upon them. As the small balls were buried in the logs and earth the Indians sent up a shout of derision and defied their assailants. Coffee, with some Cherokees, swam across the river and seized the boats, with which quite a body of troops were enabled to cross at once. These burned the Indian village and approached the enemy in their rear, but were too few to dislodge the barbarians. Meanwhile Jackson had been vainly battering the works on the neck with cannon-balls, and he proceeded to storm them. In the face of a tempest of bullets they pressed forward. The leader of the storming-party (Major L. P. Montgomery) leaped upon the breastworks and called upon his men to follow. He was shot dead, when Ensign Sam Houston (afterwards conqueror and President of Texas, United States Senator, etc.), who was wounded in the thigh by a barbed arrow, leaped down among the Indians and called upon his companions to follow. They did so, and fought like tigers. Their dexterous use of the bayonet caused the Indians to break their line and flee in wild confusion to the woods that covered the peninsula. Believing torture awaited every captive, not one of them would suffer himself to be taken or ask for quarter. Some attempted to escape by swimming across the river, but were shot by Tennessee sharpshooters. Others secreted themselves in thickets, and were driven out and slain; and a considerable number took refuge under the river bluffs, where they were covered by a part of the breastworks and felled trees. To the latter Jackson sent a messenger, telling them their lives should be spared if they would surrender. He was fired upon. A cannon brought to bear upon the stronghold effect-

ed little. Then the general called for volunteers to storm it, and wounded Ensign Houston was the first to step out. Nothing could be effected until the torch was applied; and as the barbarians rushed out from the flames they were shot down without mercy. The carnage continued until late in the evening; and when it ended 557 Creek warriors lay dead on the peninsula. Of the one thousand who went into the battle in the morning, not more than two hundred were alive, and many of these were severely wounded. Jackson lost 32 killed and 99 wounded. The Cherokees lost 18 killed and 36 wounded. The spoils of victory were 300 widows and orphans made prisoners. This blow broke the proud spirit of the Creeks, and they had no heart to make a stand anywhere else.

Toleration Act of Maryland. The General Assembly of Maryland, convened at St. Mary's (April 2, 1649), after enacting severe punishments for the crime of blasphemy, and declaring that certain penalties should be inflicted upon any one who should call another a sectarian name of reproach, adopted the declaration that "whereas the enforcing of conscience in matters of religion hath frequently fallen out to be of dangerous consequence in those commonwealths where it has been practised, and for the more quiet and peaceable government of this province, and the better to preserve mutual love and unity among the inhabitants, . . . no person or persons whatsoever within this province, or the islands, posts, harbors, creeks, or havens thereunto belonging, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, shall from henceforth be any ways troubled or molested or discountenanced for or in respect of his or her religion, nor in the free exercise thereof, within the province or the islands thereunto belonging, nor any way compelled to the belief or exercise of any other religion against his or her conscience." This was an outgrowth of English statutes. On the 27th of October, 1645, the English House of Commons ordered "that the inhabitants of the Bermudas, and of all other American plantations now or hereafter planted, should, without molestation or trouble, have and enjoy the liberty of conscience in matters of God's worship." In 1647 Parliament passed another act, allowing all persons to meet for religious duties and ordinances in a fit place, provided the public peace was not disturbed. The Maryland Toleration Act (1649) was the joint work of Roman Catholics and Protestants. The General Assembly at that time was composed of eight Roman Catholics and sixteen Protestants—three councillors and five burgesses were Roman Catholics, and the governor (William Stone), six councillors, and nine burgesses were Protestants. The act did not establish absolute toleration, as did the act of Rhode Island passed two years before, for it applied only to orthodox Christians, so-called, who accepted the doctrine of the Trinity. (See *Toleration Act of Rhode Island*.)

Toleration Act of Rhode Island. At a General Court of Elections (see *Rhode Island*,

Colony of) held at Portsmouth, beginning May 19, 1647, for "the Colonie and Province of Providence," after adopting many acts and orders concerning the government and for the punishment of crimes, it was decreed that "These are the laws that concern all men, and these are the penalties for the transgression thereof, which by common consent are ratified and established throughout the whole colony; and otherwise than thus, what is herein forbidden, all men may walk as their consciences persuade them, every one in the name of his God." This act of toleration was so broad and absolute that it would include Christian, Jew, Mohammedan, Parsee, Buddhist, or pagan.

To-mo-chi-chi, a venerable Creek chief presiding over a tribe near the site of Savannah, met Oglethorpe there in friendly conference early in 1733. (See *Oglethorpe, James Edward*.) He was then ninety-one years old, of commanding person and grave demeanor, and though for some reason he had been banished from the Lower Creeks, he had great influence throughout the confederacy as a brave chief and wise sachem. Mary Musgrove (which see), the half-breed wife of a South Carolina trader, acted as interpreter. He pledged his unwavering friendship for the English, and he kept his word. Presenting a buffalo-skin to Oglethorpe, on which were painted the head and feathers of an eagle, he said: "Here is a little present. I give you the skin of a buffalo adorned with the head and feathers of an eagle, which I desire you to accept, because the eagle is an emblem of speed and the buffalo of strength. The English are as swift as the bird and as strong as the beast, since, like the former, they flew over vast seas to the uttermost parts of the earth, and, like the latter, they are so strong that nothing can withstand them. The feathers of the eagle are soft, and signify love; the buffalo-skin is warm, and signifies protection; therefore I hope the English will love and protect our little families." A satisfactory treaty was made, by which the English obtained sovereignty over the domain between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, and westward as far as the extent of their tide-waters. Oglethorpe distributed presents among the Indians present. In the spring of 1734 Tomochichi went with Oglethorpe to England. He was accompanied by his wife, their adopted son and nephew, and five chiefs. They were cordially received in England, and were objects of great curiosity, for Indians had not been seen in that country since Peter Schuyler was there with Mohawks in Queen Anne's reign. They were taken in coaches, each drawn by six horses, to have an interview with the king, arrayed in brilliant English costume—the Creek monarch and his queen in scarlet and gold. He made a speech to King George and gave him a bunch of eagle's feathers, to which a gracious reply was made assuring the barbarians of English protection. They remained four months in England, during which time a brother of the Indian queen died of small-pox. The company were conveyed to the place of embarkation in the royal coaches, with presents valued at two

thousand dollars; and the Prince of Wales gave Tomochichi's heir a gold watch, with an injunction to call upon Jesus Christ every morning when he looked at it. They reached Savannah late in December, 1734. Tomochichi died Oct. 5, 1739, aged about ninety-seven years. At his funeral minute-guns were fired at the battery at Savannah, and musketry was discharged. He was buried in the centre of the town, and Oglethorpe ordered a "pyramid of stone" to be erected over his grave. The funeral was attended by the magistrates and people of Savannah and a train of Indians.

Tonti, HENRI DE, son of Lorenzo Tonti, an Italian, and inventor of the Tontine system of association. He entered the French army in his youth, and in the French naval service he lost a hand. In 1678 he accompanied La Salle to Canada, and assisted him in his Western explorations, building a fort on the site of Peoria, Ill., in 1680. He descended the Mississippi to its mouth with La Salle in 1682. In 1684 he went to the mouth of the Mississippi to meet La Salle, and attempted a settlement of Europeans in Arkansas. In 1685 he incited a force of Western Indians to attack the Senecas. Again he went down to the Gulf to meet La Salle, and was again disappointed; and in 1699 he went down to meet Iberville, and remained in the Gulf region, dying at Fort St. Louis, Mobile, in September, 1704.

Toombs, ROBERT, was born at Washington, Wilkes Co., Ga., July 2, 1810, and graduated at Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., in 1828. He studied law at the University of Virginia, and practised it until elected to Congress in 1845.



ROBERT TOOMBS.

He was a captain under General Scott in the Creek War; was several years a member of the Georgia Legislature; and in 1845 was elected to Congress, where he remained until 1853, when he became United States Senator. He was re-elected in 1859, and was expelled March 14, 1861. He was a prominent member of the extreme pro-slavery party, and was one of the most vehement advocates of secession in 1860-61. In his manner he was overbearing and defiant in the Senate in promoting insurrection. A member of the Confederate convention at Mont-

gomery (which see) in February, 1861, he was made Secretary of State of the provisional government then established. He left the office in September and became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army. He died Dec. 15, 1885.

Toombs's Last Speech in the Senate (1861).

Robert Toombs, of Georgia, was the embodiment of the revolutionary spirit in the slave-labor states at the beginning of 1861. In the Senate (Jan. 7), following a patriotic speech by Senator Crittenden, of Kentucky, he said: "The Abolitionists have for long years been sowing dragons' teeth, and they have finally got a crop of armed men. The Union, sir, is dissolved. That is a fixed fact lying in the way of this discussion, and men may as well hear it. One of your confederates [South Carolina] has already wisely, bravely, boldly met the public danger and confronted it. She is only ahead and beyond any of her sisters because of her greater facility of action. The great majority of those sister states under like circumstances consider her cause as their cause." He then declared that "the South" was prepared for the arbitrament of the sword. "Now, sir," he said, "you may see the glitter of the bayonet and hear the tramp of armed men from your capital to the Rio Grande." This was uttered before any state convention excepting that of South Carolina had passed an ordinance of secession. (See *Revolution Organized at Washington*.) Toombs then defined his own position. "I believe," he said, "for all the acts which the Republican party call treason and rebellion there stands before them as good a traitor and as good a rebel as ever descended from Revolutionary loins." He demanded the right of going into all territories with slaves as property, and that property to be protected by the national government. "You say No," he said; "you and the Senate say No; the House says No; and throughout the length and breadth of your whole conspiracy against the Constitution there is one shout of No! It is the price of my allegiance. Withhold it, and you can't get my obedience. There is the philosophy of the armed men that have sprung up in this country; and I had rather see the population of my own, my native land, beneath the sod than that they should support for one hour such a government."

Torbet, ALFRED T., was born in Delaware, and graduated at West Point in 1855, serving in Florida in 1856-57. He became colonel of the First New Jersey volunteers in September, 1861, and was active in the Peninsular campaign. He commanded a brigade in the battles of Groveton, or second battle of Bull's Run (which see), South Mountain (where he was wounded), and Antietam. In November, 1862, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers; was engaged at Gettysburg; and commanded a division of cavalry in the Army of the Potomac from May to July, 1864. He was chief of cavalry in the Shenandoah campaign from August to October, 1864. He was breveted major-general United States Army in March, 1865. He

resigned in October, 1866, and in 1871 was sent as consul-general to Havana. He was lost in the wreck of the steamer *Vera Cruz*, Aug. 29, 1880.

Tories. (See *Whigs and Tories*.)

Tories on Long Island Disarmed. Early in 1776 the Continental Congress authorized the several Provincial conventions, or committees, to disarm "the unworthy Americans who take the part of the oppressors;" and they were invested with full authority to direct and control the Continental troops that might be employed in this business. Queens County, Long Island, N. Y., had many Tories, and New Jersey troops were sent thither to disarm every man who voted against sending deputies to the New York Congress. Before the end of the month of January (1776), they, with the assistance of Lord Stirling's battalion, and in perfect accord with the New York Committee of Safety, executed the commission fully.

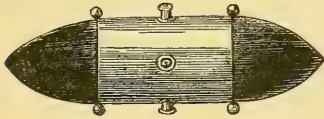
Tories (or Loyalists), TREATMENT OF. After the declaration of independence and the organization of state governments, the line between the Whigs and Tories was more distinctly defined. It was necessary for each party to choose one side or the other. In the great political change which had taken place, the Tories were exposed to dangers from new laws as well as mobs. The new state authorities claimed the allegiance of every citizen within their limits; and, under the lead and recommendation of Congress, those who refused to acknowledge their authority, or who adhered to their enemies, were exposed to severe penalties, confiscation of property, imprisonment, banishment, and, finally, if they persisted, death. The most obnoxious Tories left the country (see *Evacuation of Boston*), and the new governments contented themselves with admonitions, fines, recognizances to keep the peace, and prohibition to go beyond certain limits. They were placed under vigilant watchfulness by a regularly appointed Committee of Inspection and Observation of the several counties and districts in each colony. To the more ardent Whigs this leniency appeared dangerous. Joseph Hawley wrote to Elbridge Gerry: "Can we subsist—did any state ever subsist—without exterminating traitors? It is amazingly wonderful that, having no capital punishment for our intestine enemies, we have not been utterly ruined before now."

Toronto was the name of an Indian village when Governor Simcoe made it the capital of Upper Canada in 1794, and named it York. There the seat of the provincial government remained until 1841, when Upper and Lower Canada (now Ontario and Quebec) formed a legislative union. When the confederation was formed, in 1867, Toronto, the name by which York had been known since 1834, became the permanent seat of government for Ontario. (See *York, Capture of*.)

Torpedo Warfare. The government of the United States, like that of Great Britain, re-

fused to make use of Fulton's torpedoes in warfare, but it was attempted by individuals against the British blockading squadron. In New York harbor a schooner named the *Eagle* was used as a torpedo-vessel. In her hold John Scudder, Jr., originator of the plot, placed ten kegs of gunpowder, with a quantity of sulphur mixed with it, in a strong cask, and surrounded it with huge stones and other missiles, which, in the event of an explosion, might inflict great injury. At the head of the cask, in the inside, were fixed two gunlocks with cords, attached to their triggers at one end, and two barrels of flour at the other end, so that, when the flour should be removed, the lock would be sprung, the powder ignited, and the terrible mine exploded. The *Eagle*, commanded by Captain Riker, sailed for New London late in June, 1813, where, as was intended, she was captured by armed men in boats sent from the *Ramillies*, Commodore Hardy's flag-ship. The crew of the *Eagle* escaped to the shore and watched the result. An unavailing attempt was made to get the *Eagle* alongside the *Ramillies*, for the purpose of transferring her cargo to that ship. Finally boats were sent out as lighters, and when the first barrel of flour was removed the explosion took place. A volume of fire shot up from the *Eagle* full two hundred feet in height, and a shower of pitch and tar fell on the deck of the *Ramillies*. The *Eagle* and the first lieutenant and ten men of the *Ramillies* were blown into atoms, and some of the occupants of boats near were fatally injured. This was followed by an attempt to explode a torpedo under the *Ramillies*. A citizen of Norwich, Conn., acquainted with Bushnell's torpedo (which see), invented a submarine boat, in which he voyaged under water at the rate of three miles an hour. Three times he went under the *Ramillies*, and on the third occasion had nearly fastened the torpedo to the ship's bottom, when the breaking of a screw baffled the attempt. He was discovered, but escaped. A fisherman of Long Island, named Penny, made attempts on the *Ramillies* with a torpedo in a whale-boat, and Hardy was kept continually on the alert. He kept the *Ramillies* constantly in motion, and caused her bottom to be swept with a cable every two hours, night and day. Finally he warned the inhabitants that if such warfare was not discontinued he would proceed to burn the town. The warning was effectual. In July Mr. Mix, of the navy, attempted to blow up the *Plantagenet*, 74 guns, with a torpedo. She was lying off Cape Henry, Virginia. Under cover of intense darkness, the torpedo was carried out in an open boat, called the *Chesapeake Avenger*, and dropped so as to float down under the ship's bow. It exploded a few seconds too soon. A column of water twenty-five feet in diameter, half-luminous with lurid light, was thrown up at least forty feet high, with an explosion as terrific as thunder, producing a concussion like the shock of an earthquake. It burst at the crown, and water fell in profusion on the deck of the *Plantagenet*. At the same moment she rolled into the chasm made by the explosion, and nearly upset. Tor-

pedoes were also placed at intervals across the Narrows, at New York, and at the entrance to the harbor of Portland. The impression prevailed in the British navy that the United States government had adopted Fulton's torpedoes, and this made the British commanders on our coast very circumspect. No doubt the fear of torpedoes saved the American coast-towns from plunder and the torch. Torpedo warfare was much practised in the late Civil War. The torpedoes used by the Confederates were various in form and construction, as several illustrations in this work show. The most efficient ones were the galvanic and percussion. The former were provided with a wire connected with a galvanic battery on the shore, by which the mine might be exploded at any moment. The percussion or "sensitive" ones exploded by the act of for-



PERCUSSION TORPEDO.—No. 1.

eible contact. Some of these were made in the form of a double cone, with percussion tubes arranged around the cylinder thus formed, at the point of contact of the bases of the cones, as seen in the illustration here given. Others were arranged as No. 2. In the James River the tor-



PERCUSSION TORPEDO.—No. 2.

pedoes were chiefly galvanic. Some were cylindrical, with one end conical, but a greater portion were pear-shaped. These were anchored in the channels or in shallow water, by means of a segment of a hollow iron sphere, called a "mushroom," which was attached to the buoyant mine by a chain. These were generally sunk opposite batteries, where the wires connected with bomb-proofs on shore. One of these, containing nearly a ton of powder, was planted in the centre of the deep channel at Drewry's Bluff (which see). On account of the depth of water, it was attached to a long rod, and that to the "mushroom" anchor by a chain, as it was desirable to have the torpedo only the depth of a vessel below the surface. No. 1 was made of a common barrel, with solid pointed ends, made of palmetto-wood, and were used in Charleston harbor. After the capture of Fort Fisher, vessels were sent to pick up the torpedoes sunk in the Cape Fear River. The same thing was done in the James River, from City Point to Richmond, after the Confederates had evacuated the latter place. To do this with safety, a net, with hooks, was suspended at the bow of the vessel in search of them, or was dragged after it. When a nest of torpedoes was found, a little float was anchored above it, and a small

national flag was attached to the float as a warning. (See *Zeal in Torpedo Fishing*.)

Totten, JOSEPH GILBERT, was born at New Haven, Conn., Aug. 23, 1788; died in Washington, D. C., April 22, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1805 as lieutenant of engineers, and was chief-engineer of the army on the Niagara frontier in 1812-13. For meritorious services in the capture of Fort George (which see), he was breveted major in June, 1813. He was chief-engineer of Generals Izard and Macomb on Lake Erie in 1814, and was breveted lieutenant-colonel for gallantry in the battle of Plattsburg (which see). He was chief-engineer of the army of General Scott in the siege of Vera Cruz (which see), in 1847, and breveted brigadier-general. From 1846 to 1864 he was a regent of the Smithsonian Institution (see *Smithson, James Lewis Macie*), and in the Civil War was chief-engineer of the United States Army. He was breveted major-general United States Army, dating the day before his death. He was author of an able *Report on the Subject of National Defences* (1851), and translator of *Vicat on Mortars*.

Toussaint and Santo Domingo. The French portion of the Island of Santo Domingo, after a sanguinary insurrection, passed under the control of the negroes. Very soon there was a large and well-disciplined black army under Toussaint. The English had long tried in vain to obtain possession of this colony. Finding it impossible to conquer it, and perceiving that the actual control of things was in the hands of Toussaint, the English entered into negotiations with him in 1798, and had withdrawn their troops, with an understanding that he should assume the government, and keep the island neutral during the war with France. Hedonville, a commissioner of the Directory, was there with some white troops. Toussaint compelled him and his soldiers to depart; and the mulattoes, in the southern district of the colony, under Rigaud, were compelled to submit to the power of Toussaint. This expulsion of the French led to a great diminution in the number of privateers issuing from that part of the island, and Toussaint, wishing to renew commercial intercourse with the United States, sent an agent to effect it. A consul-general—a sort of ambassador—was sent to Toussaint in April, 1798. Soon after he sailed for Santo Domingo, General Maitland, who had lately commanded the English endeavoring to capture that island, arrived at Philadelphia. An arrangement was entered into as to the trade with Toussaint's people. The latter agreed to the arrangement, and the President issued his proclamation (June, 1798) reopening commerce with that portion of Santo Domingo.

Toussaint, FRANÇOIS DOMINIQUE (surnamed *L'Ouvverture*), was born a slave, near Cape François, in 1743; died in the dungeon of Joux, France, April 27, 1803. He was of pure negro blood. He was at first a coachman, and then held a position of trust in a sugar manufactory on the estate to which he belonged, having learned to read and write. He first appeared

in public life in 1791, when there was an uprising in the French part of Santo Domingo by the blacks against the whites. Having secured the escape of the director of the estate and his family, he joined the black insurgents. They accepted the aid of Spain, and repelled the offers of the French Convention. Toussaint soon captured the entire white army, under Brandincourt, without bloodshed, and occupied several important military posts. In 1793 the English invaded the island, and took Port au Prince, while all the inhabitants were engaged in civil war. The French Revolutionary government had proclaimed Hayti to be a part of France, and declared the freedom of the slaves; and Toussaint, looking upon the situation with the eye of a statesman and philanthropist, seeing the best hopes of his country to be centred, evidently, in a connection with France, declared his fealty to the Republic. He applied himself so vigorously in efforts to bring all parties to the same conclusion, that Laveaux, the French commander, exclaimed, "*Mais cet homme fait ouverture partout ;*" and from that time he bore the surname of *L'Ouverture*—"the opening." Joining the French, he led his troops successfully against the Spanish and English forces, capturing twenty-eight Spanish batteries in four days, and receiving the surrender of the English at St.-Marc in 1797. Toussaint, having been appointed commander-in-chief, now restored order and industry—for the Spaniards abandoned all idea of conquering the western portion of the island, which is properly Hayti. Hedonville, the French director, shorn of his power, fled to France, and entered complaints against Toussaint, but the French government sustained him. Before his departure, Hedonville had prepared the way for a new civil war by creating enmity between Rigaud, the leader of the mulattoes, and Toussaint, and for nearly a year war raged between the negroes and the mixed race. Toussaint subdued the mulatto insurrection, and late in 1800 assumed the government, but held himself amenable to the French Directory. The whole Island of Santo Domingo became subject to his rule in 1801, and he invited the well-disposed white colonists to return to the homes they had deserted. In his public life he assumed great state. He chose a council, who drew up a constitution of government, in which Toussaint was named President for life, and established free-trade. The constitution was sent to France, with a letter to Bonaparte by Toussaint, when the former said, "He is a revolted slave, whom we must punish; the honor of France is outraged." Leclerc, who married Bonaparte's sister, was sent to Santo Domingo with thirty thousand soldiers. He was kept at bay by the brave negro troops. Leclerc, finding negotiation unavailing, declared Toussaint and his officers to be outlaws, and began a war, in which his army was dreadfully smitten. He then won over some of the black leaders, and finally made such fair offers to the people and the rulers that Toussaint made a treaty of peace. With perfidy most foul, Leclerc caused Toussaint to be seized and

sent to France, where he was thrust into a dungeon, without trial, by Bonaparte, and slowly starved to death. The death of Toussaint *L'Ouverture* will ever remain a black spot on the name of Napoleon Bonaparte.

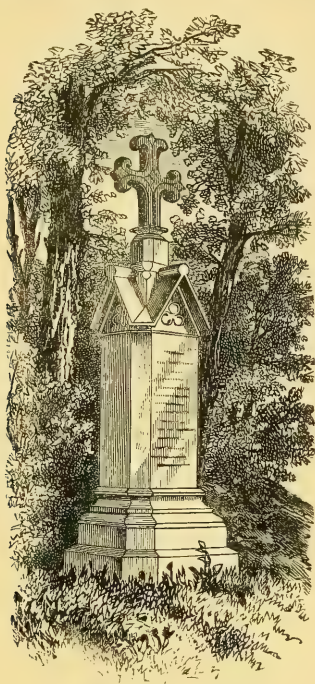
Town-meetings. The town-meeting, a conspicuous feature in New England colonial politics, was the promoter and conservator of free speech, a free press, and a spirit of liberty which pervaded the whole population. It was the fruitful seed of republicanism. In the town-meeting its taxes were voted and its affairs discussed and settled. Therein the agents and public servants of each town were annually elected by a free ballot, and there abstract political principles were debated. By these discussions an intelligent public sentiment was created concerning the rights of man, and particularly the rights of Englishmen in America, which was ready to support, by its power, the champions of freedom in the great struggle for justice, and finally for independence. It was this latter feature of the town-meeting that excited the opposition of the crown officers, who called it a "focus of rebellion." They hated and feared it.

Townshend, CHARLES, an English statesman, was born Aug. 29, 1725; died Sept. 4, 1767. He entered Parliament in 1747, where he soon became distinguished as an orator, and in June, 1749, he became one of the Commissioners of Trade and Plantations (which see). A member of the Privy Council in 1756, he went forward in the offices of Secretary of War, First Lord of Trade, Paymaster-general, to Chancellor of the Exchequer and a Lord of the Treasury in 1766. He favored the obnoxious measures of Parliament for deriving a revenue from America, and in June, 1767, he introduced into Parliament a series of resolutions levying duties on articles imported by the American colonists.

Townshend, GEORGE (marquis), an English field-marshal, was born Feb. 28, 1724; died Sept. 14, 1807. He commanded a division under Wolfe in the expedition against Quebec, and took command of the army after the death of that general, receiving the capitulation of the French. He then returned to England, and was a member of Parliament ten years (1754-64). He attained the highest rank in the army, became a privy-councillor, was Lord-lieutenant of Ireland (1767-72), and was created marquis in October, 1787.

Towson, NATHAN, an artillery officer, was born near Baltimore, Md., Jan. 22, 1784; died in Washington, D. C., July 20, 1854. He was appointed captain of artillery in March, 1812, having had some experience in that service as commander of a volunteer artillery company. He was sent to the Niagara frontier, and there, in 1813-14, he performed distinguished services. He bore a prominent part in the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane (which see); also in the defence of Fort Erie (which see). In 1816 he was breveted lieutenant-colonel, and was made paymaster-general in 1819. In March, 1849, Towson received the brevet of major-general

for "meritorious services during the Mexican War."



GENERAL TOWSON'S GRAVE.

Tract Society. The first undenominational tract society in the United States was formed in Boston in 1803. In 1814 an efficient society was formed at Andover, Mass., which, in 1823, made its abode in Boston, with the name of the American Tract Society. Another American Tract Society was formed in New York in 1825, and a union of all was effected. In 1859, because of the Society's hesitancy to publish tracts on the subject of slavery, the Boston society withdrew. A colporteur system was established in 1842, and the colporteurs disposed of a vast number of tracts. The various denominations also have tract societies.

Traffic in German Soldiers, OPINION OF THE. The bargain with England for the soldiers of German princes to serve in her armies in America filled Europe with disgust, and there was a universal cry of "Shame!" Frederick the Great would not let the pressed soldiers pass any portion of his domain on their march to ports of embarkation. Publicists everywhere condemned the traffic; and Mirabeau, then a fugitive in Holland, lifted up his voice against the iniquity. To the people and the soldiers he said: "Alas, miserable men, you burn not the camp of an enemy, but your own hopes! Germans, what brand do you suffer to be put upon your foreheads? You war against a people who never injured you; who fight for a righteous cause, and set you the noblest pattern." He called upon the soldiers to desert when they should reach America, and then join the strugglers

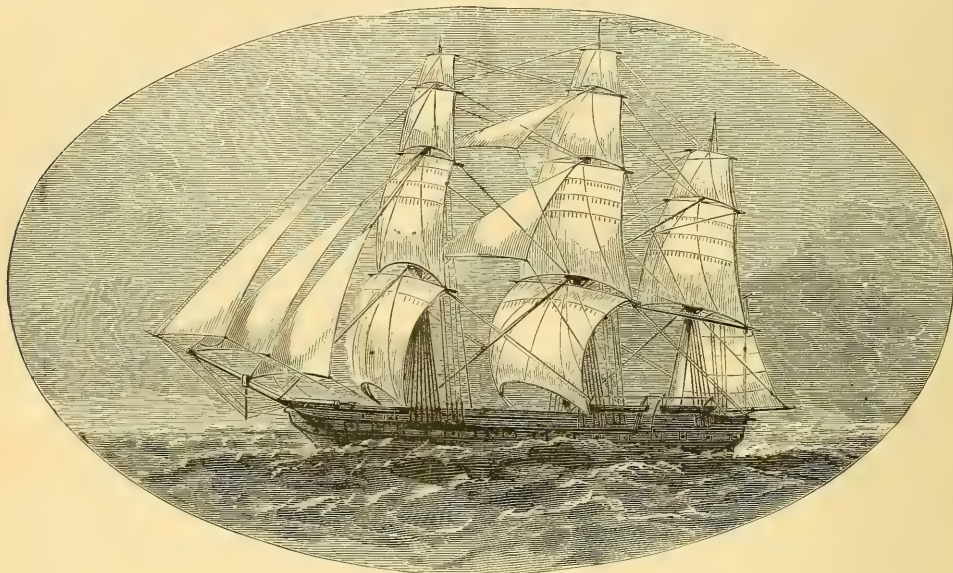
for independence. "He that fights to recover freedom," said the great revolutionist, "exercises a lawful right. Insurrection becomes just."

Training System in the Navy. The necessity for the establishment of a higher moral tone and greater professional efficiency among the seamen of the navy of the United States had been felt and expressed long before any steps were taken to produce the needed reform. So, also, in England. Immediately after the close of the war between the United States and Great Britain (1812-15), Sir Howard Douglas, perceiving the necessity for educated seamen in the Royal Navy, called the attention of his government to the matter. Nothing was done, however, officially, until June, 1830, when an admiralty order directed that a "gunnery-school" should be formed in one of the British ships-of-war. It was done, and this was the initial step towards the present admirable training of boys for service in the British navy. Its great object has been to make the sailors expert "seamen-gunners," as well as in the use of small-arms and the broadsword. The British government now has several ships devoted exclusively to the training of boys, with the happiest effect upon the general character of the Royal Navy. In 1835 John Goin, of New York, called public attention to the necessity of education for seamen, not only in the navy proper, but in the service of the mercantile marine. It was deemed essential that more Americans should be found among our seamen; for official statistics showed that of the one hundred thousand seamen then sailing out of the ports of the United States, only about nine thousand were Americans. This positive evil could only be met and remedied, it was argued, by the establishment of nautical schools, in which American boys could be trained for seamen. A petition for such a measure went from New York to Congress in 1837. That body, the same year, authorized the enlistment of boys for the navy, and it was not long afterwards when the frigate *Hudson* had three hundred boys on board of her as apprentices. Several nautical schools were opened on other vessels, but within five years the plan seems to have been abandoned. In 1863 the United States practice-vessel at the Naval Academy, Annapolis, went on a summer cruise across the Atlantic, and visited the ports of Plymouth and Portsmouth, Eng. Her officers there visited the British training-ships. Impressed with the importance of the system, the commander of the practice-ship (Captain S. B. Luce), on his return, called the attention of the Navy Department to the subject, and recommended a similar system of training for the United States Navy. The law of 1837 was revived, and the United States frigate *Sabine* was selected as a schoolship, and in due time the sloops-of-war *Saratoga* and *Portsmouth* were added as practice-vessels. This second effort was a failure. The project was revived in 1875, in a circular issued by the Secretary of the Navy on the 8th of April that year. In pursuance of instructions in that circular, the United States steam-frigate *Minnesota*

was commissioned a school-ship under the command of (now) Rear-Admiral S. B. Luce. The system has been modified and improved. Many hundred American boys have been instructed, and the work is still going on. The boys are under excellent moral restraint, are systematically taught the branches of a common-school education, and are trained in every department of seamanship, as well as in gunnery and military tactics. Such a system creates enlight-

ened American seamen, who will elevate the character of the seaman's profession—in the navy proper and in the mercantile marine—to the level of any other industry in which the brain and muscle of Americans may engage.

Transcendentalism is the doctrine in metaphysics which embraces beliefs and opinions evolved from the action of pure reason, applied in general to ideas and doctrines that are not



THE SCHOOL-SHIP SABINE.

ened American seamen, who will elevate the character of the seaman's profession—in the navy proper and in the mercantile marine—to the level of any other industry in which the brain and muscle of Americans may engage.

Training-schools for the Navy. (See *Training System in the Navy*.)

Traits of Indian Character. William Penn has left on record the following description of the Indians who inhabited the Delaware region of Pennsylvania: "They are tall, straight, tread strong and close, and walk with a lofty chin. Their custom of rubbing their body with bear's fat gives them a swarthy color. They have little black eyes. Their heads and countenances have nothing of the negro type; and I have seen as comely, European-like faces among them as on your side the sea. Their language is lofty, yet narrow, like short-hand in writing, one word serving in the place of three, and the rest are supplied by the understanding of the hearer. I have made it my business to understand it, that I might not want an interpreter on any occasion. In liberality they excel; nothing is too good for their friend; give them a fine gun, coat, or other thing, it may pass twenty hands before it sticks; light of heart, strong affections, but soon spent. The justice they have is pe-

suggested or limited by experience. Thus by the transcendental philosophy of Kant is meant his system of the principles of the pure reason, which occupies itself not with the objects or matter of knowledge, but with the subjective ideas of forms, as time, space, substance, and causality, through which objects are presented to us as phenomena. A transcendental school of philosophy arose in New England about 1840, of which Ralph Waldo Emerson has been the acknowledged leader.

Transylvania. While the English populations on the Atlantic seaboard were in great political commotion in the early part of 1775, efforts were in progress to form a new commonwealth westward of the great mountain ranges in the valley of the Mississippi. Richard Henderson, an energetic lawyer of North Carolina, and a land speculator, induced by the reports of Finley, Boone, and others of the fertile regions on the banks of the Lower Kentucky River, purchased of the Cherokees for a few wagon-loads of goods a great tract of land south of that river. Others were associated with him; and the adventurer Daniel Boone, who had been present at the treaty, was soon afterwards sent (March, 1775) to mark out a road and to commence a settlement. He built a palisaded fort on the site of the present Boonesborough, Madi-

son Co., Ky. At about the same time Colonel James Harrod, an equally bold backwoodsman, founded Harrodsburg. Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, denounced Henderson's purchase as illegal and void, and offered these Western lands for sale under the crown. Regardless of the proclamation, delegates from Boonesborough, Harrodsburg, and two other settlements, eighteen in number, met at Boonesborough, and organized themselves into an Assembly of a state which they named Transylvania by appointing Thomas Slaughter chairman, and Matthew Jewett clerk. They were addressed by Henderson on behalf of the proprietors, between whom and the settlers a compact was made, the most important features of which were an agreement—1. That the election of delegates should be annual; 2. Perfect freedom of opinion in matters of religion; 3. That judges should be appointed by the proprietors, but answerable for bad conduct to the people; and, 4. That the Convention or Assembly have the sole power of raising and appropriating all moneys, and of electing their treasurers. Courts and a militia were organized, and laws were enacted. The proprietors held a meeting in September at Oxford, Greenville Co., N. C., and elected James Hogg a delegate for Transylvania in the Continental Congress, but the claim of Virginia to the territory of the new commonwealth was a bar to his admission. The Legislature of Virginia afterwards annulled the purchase of Henderson, and the inchoate state disappeared. Virginia gave Henderson a tract of land on the Ohio twelve miles square, below the mouth of Green River.

Treachery in New Mexico. Floyd had sent Colonel Loring, of North Carolina, and Colonel Crittenden, of Kentucky, into New Mexico, about a year before the Civil War broke out, to corrupt the patriotism of the twelve hundred United States troops stationed there. They did not succeed; and, exciting the indignation of these troops by their treasonable propositions, they were compelled to flee from their wrath in July, 1861. At Fort Fillmore, near the Texas border, they found the officers in sympathy with them. Major Isaac Lynde, of Vermont, their commander, professed to be loyal, but in July, while leading about five hundred of his troops towards the village of Mesilla, he fell in with a few Texan insurgents, and, after a light skirmish, fell back to the fort. He was ordered by his superiors to take his command to Albuquerque. His soldiers were allowed to drink whiskey freely on the way, and when they had gone ten miles on the road a large portion of them were intoxicated. Then, as if by previous arrangement, a large force of Texans appeared. The sober soldiers wanted to fight, but Lynde, either treacherously or through cowardice, ordered them to surrender. His commissary, Captain Plummer, handed over to the leader of the insurgents \$17,000 in government drafts. Thus, at one sweep, nearly one half of the government troops in New Mexico were lost to its service.

Treason Act in Virginia. In consequence of the disturbances in western North Carolina

(see *Frankland*) and symptoms of disaffection on its southwestern border, and in Kentucky, the Virginia Legislature passed a law in October, 1785, subjecting to the penalties of treason all attempts to erect a new state in any part of her territory without permission first obtained of the Assembly. Pennsylvania had passed a similar law.

Treason, how Defined. The first clause of section III., article 3, of the national Constitution says: "Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort."

Treason of Arnold. In the summer of 1780 the old Continental bills of credit had become almost worthless, and there was continual depreciation of the bills of a new issue. Washington doubted whether the Continental army could be kept together for another campaign, and he was exceedingly anxious to strike some decisive blow. He proposed to Rochambeau, then in command of the newly arrived French forces at Newport, to make a combined attack upon New York. Letters were sent to the French admiral in the West Indies soliciting his co-operation, and in September (1780) Washington repaired to Hartford to meet the French general in consultation. During his absence Arnold attempted to execute his scheme of treason. His career had distinguished him as the most brilliant officer in the American service; but his arrogance, his disregard for the rights of others, his quarrelsome nature, and his doubtful integrity had won for him many enemies. Not sufficiently recovered from the wound in his leg which he received at Saratoga to take the field, he was made military governor of Philadelphia when the British evacuated it (June, 1778). There he lived extravagantly, became involved in debt, and married Miss Shippen, daughter of one of the leading Tory inhabitants of that city. To meet the demands of importunate creditors, he engaged in fraudulent transactions, for which his official position gave him facilities, and charges of dishonesty and malpractice in office were preferred against him before the Continental Congress. A tribunal before which he was tried convicted him, but sentenced him to a reprimand only by the commander-in-chief. Washington performed the duty with great delicacy, but the disgrace aroused in the bosom of Arnold a fierce spirit of revenge. He resolved to betray his country, and, making treasonable overtures to Sir Henry Clinton, kept up a correspondence on the subject for a long time with Major John André, the adjutant-general of the British army. This correspondence was carried on mutually under assumed names, and on the part of Arnold in a disguised hand. Feigning great patriotism and a desire to serve his country better, he asked for and, through the recommendation of General Schuyler and others, obtained the command of the important post of West Point and its dependencies in the Hudson Highlands. He arranged with Major André to surrender that post into the hands of a British

force which Sir Henry might send up the Hudson. For this service he was to receive the commission of a brigadier in the British army and nearly \$50,000 in gold. He made his headquarters at the house of Beverly Robinson, a Tory, opposite West Point, and the time chosen for the consummation of the treason was when Washington should be absent at a conference with Rochambeau at Hartford. Arnold and André had negotiated in writing; the former

return to New York by land. He left his uniform, and, disguised in citizen's dress, he crossed the river towards evening with a single attendant, passed through the American works at Verplanck's Point without suspicion, spent the night not far from the Croton River, and the next morning journeyed over the Neutral Ground (which see) on horseback, with a full expectation of entering New York before night. Arnold had furnished him with papers revealing the

I am in behalf of m^r m — — — and. Co.
 Sir
 Mr John Anderson
 merchant
 your Obedt. Able Servant
 Gustavus

FAC-SIMILE OF ARNOLD'S DISGUISED HANDWRITING.

Let me entreat you to favour
 a matter so interesting to the par
 ties concerned.
 John Anderson.

FAC-SIMILE OF A PORTION OF ONE OF ANDRÉ'S LETTERS.

wished a personal interview, and arrangements were made for it. André went up the Hudson in the British sloop-of-war *Vulture* to Teller's (now Croton) Point, from which he was taken in the night in a small boat to a secluded spot near Haverstraw, on the west side of the river, where, in bushes, he met Arnold for the first time. Before they parted (Sept. 22, 1780) the whole matter was arranged: Clinton was to sail up the river with a strong force, and, after a show of resistance, Arnold was to surrender West Point and its dependencies into his hands. But all did not work well. The *Vulture* was driven from her anchorage by some Americans with a cannon on Teller's Point, and when André, with Arnold, at Joshua H. Smith's house, above Haverstraw, looked for her in the early morning she had disappeared from sight. He had expected to return to the *Vulture* after the conference was over; now he was compelled to cross the river at King's Ferry (which see), and

condition of the highland stronghold. At Tarrytown, twenty-seven miles from the city, he was stopped (Sept. 23) and searched by three young militiamen, who, finding those papers concealed under the feet of André in his boot, took him to the nearest American post. The commander (Colonel Jameson) did not seem to comprehend the matter, and unwisely allowed André (who bore a pass from Arnold in which he was called "John Anderson") to send a letter to Arnold telling him of his detention. Washington returned from Hartford sooner than he expected. He rode over from Fishkill towards Arnold's quarters early in the morning. Two of his military family (Hamilton and Lafayette) went forward to breakfast with Arnold, while Washington tarried to inspect a battery. While they were at breakfast André's letter was handed to Arnold. With perfect self-possession he asked to be excused, went to his wife's room, bade her farewell, and, mounting the horse of

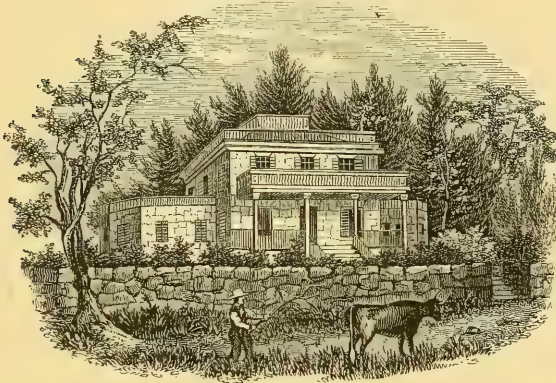
one of his aids that stood saddled at the door, rode swiftly to the river shore. There he entered his barge, and, promising the oarsmen a handsome reward if they would row the boat swiftly, escaped to the *Vulture*. André was taken to the headquarters of the army at Tappan, Rockland County, tried by a court-martial as a spy, and hanged there, Oct. 2, 1780. Strong but ineffectual efforts were made to save André by getting Arnold in his place. The latter lived

who at first regarded him as a deserter from the British army, was a matter of wonder; and when, after he had been exchanged and had rejoined the army at Valley Forge (1778), he was required to take the oath of allegiance with some other officers, he at first refused. His persistence in opposing any interference with the march of Clinton across New Jersey, and his extraordinary conduct on the field at Monmouth, could not be explained by any reason excepting incapacity or treachery. Indeed, Wash-

ington was warned against Lee the night before that battle by a Virginia captain who believed him to be treacherous. For his conduct on that occasion, and for an impertinent letter to his commander-in-chief, he was court-martialled and suspended from command in the army. He died out of the service. Three fourths of a century afterwards a document was found among Sir William Howe's papers endorsed "Mr. Lee's Plan, 29th March, 1777," in the handwriting of Henry Strachy, Howe's secretary. The writing within was in Lee's own hand, and it embodied a plan of operations by the British fleet and army which it was thought was best calculated to insure the subjugation of the colonies. It was upon this

plan that Howe acted in going to the Chesapeake in the summer of 1777, instead of up the Hudson River to assist Burgoyne, and so ruined the latter general. This document cast a flood of light upon the character and conduct of Lee during the Revolution, and proved beyond cavil that he was a traitor to the cause which he professed to serve. This document and circumstantial evidence of his treason are given in a small volume by George H. Moore, LL.D., entitled *The Treason of Charles Lee*.

Treasures from the Sea. William Phipps, a native of the Kennebec region, and at one time governor of Massachusetts, and one of twenty-six children by the same parents, engaged in commerce in early life. He heard of sunken Spanish treasure-ships in the waters around the West India islands, and he went in search of them. Having found one that did not yield much, he aroused such interest in the matter that the king gave him the use of a well-appointed ship-of-war to make further search. He was gone two years, but found nothing, excepting, as he thought, the exact spot where a rich Spanish galleon lay on the bottom of the sea. Phipps gained the reputation of a skilful naval commander, and a company was formed to enable him to prosecute the search. The vessel was found, laden with bullion, coin, and plate, and these were recovered to the value of \$1,500,000, and a gold cup worth \$5000, which was given to the Duchess of Albemarle, whose husband was a patron of the expedition. Phipps's share of the treasure was nearly \$80,000. The poor ship-builder's apprentice, who had learned to read and write when he had almost reached manhood, was now made wealthy, and his king



SMITH'S HOUSE.*

many years afterwards, thoroughly despised by both nations and the world. His young wife and her infant son joined him in New York and shared his fortunes until his death. André's captors—John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wart—were each rewarded with a silver medal and \$200 a year for life.

Treason of General Charles Lee. The conduct of General Lee at several periods during the war was inexplicable. He was disappointed in not being made the commander-in-chief of the Continental forces, and continually showed a censorious spirit towards Washington and others which was injurious to the service. His abilities were greatly overrated, and later in the conflict there were thoughtful men who regarded his profession of devotion to the American cause with suspicion. In 1775 he corresponded with Burgoyne, his old commander in Europe, while in Boston. In the summer of 1776, when at Charleston, he tried to induce Colonel Moultrie to abandon Fort Sullivan when it was attacked by land and water. In the autumn of that year he persistently disobeyed the orders of Washington to join the army, with a large force under his command, while it was retreating before Lord Cornwallis, and he was taken prisoner at a house far away from his camp, in New Jersey, under very suspicious circumstances. A letter which he had just written to Gates contained disparaging remarks on Washington's military character. His tender treatment by Howe,

* This house, yet (1883) standing, is about half-way between Stony Point, or King's Ferry, and Haverstraw. It is upon the slope of what has ever since been known as "Treason Hill." It was in a room in the second story that the conspirators remained during the day of their arrival there.

knighted him. Honors and emoluments awaited him in his native country on his return. (See *Phipps, Sir William*.)

Treat, ROBERT, governor of Connecticut from 1686 to 1701, was born in England in 1622; died in Milford, Conn., July 12, 1710. He came from England with Sir Richard Saltonstall, and was one of the first settlers of Wethersfield, Conn. He was chosen judge, then a magistrate (from 1661 to 1665), and major of the provincial troops in 1670. In King Philip's War he was active in the relief of menaced settlements in the Connecticut valley, especially of Springfield and Hadley. He aided in the destruction of the Narraganset fort in December, 1676 (see *King Philip's War*), and the same year was lieutenant-governor.

Treaties with Foreign Nations. The following treaties have been made between the United States and foreign governments, between 1776 and 1876 (some of these agreements may be classed as conventions to serve certain temporary purposes): *Algiers*, Sept. 5, 1795, peace and amity; June 30 and July 6, 1815, peace and amity; Dec. 22, 1816, peace and amity.—*Argentine Confederation*, July 10, 1853, free navigation of rivers Paraná and Uruguay; July 27, 1853, friendship, commerce, and navigation.—*Austria and Austro-Hungary*, Aug. 27, 1829, commerce and navigation; May 8, 1848, disposal of property; July 3, 1856, extradition; July 11, 1870, rights of consuls; Sept. 20, 1870, naturalization; Nov. 25, 1871, trade-marks.—*Baden*, Jan. 30, 1857, extradition; July 19, 1868, naturalization.—*Bavaria*, Jan. 21, 1845, abolition of *droit d'aubaine* and taxes on emigration; Sept. 12, 1853, extradition; May 26, 1868, naturalization.—*Belgium*, Nov. 10, 1845, commerce and navigation; July 17, 1858, commerce and navigation; May 20, 1863, import duties and capitalization of Scheldt dues; July 20, 1863, extinguishment of Scheldt dues; Nov. 16, 1868, naturalization; Dec. 5, 1868, rights, etc., of consuls; Dec. 20, 1868, additional article and trade-marks.—*Bolivia* (see *Peru-Bolivia*), May 13, 1858, friendship, commerce, and navigation.—*Borneo*, June 23, 1850, peace and amity and consular jurisdiction.—*Brazil*, Dec. 12, 1828, friendship, commerce, and navigation; Jan. 27, 1849, claims.—*Bremen* (see *Hanseatic Republics*), 1853, extradition.—*Brunswick and Luneburg*, Aug. 21, 1854, disposal of property.—*Central America*, Dec. 5, 1825, commerce and navigation.—*Chili*, May 16, 1832, friendship, commerce, and navigation; Sept. 1, 1833, explanatory; Nov. 10, 1858, arbitration of Macedonian claims.—*China*, July 3, 1844, peace, amity, and commerce; June 18, 1858, peace, amity, and commerce; Nov. 8, 1858, regulation of trade; Nov. 8, 1858, claims; July 28, 1868 (additional articles), amity, commerce, and navigation.—*Colombia, Republic of* (see *Ecuador, New Granada, and Venezuela*), Oct. 3, 1824, friendship, commerce, and navigation.—*Colombia, United States of* (see *New Granada*), Feb. 10, 1864, claims.—*Costa Rica*, July 10, 1851, amity, commerce, and navigation; July 2, 1860, claims.—*Denmark*, April 26, 1826, friendship, commerce, and navigation; March 28, 1830, in-

demnity claims; April 11, 1857, Sound and Belt dues; July 11, 1861, additional articles.—*Dominican Republic*, Feb. 8, 1867, amity, commerce, navigation, and extradition.—*Ecuador*, June 13, 1839, friendship, navigation, and commerce; Nov. 25, 1862, claims.—*France*, Feb. 6, 1778, alliance, amity, and commerce; Feb. 6, 1778, article separate and secret; July 16, 1782, payment of loan; Feb. 25, 1783, new loan; Nov. 14, 1788, consuls; Sept. 30, 1800, peace, commerce, navigation, fisheries, etc.; April 30, 1803, cession of Louisiana (payment of 60,000,000 francs by the United States), claims against France to be paid; June 24, 1822, duties, consuls, and separate article; July 4, 1831, claims, duties on wines and cottons; Nov. 9, 1843, extradition; Feb. 24, 1845, extradition; Feb. 23, 1853, rights, etc., of consuls; Feb. 10, 1858 (additional article), extradition; April 16, 1869, trade-marks.—*German Empire*, Dec. 11, 1871, consuls and trade-marks.—*Great Britain*, Nov. 30, 1782, preliminary treaty of peace; also a separate article; Jan. 20, 1783, armistice; Sept. 3, 1783, peace; Nov. 19, 1794, peace, amity, commerce, navigation, boundary, claims, extradition; also an additional article; May 4, 1796, explanatory article; March 15, 1798, explanatory article; Jan. 8, 1802, additional convention; Dec. 24, 1814, peace, boundary, slave-trade; July 3, 1815, commerce, duties, consuls; April 28, 1817 (arrangement), armed vessels on the Lakes; Nov. 24, 1817 (decision of commissioners), boundary; Oct. 20, 1818, fisheries, boundaries, slaves; June 18, 1822 (decision of commissioners), boundary; July 12, 1822, differences referred to Emperor of Russia; Nov. 13, 1826, indemnity; Aug. 6, 1827, boundary, renewal of commercial conventions; Sept. 29, 1827, boundary, differences to be referred to an arbitrator; Aug. 9, 1842, boundary, slave-trade, extradition; June 15, 1846, boundary west of the Rocky Mountains; April 19, 1850, ship-canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific; Feb. 8, 1853, claims; June 5, 1854, reciprocity of trade and fisheries with British possessions in North America; July 17, 1854 (additional convention), claims; April 17, 1862, suppression of slave-trade; Feb. 17, 1863, additional article; July 1, 1863, claims of Hudson Bay and Puget Sound Agricultural Companies; May 13, 1870, naturalization; June 3, 1870, slave-trade, mixed courts; Feb. 23, 1871, renunciation of naturalization; May 8, 1871, *Alabama* and other claims, fisheries, boundaries, etc.—*Greece*, Dec. 10–22, 1837, commerce and navigation.—*Guatemala*, March 3, 1849, amity, commerce, navigation, etc.—*Hanover*, May 20, 1840, commerce, navigation, etc.; June 10, 1846, commerce, navigation, etc.; Jan. 18, 1855, extradition; Nov. 6, 1861, abolition of Stade or Brunshausen dues.—*Hanseatic Republics*, Dec. 20, 1827, friendship, commerce, and navigation; June 4, 1828, additional article; April 30, 1852, consular jurisdiction.—*Hawaiian Islands*, Dec. 20, 1849, commerce, navigation, extradition, etc.—*Hayti*, Nov. 3, 1864, commerce, navigation, extradition.—*Hesse*, March 26, 1844 (Hesse-Cassel), abolition of *droit d'aubaine* and taxes on emigration; Aug. 1, 1868 (Grand-duchy of), naturalization.—*Honduras*, July 4,

1864, friendship, commerce, and navigation.—*Italy*, Feb. 8, 1868, rights, etc., of consuls; March 23, 1868, extradition; Jan. 21, 1869 (additional articles), consuls, extradition; Feb. 26, 1871, commerce and navigation.—*Japan*, March 31, 1854, peace and amity; June 17, 1857, opening of Nangasaki, coin, consuls, etc.; July 29, 1858, amity and commerce; Jan. 28, 1864, reduction of duties; Oct. 22, 1864, indemnity.—*Loo-choo*, July 11, 1854, friendship and commerce.—*Liberia*, Oct. 21, 1862, commerce and navigation.—*Madagascar*, Feb. 14, 1867, commerce, rights of citizens, consular jurisdiction, etc.—*Mecklenburg-Schwerin*, Dec. 9, 1847, commerce, navigation, etc.; Nov. 26, 1853, extradition.—*Mecklenburg-Schrelitz*, Dec. 2, 1853, extradition.—*Mexico*, Jan. 12, 1828, boundary; April 5, 1831, additional article; also commerce and navigation and additional article; April 3, 1835, second additional article to treaty of Jan. 12, 1828; April 11, 1839, claims; Jan. 30, 1843, additional convention; Feb. 2, 1848, peace, friendship, limits, claims, etc.; Dec. 30, 1853, boundary, road across Tehuantepec, etc.; Dec. 11, 1861, extradition; July 4, 1868, claims; July 10, 1868, naturalization; April 19, 1871 (additional convention), claims.—*Morocco*, January, 1787, peace and friendship and an additional article; Sept. 16, 1836, commerce, prisoners, etc.; May 31, 1865, light-house at Cape Spartel.—*Muscat*, Sept. 21, 1833, amity and commerce.—*Nassau*, May 27, 1846, abolition of *droit d'aubaine* and tax on emigration.—*Netherlands*, Oct. 8, 1872, amity and commerce; also recaptured vessels; Jan. 19, 1839, commerce and navigation; Aug. 26, 1852, supplemental convention; Jan. 22, 1855, American consuls in Dutch colonies.—*New Granada*, Dec. 12, 1846, amity, commerce, and navigation; also an additional article; May 4, 1850, consuls; Sept. 10, 1857, claims.—*Nicaragua*, June 21, 1867, friendship, commerce, and navigation; June 25, 1870, extradition.—*North German Union*, Feb. 22, 1868, naturalization.—*Oldenburg*, March 10, 1847, commerce and navigation; Dec. 30, 1853, extradition.—*Ottoman Empire*, May 7, 1830, friendship and commerce; Feb. 25, 1862, commerce and navigation.—*Paraguay*, Feb. 4, 1859, United States and Paraguay Navigation Company; also friendship, commerce, and navigation.—*Persia*, Dec. 13, 1856, friendship and commerce.—*Peru-Bolivia*, Nov. 30, 1836, friendship, commerce, and navigation.—*Peru*, March 17, 1841, claims; July 26, 1851, friendship, commerce, and navigation; July 22, 1856, rights of neutrals at sea; July 4, 1857, of interpretation; Dec. 20, 1862, *Lizzie Thompson* and *Georgiana*; Jan. 12, 1863, claims; Dec. 4, 1868, claims.—*Portugal*, Aug. 26, 1840, commerce and navigation; Feb. 26, 1851, certain claims to be referred to an arbiter.—*Russia*, July 9 and 28, Aug. 5, and Sept. 10, 1785, amity and commerce; July 11, 1799, amity and commerce; May 1, 1828, commerce and navigation.—*Prussia and other States*, June 16, 1852, extradition; Nov. 16, 1852 (additional article), extradition.—*Russia*, April 5–17, 1824, navigation, fishing, etc., in the Pacific Ocean; Dec. 6–18, 1832, commerce and navigation; also a separate article; July 22, 1854, rights of neutrals at sea;

March 30, 1867, cession of Russian possessions (Alaska) in North America to the United States; Jan. 27, 1868 (additional article), trade-marks.—*San Salvador*, Jan. 2, 1850, amity, navigation, commerce, etc.—*Sardinia*, Nov. 26, 1838, commerce and navigation; also a separate article.—*Saxony*, May 14, 1845, abolition of *droit d'aubaine* and taxes on emigration.—*Schaumburg-Lippe*, June 7, 1864, extradition.—*Siam*, March 20, 1833, amity and commerce; March 29, 1836, amity and commerce; Dec. 17–31, 1867, modification.—*Spain*, Oct. 27, 1795, friendship, limits, and navigation; Aug. 11, 1802, indemnity; Feb. 22, 1819, amity, settlement, and limits; Feb. 17, 1834, indemnity; Feb. 12, 1871, certain claims for wrongs in Cuba.—*Sweden*, April 3, 1873, amity and commerce; also separate articles; Sept. 4, 1816, amity and commerce.—*Sweden and Norway*, July 4, 1827, commerce and navigation; also a separate article; March 21, 1860, extradition; May 26, 1869, naturalization.—*Swiss Confederation*, May 18, 1847, abolition of *droit d'aubaine* and taxes on emigration; Nov. 25, 1850, friendship, commerce, and extradition.—*Texas*, April 11, 1838, indemnity for brigs *Packet* and *Durango*; April 25, 1838, boundary.—*Tripoli*, Nov. 4, 1796, peace, friendship, and navigation; June 4, 1805, peace, friendship, and navigation.—*Tunis*, August, 1797, March 26, 1799, peace, friendship, and navigation; Feb. 24, 1824, supplemental convention.—*Two Sicilies*, Oct. 14, 1832, indemnity; Dec. 1, 1845, commerce and navigation; Jan. 13, 1855, rights of neutrals at sea; Oct. 1, 1855, commerce, navigation, extradition.—*Venezuela*, Jan. 20, 1836, friendship, commerce, navigation; Jan. 14, 1859, Aves Islands claims; Aug. 27, 1860, commerce, navigation, and extradition; April 25, 1866, claims.—*Württemberg*, April 10, 1844, abolition of *droit d'aubaine* and taxes on emigration; Oct. 13, 1853, extradition; July 27, 1868, naturalization and extradition.

Treaties with France (1778). Franklin, Deane, and Lee were United States commissioners at the French court at the close of 1776. The Continental Congress had elaborated a plan of a treaty with France, by which it was hoped the states might secure their independence. The commissioners were instructed to press for an immediate declaration of the French government in favor of the Americans. Knowing the desire of the French to widen the breach and cause a dismemberment of the British empire, the commissioners were to intimate that a reunion of the colonies with Great Britain might be the consequence of delay. But France was then unwilling to incur the risk of war with Great Britain. When the defeat of Burgoyne was made known at Versailles, assured thereby that the Americans could help themselves, the French court were ready to treat for an alliance with them. The presence of an agent of the British ministry in Paris, on social terms with the American commissioners, hastened the negotiations, and, on the 6th of February, 1778, two treaties were secretly signed at Paris by the American commissioners, and the Count de Vergennes on the part of France. One was a commercial agreement, the other an alliance contingent on the

breaking-out of hostilities between France and Great Britain. It was stipulated in the treaty of alliance that peace should not be made until the mercantile and political independence of the United States should be secured. The conciliatory bills of Lord North (which see) made the French monarch anxious, for a reconciliation between Great Britain and her colonies would thwart his scheme for prolonging the war and dismembering the British empire; and he caused the secret treaties to be officially communicated to the British government, in language so intentionally offensive that the announcement was regarded as tantamount to a declaration of war, and the British ambassador at the French court was withdrawn.

Treaties with France Annulled. Because the treaties with France had been repeatedly violated; the just claims of the United States for the reparation of injuries to persons and property had been refused; attempts on the part of the United States to negotiate an amicable adjustment of all difficulties between the two nations had been repelled with indignity; and because, under the authority of the French government, there was yet pursued against the United States a system of predatory violence infracting those treaties, and hostile to the rights of a free and independent nation—Congress, on July 7, 1797, passed an act declaring the treaties heretofore concluded with France no longer obligatory on the United States.

Treaty of Paris. On Feb. 18, 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris (and was soon after ratified) between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, which materially changed the political boundaries and aspects of North America. The acquisitions of Great Britain, both from France and Spain, on the continent of North America, during the war then recently closed, were most important in their bearings upon the history of the so-called New World. France renounced and guaranteed to Great Britain all Nova Scotia or Acadia, Canada, the Isle of Cape Breton, and all other islands in the Gulf and River of St. Lawrence. The treaty gave to the French the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of Newfoundland and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, at a distance of three leagues from the shores belonging to Great Britain; ceded the islands of St. Peter and Miquelon, as a shelter for French fishermen; declared that the confines between the dominions of Great Britain and France, on this continent, should be fixed by a line drawn along the middle of the Mississippi River, from its source as far as the river Iberville (fourteen miles below Baton Rouge), and from thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river and of the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, to the sea; guaranteed to Great Britain the river and port of Mobile, and everything on the left side of the Mississippi, excepting the town of New Orleans and the island on which it is situated, which should remain to France; the navigation of the Mississippi to be equally free to the subjects of both nations, in its whole breadth and length, from

its source to the sea, as well as the passage in and out of its mouth; that the French in Canada might freely profess the Roman Catholic faith, as far as the laws of Great Britain would permit, enjoy their civil rights, and retire when they pleased, disposing of their estates to British subjects; that Great Britain should restore to France the islands of Guadeloupe, Marie Galante, Desadea, and Martinique, in the West Indies, and of Belle-Isle, on the coast of France, with their fortresses, giving the British subjects at these places eighteen months to sell their estates and depart, without being restrained on any account, excepting by debts or criminal prosecutions. France ceded to Great Britain the islands of Grenada and the Grenadines, with the same stipulation as to their inhabitants as those in the case of the Canadians; the islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago to remain in possession of England, and that of St. Lucia, of France; that the British should cause all the fortifications erected in the Bay of Honduras, and other territory of Spain in that region, to be demolished; that Spain should desist from all pretensions to the right of fishing about Newfoundland; that Great Britain should restore to Spain all her conquests in Cuba, with the fortress of Havana; that Spain should cede and guarantee, in full right, to Great Britain, Florida, with Fort St. Augustine and the Bay of Pensacola, and all that Spain possessed on the continent of America to the east, or to the southeast, of the Mississippi River. Thus was vested in the British crown, by consent of rival European claimants, the whole eastern half of North America, from the Gulf of Mexico to Hudson's Bay and the Polar Ocean, including hundreds of thousands of square miles of territory which the foot of a white man had never trodden.

Treaty of Peace, DEFINITIVE (1783). In April, 1783, the Preliminary Treaty of Peace having been ratified by the United States and Great Britain, the latter vested David Hartley with full powers to negotiate a definitive treaty with the American commissioners. It was concluded and signed at Paris, Sept. 3, 1783, by Hartley, on the part of Great Britain, and Dr. Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay, on the part of the United States. The terms were similar to those of the Preliminary Treaty (which see). When he had signed it, Franklin put on the clothes he had laid aside about ten years before, in accordance with a vow. (See *Franklin before the Privy Council*.) On the same day definitive treaties between Great Britain, France, and Spain were signed, and one between Great Britain and Holland was signed the day before.

Treaty of Peace, EFFECT OF (1814). On the evening of Saturday, Feb. 11, 1815, the treaty of peace, borne by the messengers who carried it to England for ratification, arrived at New York by the British sloop-of-war *Favorite*. News of its arrival spread over the city. The tidings were unexpected. No one inquired what its terms were; it was enough to know that peace had been secured. The streets were soon filled, and

a placard was issued on a slip of paper, five by six inches in size, from the office of the *Mercantile Advertiser*, containing these words: "New York, Saturday evening, nine o'clock, Feb. 11, 1814. PEACE. The great and joyful news of PEACE between the United States and Great Britain reached this city this evening by the British sloop-of-war *Favorite*, the Hon. J. C. Mowatt, Esq., commanding, in forty-two days from Plymouth. Henry C. Carroll, Esq., Secretary of the American Legation at Ghent, is the welcome bearer of the treaty, which was signed at Ghent on the 24th of December by the respective commissioners, and ratified by the British government on Dec. 28. Mr. Baker, late secretary of the British legation at Washington, has also arrived on the sloop-of-war, with a copy of the treaty ratified by the British government." This placard was thrown out of the window as fast as printed and scattered among the assembled people. It was also posted all over the city. Banquets and illuminations marked the public satisfaction in towns and cities throughout the Union. Philadelphia was the first to illuminate, on Wednesday evening, Feb. 15. The mayor (Robert Wharton), in a proclamation, suggested that as the principles of the Quakers would not allow them to illuminate, the police should see to it that they should be protected "in their peaceful rights." On the 22d the illumination took place in New York, and on March 16 a "superb ball" was given at the Washington Hotel (corner of Broadway and Chambers Street). The number of ladies and gentlemen in attendance was six hundred. The most active women in the management of this entertainment were those who composed the managers of the association for the relief of the soldiers, formed in 1814. (See *Relief for Soldiers*.) The effect of the treaty upon financial matters was very marked. Six-per-cents rose, in twenty-four hours, from seventy-six to eighty-six, and Treasury notes from ninety-two to ninety-eight. Coin, which was twenty-two per cent. premium, fell to two per cent. in forty-eight hours. The effect on commerce was equally great. Within forty-eight hours sugar fell from \$26 per cwt. to \$12.50; tea, from \$2.25 per pound to \$1; tin, from \$80 a box to \$25. These are mentioned as specimens, among scores of others, to show the effect of the treaty upon commercial values. In England, especially among the manufacturing and commercial classes, there was equal rejoicing, and medals were struck in commemoration of the event. (See *Peace Medals*.)

Treaty of Peace, PRELIMINARY (1782). In the spring of 1782, Richard Oswald was sent by the British ministry to Paris, to confer with Dr. Franklin on the subject of peace. His mission was initiatory in character. In July following Oswald was vested with full power to negotiate a treaty of peace, and in September the United States appointed four commissioners, representing the various sections of the Union, for the same purpose. These were John Adams, of Massachusetts; John Jay, of New York; Dr. Franklin, of Pennsylvania; and Henry Laurens, of South Carolina. These were all in Europe at

the time. Dr. Franklin and Mr. Oswald had already prepared the way for harmonious negotiations. Franklin had assured Oswald that independence, satisfactory boundaries, and a participation in the fisheries would be indisputable requisites in a treaty. In July, Parliament had passed a bill to enable the king to acknowledge the independence of the United States, and all obstacles in the way of negotiations were removed. Laurens joined the other American commissioners at Paris, and on the 30th of November, 1782, a preliminary treaty of peace was signed by the commissioners and Mr. Oswald, without the knowledge of the French government. This was a violation of the treaty of alliance. All of the American commissioners but Franklin doubted the good faith of Vergennes, whom they supposed to be under Spanish influence; but he acted honorably throughout. Dr. Franklin never doubted him; and he removed dissatisfaction from the mind of the French minister, because of the affront, by a few soft words. The chief features of the treaty were: 1. The unqualified recognition of the independence of the thirteen United States; 2. The Mississippi was made the western boundary, and Canada and Nova Scotia the northern and eastern boundaries of the United States; 3. The navigation of the St. Lawrence was abandoned to the English; 4. The navigation of the Mississippi was made free to both parties; 5. Mutual rights to the Newfoundland fisheries were adjusted; 6. No impediments to be allowed in the way of the recovery of debts by *bona-fide* creditors; 7. Certain measures of restitution of confiscated property to loyalists was to be recommended by the Congress to the several states; and, 8. A general cessation of hostilities, withdrawal of troops, and a restoration of public and private property. (See *Treaty of Peace, Definitive*.)

Treaty of Peace, PUBLIC RECEPTION OF THE (1814). (See *Peace, Treaty of*.) The treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain was taken from Ghent to London by Mr. Baker, secretary to Lord Gambier, and Mr. Carroll, one of the secretaries to the American commissioners. There it was ratified on Dec. 28, 1814, by the Prince Regent, and then sent to America by the same messengers, who sailed in the British sloop-of-war *Favorite*. She arrived at New York on the evening of Saturday, Feb. 11, 1815. Mr. Hughes, principal secretary to the American commissioners, left Ghent with a copy of the treaty at the same time, sailed for the Chesapeake from the Texel in the schooner *Transit*, landed at Annapolis two days after the *Favorite* reached New York, and put his copy of the treaty into the hands of the President before the ratified copy arrived there. The treaty of peace spread joy over the land, because it assured peace; but when its contents were known, and that immunity from search or impressment had not been secured, it was severely criticised. The opposition pointed to it exultingly as proof of the wisdom of their prophecies, the patriotism of their course in opposing the war, and the truth of their declaration that the "war was a failure." The opposition newspapers contained some well-pointed

epigrams, keen satires, and genuine wit, aimed at the friends of the war, and in illustration of the shortcomings of the treaty; there was also much coarse abuse of the administration poured out through the same channels. The usually dignified New York *Evening Post* had some severe criticisms, that seemed to justify the following stanza in its *New Year's Address*, printed a few weeks before:

"Your commerce is wantonly lost,
Your treasures are wasted and gone;
You've fought to no end, but with millions of cost,
And for rivers of blood you've nothing to boast
But credit and nation undone."

The English public, too, indulged in strong condemnation of the treaty, because it made concessions to the Americans. The following will show the feeling:

"ADVERTISEMENTS EXTRAORDINARY.

"*Wanted*.—The spirit of Elizabeth, Oliver, and William.

"*Lost*.—All idea of national dignity and honor.

"*Found*.—That every insignificant state may insult that which used to call herself Mistress of the Seas."

Treaty of Utrecht. (See *Utrecht, The Treaty of*.)

Treaty of Westminster, THE, between England and Holland, was concluded March 6, 1674. By that treaty, proclaimed simultaneously at London and at the Hague, New Netherland was surrendered to the English. Information of this surrender was first made known to the Dutch governor, Colve, by two men from Connecticut. The inhabitants of New Orange (as New York had been renamed) were so exasperated that the bearers of the evil news were arrested and punished. They gathered in excited groups in the streets, and cursed the States-General for giving up the fairest colony belonging to the Dutch. They declared that no authority of "States" or "Prince" could compel them to yield the country to the English again; and that they would fight to defend it "so long as they could stand with one leg and fight with one hand." They had tasted of "English liberty" and found it bitter; but they quietly submitted.

Treaty with France Proposed. In September, 1776, the Continental Congress, after weeks of deliberation, adopted an elaborate plan of a treaty to be proposed to France. They wanted France to engage in a separate war with Great Britain, and so give the Americans an opportunity for establishing their independence. They renounced in favor of France all eventual conquests in the West Indies, but claimed the sole right of acquiring British Continental America, and all adjacent islands, including the Bermudas, Cape Breton, and Newfoundland. They proposed arrangements concerning the fisheries; avowed the principle of Frederick the Great that free ships make free goods, and that a neutral power may lawfully trade with a belligerent. Privateering was to be restricted, not abolished; and while the Americans were not willing to make common cause with the French, they were willing to agree not to assist Great Britain in the war on France, nor trade with that power in goods contraband of war. The

commissioners sent to negotiate the treaty were authorized to promise that, in case France should become involved in the war, neither party should make a definitive treaty of peace without six months' notice to the other.

Treaty with Great Britain, INEXECUTION OF THE (1783). For some years the British government omitted to execute the provisions of the treaty of peace with the United States concerning the delivering up of the forts on the north-eastern frontier. It was evident that Great Britain was waiting to have a definite perception of the course European affairs were to take (for affairs between her and Spain were unsettled), and of the result of the attempt of the United States to perform national functions under their weak league of states. With the settled belief that the league would soon fall in pieces, she was indifferent to her relations with the young republic, especially after she was assured that an alliance between the United States and Spain would not take place. Gouverneur Morris was directed by Washington to go to England from Paris (1791) to sound the British ministry on the subject of a full and immediate execution of the treaty. He remained there about nine months, endeavoring to obtain a positive answer to the questions, Will you execute the treaty? Will you make a treaty of commerce with the United States? After enduring ungenerous diplomacy, and treated with neglect if not with positive discourtesy, Morris left London at the close of the year. Meanwhile Lord Dorchester (Carleton) had been instructed to pass through New York to England, and endeavor to find out the real sentiments of the United States government concerning an alliance with Spain, for there was still an apprehension that it might be effected. From New York Dorchester sent his aide-de-camp to Philadelphia to sound the American government; but he went away with as little information concerning the mind of Washington and his cabinet as Morris had of that of the British government when he left London. The British had come to the conclusion that the new national government contained vastly more vitality than the league of states, and could enforce its wishes with energy; so in August, 1791, George Hammond was sent as full minister to the United States. But the treaty of 1783 was not fully executed until after that of Jay was negotiated and ratified. (See *Jay's Treaty*.)

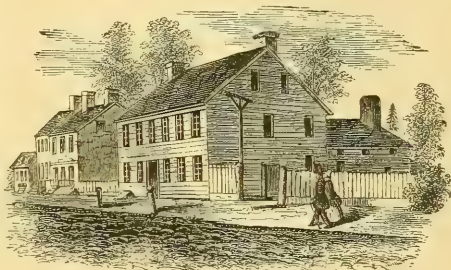
Treaty with the Creeks (1790). (See *Creek Indians in New York*.) A treaty signed at New York, Aug. 7, 1790, by Henry Knox for the United States, and Alexander McGillivray and twenty-three other Creek chiefs, provided for the relinquishment of Georgia to claims of an immense tract of land belonging to the Creeks south and west of the Oconee River; the acknowledgment of the Creeks being under the protection of the United States; the resignation of the Creeks of all pretensions to lands north and east of the Oconee River; a mutual exchange of prisoners, and an agreement for the delivery of an Indian murderer of a white man.

A secret article provided that presents to the value of \$1500 should be distributed annually among the nation; annuities of \$100 secured to six of the principal chiefs, and \$1200 a year to McGillivray annually, in the name of a salary; also the privilege of importing goods for supplying the Indians. These money considerations to the leaders were intended to secure their fidelity to the terms of the treaty.

Treaty with the Six Nations at Philadelphia. In 1742, a treaty was held at Philadelphia by the government of Pennsylvania with deputies of the Six Nations, who agreed to release their claim to all the land on both sides of the Susquehanna River, as far south as that province extended, and northward to the Endless Mountain or Kittocatanny Hills. In compensation for this cession the Indians received goods of considerable value.

Trenton, BATTLE AT. Late in December (1776), Washington's army, by much exertion, had increased to nearly 6000 men. Lee's division, under Sullivan, and some regiments from Ticonderoga under Gates, joined him on the 21st. Contrary to Washington's expectations, the British, content with having overrun the Jerseys, made no attempt to pass the Delaware, but established themselves in a line of cantonments at Trenton, Pennington, Bordentown, and Burlington. Other corps were quartered in the rear, at Princeton, New Brunswick, and Elizabethtown; and so sure was Howe that the back of the "rebellion" was broken that he gave Cornwallis leave to return to England, and he was preparing to sail when an unexpected event detained him. Washington knew that about 1500 of the enemy, chiefly Hessians (Germans), were stationed at Trenton under Colonel Rall, who, in his consciousness of security and contempt for the Americans, had said, "What need of intrenchments? Let the rebels come; we will at them with the bayonet." He had made the fatal mistake of not planting a single cannon. Washington felt strong enough to attack this force, and at twilight on Christmas-night he had about 2000 men on the shore of the Dela-

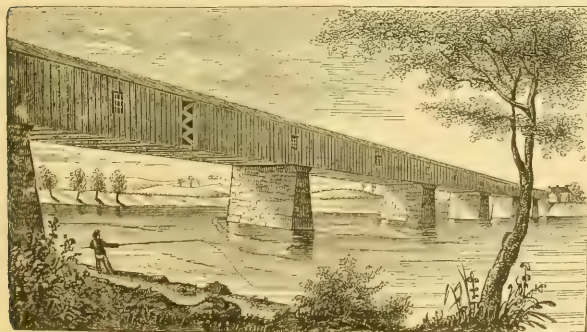
ware festival, would be peculiarly exposed to a surprise, and he prepared to fall upon them before daylight on the morning of the 26th. With him were Generals Stirling, Greene, Sullivan, Mercer, Stephen, and Knox (the latter commissioned a brigadier two days afterwards), commanding the artillery. Arrangements were made for a similar movement against the cantonments below Trenton, the command of which was assigned to General Gates; but that officer, jealous of Washington, and in imitation of General Lee, with wilful disobedience refused the duty, and turning his back on Washington, rode on towards Baltimore to intrigue among Congressmen against General Schuyler. (See *Schuyler and Gates*.) Ice was forming in the Delaware, and its surface was covered with floating pieces. The current was swift, the night was dark, and towards midnight a storm of snow and sleet set in. It was four o'clock in the morning before



RALL'S HEADQUARTERS.

the troops in marching order stood on the New Jersey shore, boats having been hurriedly provided for their passage. The army moved in two columns—one, led by Sullivan, along a road nearest the river; the other, led by Washington and accompanied by the other generals, along a road a little distance to the left. It was broad daylight when they reached Trenton, but they were undiscovered until they reached the picket-line on the outskirts of the village. The firing that ensued awakened Rall and his fellow-officers (who had scarcely recovered from the night's debauch) from their deep slumbers.

The colonel was now at the head of his men in battle order. A sharp conflict ensued in the village, lasting only thirty-five minutes. The Germans were defeated and dispersed, and Colonel Rall was mortally wounded, and taken to his quarters, where he died. The main body, attempting to escape by the Princeton road, were intercepted by Colonel Hand and made prisoners. Some British light-horse and infantry at Trenton escaped to Bordentown. The victory was complete. The spoils were about 1000 prisoners, 1200 small-arms, six brass



GREAT BRIDGE AT MCCONKEY'S FERRY, 1850.

ware at McConkey's Ferry (now Taylorsville), a few miles above Trenton, preparing to cross the freezing flood. He rightly believed that the Germans, after the usual carouse of the Christ-

field-pieces, and all the German standards. The triumphant army recrossed the Delaware with their prisoners (who were sent to Philadelphia), and went back to their encampment. This

bold stroke puzzled and annoyed the British. Cornwallis did not sail for England, but was sent back into New Jersey. The Tories were alarmed, and the dread of the mercenary Germans was dissipated. The faltering militia soon began to flock to the standard of Washington, and many of the soldiers who were about to leave the American army re-enlisted.

Trespass Act. Some of the states whose territory had been longest and most recently occupied by the British were inclined to enact new confiscation laws. Such was the so-called Trespass Act of New York, which authorized the owners of real estate in the city to recover rents and damages against such persons as had used their buildings under British authority during the war. This act was passed before the news arrived of the terms of the Preliminary Treaty of Peace (which see). In 1786 the Supreme Court of New York, by the efforts of Hamilton, declared the Trespass Act void, as being in conflict with the Definitive Treaty of Paris (which see).

Tribunal of Arbitration. In accordance with the provisions of a treaty negotiated by the Joint High Commission (which see) to consider the matters in dispute between the governments of the United States and Great Britain and the appointment of arbitrators, the United States appointed Charles Francis Adams, and Great Britain Sir Alexander Cockburn. The two governments jointly invited the Emperor of Brazil, the King of Italy, and the President of the Swiss Confederation, each to appoint an arbitrator. The emperor appointed Baron d'Itazuba, the king chose Count Frederick Sclopis, and the President of the Swiss Confederation appointed James Staempfli. J. C. Bancroft Davis was appointed agent of the United States, and Lord Tenterden that of Great Britain. These several gentlemen formed the "Tribunal of Arbitration." They assembled at Geneva, Switzerland, Dec. 15, 1871, when Count Sclopis was chosen to preside. After two meetings they adjourned to the middle of January, 1872. A final meeting was held in September the same year, and on the 14th of that month they announced their decision on the "*Alabama* claims." That decision was a decree that the government of Great Britain should pay to the government of the United States the sum of \$15,500,000 in gold, to be given to citizens of the United States in payment of losses incurred by the depredations of the *Alabama* and other Anglo-Confederate cruisers. That amount was paid into the treasury of the United States a year afterwards. The other matters in dispute were settled. The question of boundary on the Pacific coast was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the claims of the United States to the possession of the island of San Juan, the domain in dispute. (See *Alabama, Destruction of the*.)

Trinity Church. The first Episcopal church organized in the province of New York was called in its charter (1697) "The Parish of Trinity Church." The wardens and vestrymen first chosen included several members of the King's Council. The following are the names of the

first officers of the church: Bishop of London, rector; Thomas Wenham and Robert Lurting, wardens; Caleb Heathcote, William Merret, John Tudor, James Emott, William Morris, Thomas Clarke, Ebenezer Wilson, Samuel Burt, James Evets, Nathaniel Marston, Michael Howden, John Crooke, William Sharpas, Lawrence Read, David Jamison, William Hudleston, Gabriel Ludlow, Thomas Burroughs, John Merret, and William Janeway, vestrymen. In 1705 a tract of land known as "The Queen's Farm" extended (on the west side of Broadway) from St. Paul's Chapel (Vesey Street and Broadway) along the river to Skinner Road, now Christopher Street. This farm was then totally unproductive. Money was collected for the building of the church. It was a small square edifice, then on the bank of the Hudson River. It was enlarged in 1737 to 148 feet in length, including the tower and chancel, and to 72 feet in width. The steeple, which was not completed until 1772, was 175 feet in height. The building was consumed in the great fire in 1776. It was rebuilt in 1788, taken down in 1839, and on May 21, 1846, the present edifice was consecrated to Christian worship. The corporation of Trinity Church still holds a portion of the land of the Queen's Farm, from which a large income is derived. That corporation has contributed generously towards the building and supporting of churches in various parts of the country and carrying on Christian work of various kinds.

Tripartite Treaty Proposed. The Spanish authorities in Cuba became thoroughly alarmed by the invasion from the United States, and also very suspicious. The idea became prevalent in Cuba and in Europe that it was the policy of the United States government to ultimately acquire absolute possession of that island, and thus have control over the commerce of the Gulf of Mexico (the door to California) and the trade of the West India group of islands, which are owned chiefly by France and England. The governments of these two countries, to prevent such a result, asked the United States to enter with them into a treaty which should secure Cuba to Spain by agreeing to disclaim "now and forever hereafter all intention to obtain possession of that island," and to "discountenance all such attempts to that effect on the part of any power or individual whatever." To this extraordinary request Edward Everett, Secretary of State, answered (Dec. 1, 1852) with keen logic and patriotic and enlightened sentiments. He told France and England plainly that the question was an American one, and not a European one, and not properly within the scope of their interference; that, while the United States disclaimed all intention to violate existing neutrality laws, it would not relinquish the right to act in relation to Cuba independent of any other power, and that it could not see with indifference "the island of Cuba fall into the hands of any other power than Spain." This was a full reiteration of the Monroe Doctrine (which see). The diplomatic correspondence on the subject ended with a reply to Secretary Everett's letter (Feb-

ruary, 1853) by Lord John Russell, the British premier. France made no rejoinder.

Tripoli, WAR WITH. The ruler of Tripoli, learning that the United States had paid larger gross sums to his neighbors (see *Algiers, Tribute to*) than to himself, demanded an annual tribute in the autumn of 1800, and threatened war in case it was refused. In May, 1801, he caused the flag-staff of the American consulate to be cut down, and proclaimed war June 10. In anticipation of this event, the American government had sent Commodore Richard Dale with a squadron to the Mediterranean. His flag-ship was the *President*. He sailed from Hampton Roads, reached Gibraltar July 1, and soon after the Bey had declared war he appeared before Tripoli, having captured a Tripolitan corsair on the way. The Bey was astonished, and the little American squadron cruising in the Mediterranean made the Barbary powers more circumspect. Recognizing the existence of war with Tripoli, the United States government ordered a squadron, under Commodore Richard V. Morris, to relieve Dale. The *Chesapeake* was the commodore's flag-ship. The vessels did not go in a body, but proceeded one after another, between February (1801) and September. Early in May the *Boston*, after taking the United States minister (R. R. Livingston) to France, blockaded the port of Tripoli. There she was joined by the frigate *Constellation*, while the *Essex* blockaded two Tripolitan corsairs at Gibraltar. The *Constellation*, left alone, had a severe contest not long afterwards with seventeen Tripolitan gunboats and some land batteries, which were severely handled. Another naval expedition was sent to the Mediterranean in 1803, under the command of Commodore Edward Preble, whose flag-ship was the *Constitution*. The other vessels were the *Philadelphia*, *Argus*, *Siren*, *Nautilus*, *Vixen*, and *Enterprise*. The *Philadelphia*, Captain Bainbridge, sailed in July, and captured a Moorish corsair of Tangier, holding an American merchant vessel. Preble arrived in August, and, going to Tangier, demanded an explanation of the Emperor of Morocco, who disclaimed the act and made a suitable apology. Then he proceeded to bring Tripoli to terms. Soon afterwards the *Philadelphia* fell into the hands of the Tripolitans. Little further of much interest occurred until early in 1804, when the boldness of the Americans in destroying the *Philadelphia* in the harbor of Tripoli greatly alarmed the Bey. (See *Philadelphia, The Frigate, Destruction of*.) For a while Preble blockaded his port; and in July, 1804, he entered the harbor (whose protection lay in heavy batteries mounting one hundred and fifteen guns) with his squadron. The Tripolitans also had in the harbor nineteen gunboats, a brig, two schooners, and some galleys, with twenty-five thousand soldiers on the land. A sheltering reef afforded further protection. These formidable obstacles did not dismay Preble. On Aug. 3 he opened a heavy cannonade and bombardment from his gunboats, which alone could get near enough for effective service. A severe conflict ensued. Finally, Lieutenant Decatur laid his vessel (the gunboat

Number Four) alongside the largest of those of the enemy, and boarded and captured her after a desperate struggle. After the Americans had sunk or captured six of the Tripolitan vessels, and inflicted a heavy loss of life on the enemy, they withdrew, but resumed the attack four days later (Aug. 7). After the loss of a gunboat and ten men, the Americans again withdrew; but renewed the attack on the 24th, without any important result. A fourth attack was made on the 28th, and, after a sharp conflict, the American squadron again withdrew, and lay at anchor off the harbor until Sept. 2, when a fifth attack was made. A floating mine, sent to blow up the Tripolitan vessels in the harbor, exploded prematurely, apparently, and destroyed all of the Americans in charge of it. (See *Intrepid, Destruction of the*.) The stormy season approaching, Preble withdrew from the dangerous Barbary coast, leaving a small force to blockade the harbor of Tripoli. Commodore Samuel Barron was sent to relieve Preble, who, with a large squadron, overawed the Moors and kept up the blockade. Meanwhile a movement under Captain William Eaton, American consul at Tunis, soon brought the war to a close. He joined Hamet Caramelli, the rightful Bey of Tunis, in an effort to recover his rights. (See *Hamet Caramelli*.) Hamet had taken refuge with the Viceroy of Egypt. There Eaton joined him with a few troops composed of men of all nations, and, marching westward across northern Africa one thousand miles, with transportation consisting of one hundred and ninety camels, on April 27, 1805, captured the Tripolitan seaport town of Derne. They fought their way successfully towards the capital, their followers continually increasing, when, to the mortification of Eaton and the extinguishment of the hopes of Caramelli, they found that Tobias Lear, the American consul-general, had made a treaty of peace (June 4, 1805) with the terrified ruler of Tripoli. So ended the war. The ruler of Tunis was yet insolent, but his pride was suddenly humbled by the appearance of a squadron of thirteen vessels under Commodore Rodgers, who succeeded Barron, and he sent an ambassador to the United States. The Barbary states now all feared the power of the Americans, and commerce in the Mediterranean Sea was relieved of great peril. Pope Pius VII declared that the Americans had done more for Christendom against the North African pirates than all the powers of Europe united.

Trist, NICHOLAS P., was born in Virginia and educated at West Point, where he was acting professor from 1819 to 1820. In 1845 he was chief clerk of the State Department, and was United States commissioner with the army under General Scott in Mexico authorized to treat for peace, which he accomplished at Guadalupe Hidalgo in January, 1848. He was afterwards United States consul at Havana. He was a personal friend and the private secretary of President Jackson. Mr. Trist married a granddaughter of Thomas Jefferson.

Troops Called into Service (1861-65). The

provost-marshal-general (James B. Fry) reported that the aggregate quotas charged against the several states, under all calls of the President, from April 15, 1861, to April 14, 1865, when drafting and recruiting ceased, was 2,759,049. The aggregate number of men put into the service of the Republic—army, navy, and marine corps—during that time was 2,656,553. In enforcing the draft, those thus chosen for service were allowed to pay a commutation-fee. The aggregate of such fees collected by the provost-marshal-general from the people of twenty states was \$26,366,316. This large sum was collected at an expense of less than seven tenths of one per centum, without the loss of a dollar through neglect, accident, fraud, or otherwise. The whole number of negro troops recruited and enlisted during the war was 186,077. Of the whole number of men called into the service, about 1,493,000 were actually there.

Troops for America Obtained in Ireland.

The people of Ireland were generally the friends of the Americans, but the placemen and her Legislature were under the control of the British ministry, who, while bargaining for the use of German mercenaries against the Americans, asked for four thousand Irishmen to send thither, and to receive in their stead four thousand German Protestants. This proposition was vehemently opposed in the debates on the subject. "The war is unjust, and Ireland has no reason to be a party therein." "If men must be sent to America to butcher men who are fighting for their liberty," said George Ogle, "send these foreign mercenaries, not the brave sons of Ireland." Notwithstanding strong opposition, the Irish Parliament voted (one hundred and twenty-one against seventy-six) to supply four thousand troops.

Troubles with the Carolina Proprietaries.

Almost from the beginning the colonists in Carolina evinced an independent disposition that greatly annoyed the proprietaries. A greater portion of the difficulties arose because of the rapacity or maladministration of the governors sent to rule them, and, a little later, from the attempts to enforce upon them the government called the Grand Model, or Fundamental Constitutions (which see). There were quarrels and insurrections and continual efforts to secure immunity from taxation of every kind; and the country was seldom at peace internally until the proprietaries abandoned their magnificent scheme of government and the mild and just administration of the Quaker governor, John Archdale, began in 1695.

Troup, ROBERT, LL.D., was born in New York city in 1757; died there, Jan. 21, 1832. He graduated at King's (now Columbia) College in 1774; studied law under John Jay; and joined the army on Long Island as lieutenant in the summer of 1776. He became aid to General Woodhull; was taken prisoner at the battle of Long Island; and was for some time in the prison-ship *Jersey* and the provost jail at New York. Exchanged in the spring of 1777, he joined the Northern army, and participated in the capture

of Burgoyne. In 1778 he was Secretary of the Board of War. After the war he was made Judge of the United States District Court of New York, holding that office several years. Colonel Troup was the warm personal and political friend of Alexander Hamilton. For many years he resided at Geneva, N. Y., as principal agent of the great Pulteney estate.

Trumbull, JOHN, soldier and artist, son of Governor Jonathan Trumbull, was born at Lebanon, Conn., June 6, 1756; died in New York city, Nov. 10, 1843. He graduated at Harvard University in 1773. Having made an accurate sketch of the works around Boston in 1775, he attracted the attention of Washington, who, in August of that year, made him one of his aides-de-camp. He became a major of brigade, and in 1776 deputy adjutant-general of the Northern Department, with the rank of colonel. In February, 1777, he retired from the army, and went to London to study painting under West. On the execution of Major André (October, 1780), he was seized and cast into prison, where he remained eight months. In 1786 he painted his "Battle of Bunker's Hill." From 1789 to 1793 he was in the United States, painting portraits for his historical pictures (now in the rotunda of the national Capitol)—"The Declaration of Independence," "The Surrender of Burgoyne," "The Surrender of Cornwallis," and the "Resignation of Washington at Annapolis." In 1794 Trumbull was secretary to Jay's mission to London (see *Jay's Treaty*), and was appointed a commissioner (1796) to carry the treaty into execution. He returned to America in 1804, and went back to England in 1808, when everything American was so unpopular that he found little employment. He came back, settled in New York, and assisted in founding the Academy of Fine Arts there, of which he was president from 1816 to 1825. Mr. Trumbull painted a large number of pictures of events in American history. In consideration of receiving from Yale College \$1000 a year during his life, Colonel Trumbull presented to that institution fifty-seven of his pictures, which form the "Trumbull Gallery" there. The profits of the exhibition, after his death, were to be applied towards the education of needy students.

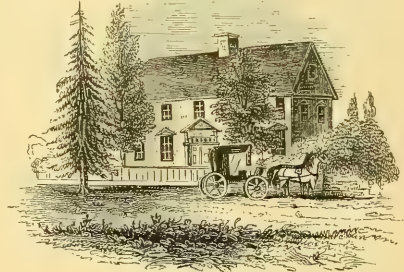
Trumbull, JOHN, LL.D., poet, was born at Westbury (since Watertown), Conn., April 24, 1750; died at Detroit, Mich., May 10, 1831. He graduated at Yale College in 1767, having been admitted to the college at the age of seven years, such was his precocity in acquiring learning. But he did not reside there until 1763, on account of delicate health. In 1773 he was admitted to the bar, having been two years a tutor in Yale College. During that time he wrote his first considerable poem, *The Progress of Dulness*. He was a warm and active patriot. In 1775 the first canto of his famous poem, *McFingal*, was published in Philadelphia. The whole work, in four cantos, was published at Hartford in 1782. It is a burlesque epic, in the style of *Hudibras*, directed against the Tories and other enemies of liberty in America. This famous

poem has passed through more than thirty editions; the last, with notes by Benson J. Lossing, was issued by G. P. Putnam in 1864. After the war, Trumbull, with Humphreys, Barlow, and Lemuel Hopkins, wrote a series of poetic essays, entitled *American Antiquities*, pretended extracts from a poem which they styled *The Anarchiad*. It was designed to check the spirit of anarchy then prevailing in the feeble Union. From 1789 to 1795 Mr. Trumbull was state attorney for Hartford; and he was a member of the Legislature in 1792 and 1800. He was a judge of the Supreme Court for eighteen years (1801-19), and Judge of the Court of Errors in 1808. In 1825 he removed to Detroit, and spent the remainder of his years there with his daughter, the wife of Governor Woodbridge.

Trumbull, JONATHAN, son of Governor Trumbull, was born at Lebanon, Conn., March 26, 1740; died Aug. 7, 1809. He graduated at Harvard University in 1759. When the war for independence broke out, he was an active member of the Connecticut Assembly, and its speaker. From 1775 to 1778 he was paymaster of the Northern army; and in 1780 he was secretary and first aid to Washington, remaining in the military family of the commander-in-chief until the close of the war. He was a member of Congress from 1789 to 1795—speaker from 1791 to 1795; United States Senator in 1795-96; and Lieutenant-governor of Connecticut in 1796. He became governor in 1797, and held the office until his death.

Trumbull, JONATHAN, LL.D., Governor of Connecticut from 1769 to 1783, was born at Lebanon, Conn., June 10, 1710; died there, Aug. 17, 1785. He graduated at Harvard University

ernor. Trumbull was the only Colonial governor who espoused the cause of the people in their struggle for justice and freedom. In the absence in Congress of the Adamsons and Hancock from New England, Trumbull was considered the Whig leader in that region, and Wash-

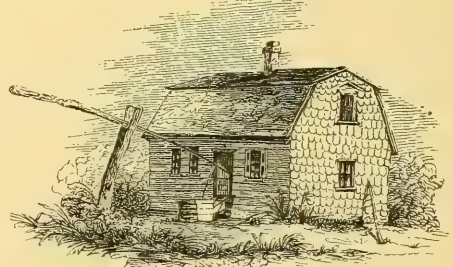


THE TRUMBULL HOUSE, 1850.

ington always placed implicit reliance upon his patriotism and energy for support. (See *Brother Jonathan*.) His sons, Jonathan and Joseph, were both active patriots during the war for independence. Governor Trumbull's dwelling-house was a substantial frame building in Lebanon, and was yet well preserved in 1850. Then his "war-office," in which many a patriotic scheme was planned, grave questions settled, and daring enterprises resolved upon and put in motion, was well preserved—a quaint



JONATHAN TRUMBULL.



GOVERNOR TRUMBULL'S WAR-OFFICE.

old building, with its gabled roof and shingled sides.

Trumbull, JOSEPH, commissary-general from 1775 to 1777, was born at Lebanon, Conn., March 11, 1737; died July 23, 1778. He graduated at Harvard University in 1756. In July, 1775, he was made commissary-general of the Continental army. In November, 1777, he was made a commissioner of the Board of War, which office he resigned in April, 1778, on account of ill-health, and died a few weeks afterwards.

Truxtun, THOMAS, was born at Jamaica, L. I., Feb. 17, 1755; died at Philadelphia, May 5, 1822. He went to sea when he was twelve years of age, and for a short time was impressed on board a British man-of-war. Lieutenant of the privateer *Congress* in 1776, he brought one of her prizes to New Bedford; and in June, 1777, com-

in 1727; preached a few years; studied law; and became a member of Assembly at the age of twenty-three. He was chosen lieutenant-governor in 1766, and became *ex-officio* Chief-justice of the Superior Court. In 1768 he boldly refused to take the oath enjoined on officers of the crown, and in 1769 he was chosen gov-



MEDAL PRESENTED TO COMMODORE TRUXTUN.

manding the *Independence*, owned by himself and Isaac Sears (which see), he captured three valuable prizes off the Azores. Truxtun performed other brave exploits during the war for independence, and was afterwards extensively engaged in the East India trade in Philadelphia. In 1794 he was made captain of the new frigate *Constellation*, and in 1798–99 he made two notable captures of French vessels of superior size—*L'Insurgente*, of 40 guns and 409 men, and *La Vengeance*, of 54 guns and 400 men. The former was a famous frigate, and the engagement with her, which lasted one hour and a quarter, was very severe. *L'Insurgente* lost seventy men killed and wounded, the *Constellation* only three men wounded. (See *Constellation* and *L'Insurgente*.) The action with *La Vengeance* was equally severe. The vessels were fought at pistol-shot distance, the engagement lasting till one o'clock in the morning. *La Vengeance*, much crippled, escaped before daylight, and Truxtun lost his

prize. This second victory gave him great popularity, and Congress voted him the thanks of



NAVAL PITCHER.

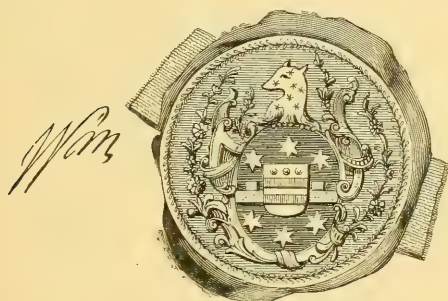
the nation and a gold medal. These victories, at that critical time, made the navy very popular, and "The Navy" became a favorite toast at all banquets. Pictures of naval battles and naval songs filled the shop-windows, and some earthen pitchers, of different sizes, were made in Liverpool for an American crockery merchant in commemoration of the American navy. The small engraving shows the appearance of one of these. In 1801 Truxtun was transferred to the *President*, and was commodore on the Guadeloupe station, with ten sail under his command at one time. In 1802 he was appointed to command an expedition against Tripoli, but declined the service because he was denied a captain for his flag-ship. Jefferson dismissed him from the service. From 1816 to 1819 Truxtun was High-sheriff of Philadelphia. His remains were buried in Christ Church-yard, in that city, and his grave is marked by an upright slab of white marble.

Tryon, WILLIAM, a royal colonial governor, was born in Ireland; died in London, Feb. 27, 1788. He became a reputable officer in the British army, and mar-



TRUXTUN'S GRAVE.

ried Miss Wake, a beautiful and accomplished kinswoman of the Earl of Hillsborough, the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Through him Tryon procured the office of Lieutenant-governor of North Carolina in 1764, and on the death of Governor Dobbs, in 1765, he was appointed governor. He was fond of ostentatious display, and built a palace at New Berne at an expense to the colony of \$25,000. To gain this appropriation, Lady Tryon and her beautiful sister, Esther Wake, gave brilliant balls and dinner-parties to the members of the Legislature and used every blandishment they possessed. The taxes on account of this palace added greatly to the burdens of the people, and brought about the "Regulator" movement in the western counties. The history of



SEAL AND SIGNATURE OF TRYON.

Tryon's administration in North Carolina is a record of folly, extortion, and crime, and he gained the name of "The Wolf of North Carolina." He was Governor of New York when the war for independence broke out, and he was the last governor of that province appointed by the crown. Compelled to take refuge from the Sons of Liberty on board a vessel in New York harbor, it proved to be a permanent abdication. He entered the British military service, and engaged in several disreputable marauding expeditions. His property in North Carolina was confiscated. He went to England in 1780, and became lieutenant-general in 1782.

Tucker, JOSIAH, D.D., an English divine, was born at Langham, Wales, in 1711; died at Gloucester, England, Nov. 4, 1799. Educated at Oxford, he took orders, and was for many years a rector in Bristol. From 1758 he was Dean of Gloucester. He was a prolific writer on political and religious subjects, and published several tracts on the dispute between Great Britain and the American colonies, which attracted much attention, as at an early period he recommended a separation of the colonies from the empire and the recognition of their independence.

Tucker, ST. GEORGE, LL.D., was born at Port Royal, Bermuda, June 29, 1752; died at Edge-wood, Nelson Co., Va., in November, 1827. He graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1772; studied law; but entered the public service at the beginning of the Revolution, planning and assisting personally in the seiz-

ure of a large amount of stores in a fortification at Bermuda. He commanded a regiment at the siege of Yorktown, where he was severely wounded. After the war he became a Virginia legislator, a reviser and digester of the laws of Virginia, professor in the College of William and Mary, and member of the convention at Annapolis in 1786, which led to that of 1787 that framed the national Constitution. He was a judge in the state courts nearly fifty years, and in the Court of Appeals from 1803 to 1811. In 1813 he was made a judge of the United States District Court. Judge Tucker was possessed of fine literary taste and keen wit, and he was a poet of no ordinary ability. He wrote some poetical satires under the name of Peter Pindar; also some political tracts; and in 1803 he published an annotated edition of Blackstone.

Tucker, SAMUEL, was born at Marblehead, Mass., Nov. 1, 1747; died at Bremen, Me., March 10, 1833. Before the Revolution he was a captain in the merchant service, sailing between Boston and London. In March, 1777, he was commissioned a captain in the Continental navy, and, in command of the *Boston*, he took John Adams to France as American minister in February, 1778. During 1779 he took many prizes. In 1780 he helped in the defence of Charleston; was made prisoner; and was released in June, 1781, when he took command of *The Thorne*, and made many prizes, receiving, at the close of the war, the thanks of Congress. He settled in Bristol, Me., in 1792; and during the War of 1812 he captured, by a trick, a British vessel which had greatly annoyed the shipping in that vicinity. He was several times in the legislatures of Maine and Massachusetts.

Tunisian Ambassador, THE. When Tobias Lear made a treaty with the Bey of Tunis (see *War with Tunis*) an ambassador was sent by that power to the United States. He came in 1806, was received with much ceremony, and entertained at the public expense. He insisted upon having the best house in Washington for his dwelling; and he visited, at the public expense, the principal cities in the Union. He was an expensive and not very welcome "guest of the nation," and did not remain long.

Tupper, BENJAMIN, was born at Stonington, Conn., in 1738; died at Marietta, O., in June, 1792. He was a soldier in the French and Indian War, and afterwards taught school at Easton. He was very active in the siege of Boston, and was colonel of a Massachusetts regiment early in 1776. In August that year he commanded the gunboats and galleys in the North (Hudson) River; served under Gates in the Northern army in 1777; was in the battle of Monmouth the next year; and before the end of the war was made a brigadier-general. Tupper was one of the originators of the Ohio Land

Company, and was appointed surveyor of Ohio lands in 1785. In suppressing Shays's Insurrection (which see) he was distinguished. He settled at Marietta in 1787, and became judge in 1788.

"Turn down for Richmond, quick." These words were sent by telegraph from Fortress Monroe to the operator at Washington between nine and ten o'clock in the morning, April 3, 1865. The operator at Washington—W. E. Kittles, then a boy of fifteen—thought it a grim joke, for there had been no communication by telegraph with the Confederate capital since the beginning of the war; but he lad quickly "turned down for Richmond." Signals of the operator at Richmond were bounding along the line to Washington. When communication was assured, the following message—the first in four years—came:

"RICHMOND, Va., April 3, 1865.

"Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War:—We entered Richmond at eight o'clock this morning.

"G. WEITZEL, Brigadier commanding."

Kittles carried the message to General Eckert's room, where President Lincoln sat, and when made aware of its tenor, he hurried with it to Secretary Stanton. The news soon spread over the national capital and the Union, producing great joy among the loyal people.

Turner, THOMAS, was born in Virginia, April 21, 1808, and entered the navy in April, 1825. He was actively engaged in the war with Mexico. In command of the sloop-of-war *Saratoga*, he captured two Spanish steamers in the harbor of San Antonio, March 6, 1860. In the attack on the forts in Charleston harbor, in April, 1863, he commanded the *New Ironsides*. In 1869–70 he commanded the Pacific squadron. In May, 1868, he was made rear-admiral, and retired in 1870.

Turner's Falls, FIGHT WITH INDIANS NEAR. Around the falls in the Connecticut River known as Turner's a sharp action occurred in May, 1676. A large body of Indians, who had desolated Deerfield, were encamped around these falls. Captain Turner was then in command of the English troops in the valley, and, taking one hundred and twenty mounted men, started on a night ride through Hadley and Deerfield in search of Indians. He found them fast asleep in their camp, and surprised them. Many fled to their canoes, but, leaving their paddles behind, went over the falls. Others hid away among the rocks, and were killed, and others were shot while crossing the river. After the battle the bodies of one hundred Indians were found dead at their camp, and one hundred and forty who went over the falls perished. About three hundred Indians were destroyed. Turner lost only one man. Another party of Indians were soon on his track, and a panic seized the troops when it was rumored that King Philip, with one thousand men, were in pursuit. A running fight occurred. Turner was killed, many of his men were slain, and Captain Holyoke, who took command of the whole, died not long afterwards from the effects of the excitement and fatigue of the eventful May 10, 1676. It was a severe blow to King Philip.

Turpentine State, a popular name given to North Carolina, from which state immense quantities of turpentine are exported.

Turreau's Rudeness. Monsieur Turreau, the French minister at Washington, was as rude in his diplomatic intercourse with the United States as was Yrugo, the Spanish minister. When the arrangement made with Erskine in 1809 was proclaimed, Turreau addressed a very rude note to the Secretary of State, in which he severely reflected on the conduct of the American government, accusing them of partiality for Great Britain; complaining loudly of the freedom of the American press in its comments on France, her institutions, and "the sacred person of her august representative" (Napoleon); specifically declaring that, until these grievances should be redressed, especially the last, the emperor would never consent to the renewal of the convention of commerce, which was about to expire—a convention which had been continually disregarded with signal contempt in the issue and enforcement of Napoleon's Decrees. (See *Erskine, Negotiations with*.)

Tuscaroras, a tribe of the Iroquois Confederacy, who were separated from their kindred at an early day, and were seated in North Carolina when the Europeans came. They were divided into seven clans, and at the beginning of the eighteenth century occupied fifteen villages and had twelve hundred warriors. They attempted to exterminate the white people in North Carolina in 1711, but troops that came to the aid of the assailed from South Carolina chastised them in a battle fought near the Neuse (Jan. 28, 1712), killing and wounding four hundred of them. They made peace, but soon broke it. At war again in 1713, they were subdued by Colonel Moore, of South Carolina, at their fort near Snow-hill (March 20), who captured eight hundred of them. The remaining Tuscaroras fled northward, and joined their kindred of the Iroquois Confederacy, constituting the sixth nation of that league.

Twiggs, DAVID EMANUEL, was born in Richmond County, Ga., in 1790; died at Augusta, Ga., Sept. 15, 1862. He entered the United States military service as captain in the spring of 1812, and became major of infantry in 1814. In 1836 he became colonel of dragoons, and as commander of a brigade he distinguished himself in the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma (which see). He was made brigadier-general June 30, 1846, and was breveted major-general for gallantry at Monterey (which see). Twiggs commanded a division in Scott's campaign in Mexico in 1847, and in 1848 he was made civil and military governor of Vera Cruz. Early in 1861 he was in command of United States troops in Texas, and betrayed them (in February) into the hands of the enemies of his government, for which crime he was dismissed from the army March 1, 1861. He was then given an important position in the Confederate army, and was for a short time in command at New Orleans, resigning towards the close of 1861.

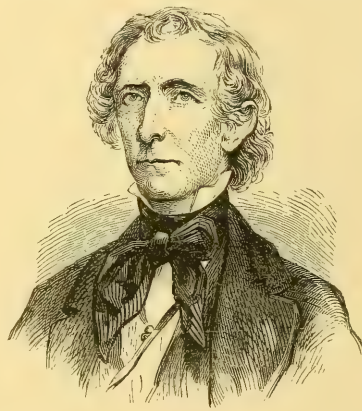
Twiggs, DAVID E., TREACHEROUS CONDUCT

OF. General Twiggs had served his country honorably in its armies for forty years, but the virus which corrupted so many noble characters did not spare him. He was a native of Georgia, and seems to have been under the complete control of the Secession leaders. He was placed in command of the Department of Texas only a few weeks before the act about to be recorded occurred. A state convention of politicians in Texas appointed a committee of safety (see *Texas Secession Ordinance*), who sent two of their number (Devine and Maverick) to treat with Twiggs for the surrender of United States troops and property into the hands of the Texas insurgents. Twiggs had already shown signs of disloyalty. These had been reported to the War Department, when Secretary Holt, in a general order (Jan. 18), relieved him from the command in Texas, and gave it to Colonel Charles A. Waite. When Devine and Maverick heard of the arrival of the order in San Antonio, they took measures to prevent its reaching Colonel Waite, who was sixty miles distant; but the vigilant Colonel Nichols, who had watched the movements of the general with the keen eye of suspicion, foiled them. He duplicated the orders, and sent two couriers with them, by different routes. One of them reached Waite Feb. 17; but the dreaded mischief had been accomplished. Twiggs had been cautious. He did not commit himself in writing; he always said, "I will give up everything." He was now allowed to temporize no longer. He had to find an excuse for surrendering his troops, consisting of two skeleton corps. It was readily found. Ben McCulloch, the famous Texan Ranger, was not far off, with a thousand men. He approached San Antonio at two o'clock on the morning of Feb. 10, 1861. He had been joined by armed Knights of the Golden Circle (which see) near the town. With a considerable body of followers, he rushed into the town with yells, and took possession. Twiggs, pretending to be surprised, met McCulloch in the Main Plaza, and there, at noon, Feb. 16, a negotiation for surrender (begun by the commissioners so early as the 7th) was consummated. He gave up to the insurgent authorities of Texas all the National forces in that state, about two thousand five hundred in number, and with them all the stores and munitions of war, valued, at their cost, at \$1,200,000. He surrendered all the forts in his department. By this act Twiggs deprived the government of the most effective portion of the regular army. When the government heard of it, an order was issued (March 1, 1861) for his dismissal "from the Army of the United States for treachery to the flag of his country." Twiggs threatened, in a letter to the ex-President, to visit Buchanan in person, to call him to account for officially calling him a "traitor." Earlier than this, a benevolent institution in New Orleans (Charity Lodge of the Sons of Malta) had expelled him (Feb. 25); but on March 12 the Secession Convention of Louisiana united with citizens of New Orleans in honoring Twiggs with a public reception. The betrayed troops, who, with most of their officers, remained loyal,

were allowed to leave Texas, and went to the North, taking quarters in Fort Hamilton, at the entrance to New York Harbor.

Tyler, DANIEL, was born at Brooklyn, Conn., Feb. 22, 1799. He graduated at West Point in 1819. In 1828-29 he visited France, to study improvements in artillery; and in May, 1834, he resigned, and practised the profession of civil engineer. At the breaking-out of the Civil War he became colonel of the First Connecticut Volunteers, and soon afterwards brigadier-general of three-months troops. Next in rank to General McDowell, he was second in command in the battle of Bull's Run. In March, 1862, he was ordered to the West, and commanded a division of the Army of the Mississippi. Afterwards he was employed in guarding the Upper Potomac. When the Confederate army invaded Maryland, in 1863, he was in command at Harper's Ferry. General Tyler resigned April 6, 1864. He died November 30, 1882.

Tyler, JOHN, tenth President of the United States, was born in Charles City County, Va., March 29, 1790; died at Richmond, Va., Jan. 17, 1862. He graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1807, and was admitted to the bar



JOHN TYLER.

in 1809. Two years afterwards he was elected a member of the Virginia Legislature, and was re-elected for five successive years. In 1816 he was appointed to fill a vacancy in Congress—and was twice re-elected—in which he opposed all internal improvements by the general government, the United States Bank, a protective tariff, and all restrictions on slavery. He was afterwards in the State Legislature, and in December, 1825, was chosen Governor of Virginia by the Legislature, to fill a vacancy. In 1827 he became a member of the United States Senate, and was re-elected in 1833, when he was a firm supporter of the doctrine of state supremacy, and avowed his sympathy with the South Carolina Nullifiers. He joined the Whig party, and was elected by them Vice-President of the United States in 1840. On the death of President Harrison he became, by a provision of the Constitution, President. He lost the confidence of both par-

ties by his acts during his administration, and was succeeded in the Presidential office by James K. Polk, in 1845. All of his cabinet excepting Mr. Webster resigned in 1841, and he left it after an important treaty had been concluded and ratified (August, 1842), when Hugh S. Legaré succeeded him. The last important act of Tyler's administration was signing the act for the annexation of Texas (which see). He had been nominated for the Presidency by a convention of office-holders in May, 1844, but in August, perceiving that he had no popular support, he withdrew from the contest. In February, 1861, Mr. Tyler was President of the Peace Convention (which see) held at Washington city. Soon afterwards he withdrew his allegiance to the United States, and used his best endeavors in support of the cause of those who tried to destroy the Union.

Tyranny in New England. Governor Andros, appointed by James II. President of New England, exercised his powers in a tyrannous manner. He, with his council, made laws and

levied taxes at their pleasure. Without the voice of an assembly, they levied a penny on the pound on all the estates in the country, and another penny on all imported goods, besides twenty pence per head as poll-tax, and an immoderate excise on wine, rum, and other liquors. In many towns the inhabitants refused to levy the assessments; and as this was construed by the tyrant as seditious, punishments were inflicted. The selectmen of Ipswich voted, in 1688, "That inasmuch as it is against the privilege of English subjects to have money raised without their own consent in an assembly or parliament, therefore they will petition the king for liberty of an assembly before they make any rates." For this offence Sir Edmund caused them to be fined—some \$100, some \$150, and some \$250. So offensive became the government of Andros that some of the principal colonists sent the Rev. Increase Mather to England to represent their grievances to the king. His agency availed nothing, for Andros was acting under instructions from the monarch.

U.

Uchees. This was a diminutive Indian nation, seated in the beautiful country in Georgia extending from the Savannah River at Augusta to Milledgeville and along the banks of the Oconee and the headwaters of the Ogeechee and Chattahoochee. They were once a powerful nation, and claimed to be the oldest on the continent. Their language was harsh, and unlike that of any other; and they had no tradition of their origin, or of their ever having occupied any other territory than the domain on which they were found. They have been driven beyond the Mississippi by the pressure of civilization, and have become partially absorbed by the Creeks. Their language is almost forgotten, and the Uchees are, practically, one of the extinct nations.

Ulloa, FRANCISCO DE, a Spanish discoverer of California, was a lieutenant of Cortez in his explorations in America, and was left by him, in 1535, in charge of the colony of Santa Cruz. In 1539-40 he commanded the expedition that explored California, giving to the Gulf the name of *Sea of Cortez*. Ulloa discovered that southern California was a peninsula.

Ultimatum of Massachusetts (1774). On March 5, 1774, John Hancock and Samuel Adams spoke to a great meeting of citizens in Faneuil Hall. The former said: "Permit me to suggest a general congress of deputies from the several houses of assembly on the continent as the most effectual method of establishing a union for the security of our rights and liberties." Samuel Adams said: "It will be in vain for any to expect that the people of this country will now be contented with a partial and temporary relief, or that they will be amused by court promises while they see not the least relaxation of grievances. By means of a brisk correspondence among the several towns in this

province they have wonderfully animated and enlightened each other. They are united in sentiments, and their opposition to unconstitutional measures of government is become systematical. Colony begins to communicate freely with colony. There is a common affection among them; and shortly the whole continent will be as united in sentiment and in their measures of opposition to tyranny as the inhabitants of this province. Their old good-will and affection for the parent country are not totally lost; if she returns to her former moderation and good-humor, their affection will revive. They wish for nothing more than a permanent union with her upon the condition of equal liberty. This is all they have been contending for; and nothing short of this will, or ought to, satisfy them." This was the ultimatum of Massachusetts. The General Congress followed. (See *Continental Congress, The First*.)

Ultimatum of the Secessionists. Senator Wigfall, of Texas, on the floor of the United States Senate (Feb. 21, 1861), spoke for the Secessionists and their Northern friends, as their ultimatum, these pregnant words: "We say that man has a right to property in man. We say that our slaves are our *property*. We say that it is the duty of every government to protect its property everywhere. . . . If you wish to settle this matter, declare that slaves are property, and, like all other property, entitled to be protected in every quarter of the globe, on land and on the sea. Say that to us, and then the difficulty is settled."

Ultimatum of the United States (1779). Vergennes pressed the United States, through the French minister at Philadelphia, to accede to the demands of Spain, the price of whose friendship was Pensacola and the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi River. It was

intimated that if these demands were not complied with, Spain and England might make common cause against the Americans. Congress referred the subject (Feb. 17, 1779) to a special committee, composed of Gouverneur Morris, Burke, Witherspoon, Samuel Adams, and Smith of Virginia. They reported (Feb. 23) as the ultimatum of the United States, in case of the acknowledgment of the independence of the new Republic by Great Britain, that the territory should extend from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from the Floridas to Canada and Nova Scotia; that the right of fishing and curing fish on the Banks of Newfoundland should belong equally to the United States, France, and Great Britain; and that the navigation of the Mississippi should be free to the United States down to the southern boundary, with the benefit of a free port below, in the Spanish dominion. Ten states refused to adopt the clause concerning the right to the free navigation of the Mississippi, for it was a question between the United States and Spain alone. Great Britain, according to the American view of the case, was not to possess any territory on the Mississippi, from its source to its mouth. The Congress also agreed to a clause making it optional with the United States to extend their boundaries westward from Lake Ontario on the parallel of the forty-fifth degree. In May, 1779, Congress repudiated its resolve "that in no case, by any treaty of peace, should the common right of the fisheries be given up." In June the question of the terms of peace was again discussed, and the French minister, alarmed lest the action of Congress might break the then political connection between France and Spain (see *Convention between France and Spain*), sought an interview with leading members of that body. In that interview he threatened the United States with disaster if the policy of France and Spain should not be complied with. He tried to persuade the United States to end the war by a truce. But finally the Congress, unwilling to give up the navigation of the Mississippi and other demands of Spain, ended the discussion for the time by resolving to send a minister of its own to Spain. On Sept. 26 the Congress appointed John Jay minister to Spain, and John Adams was appointed to negotiate a treaty of commerce with Great Britain. Spain refused to receive Jay.

Unauthorized Use of Public Money.

Through the efforts of young John Laurens, Dr. Franklin had received from the French government a large sum of money, which Laurens brought to the United States. The French government wished it to be disbursed by Washington, but he refused a trust which would have aroused the jealousy of Congress. South Carolina had at that time an unexecuted contract in Holland for supplies. Laurens, who was acting for his state (South Carolina) as well as for the United States, made a transfer of the funds to South Carolina, and, "without taking the pains," says Bancroft, "to understand the condition of the business, and without su-

perintending it, paid all arrears out of the funds obtained from France. South Carolina was relieved from a burdensome engagement; while great and, as it proved, useless expenses were thrown on the United States."

Uncas, Sachem of the Mohegans in Connecticut, died at Norwich, Conn., about 1682, at a great age. His remains rest under a monument of granite in the Mohegan royal cemetery, upon a high plain in Norwich. Uncas was originally



UNCAS'S MONUMENT.

a Pequod sachem, but about the year 1635 he revolted against Sassacus and gathered a band of Indians who were known by the name of Mohegans, the ancient title of his nation. He joined the English in their war with the Pequods in 1637 (see *Pequod War*), and received for his services a portion of the Pequod territory. When the war was over, Uncas shielded many of the Pequods from the wrath of the English, and incurred the enmity of the colonists for a time; but the white people soon gave him their confidence, and treated him with so much distinction that jealous Indians tried to assassinate him. For this treachery Uncas conquered one of the sachems on the Connecticut River, and in 1643 he overpowered the Narragansets and took Miantonomoh prisoner. By consent of the authorities at Hartford, he caused the Narraganset monarch to be put to death. Having cut a piece from the shoulder of his fallen enemy, the savage Uncas eagerly devoured it, declaring that it made his heart strong—"the sweetest morsel he ever ate." A block of granite marks the spot, near Norwich, where Miantonomoh was slain. In 1648 the Mohawks and others waged an unsuccessful war against Uncas. In 1657 he was besieged in his stronghold on the Connecticut River by the Narraganset chief Pessacus, and was nearly starved out when some white soldiers came to his relief with supplies. For this act Uncas gave the white leader (Ensign Leffingwell) a deed for the land on which Norwich now stands, but afterwards sold it to a company. A writer, in 1674, alluded to him as "an old and wicked, wilful man, a drunkard, and otherwise very vicious, who hath always been an opposer and underminer of praying to God."

Uncle Sam. A cant name of the government of the United States. Its origin was as follows: Samuel Wilson, commonly called "Uncle Sam," was an inspector of beef and pork, at Troy, N. Y., purchased for the government after the declaration of war against England in 1812. A contractor named Elbert Anderson purchased a quantity of provisions, and the barrels were marked "E. A.," the initials of his name, and "U. S.," for United States. The latter initials were not familiar to Wilson's workmen, who inquired what they meant. A facetious fellow answered, "I don't know, unless they mean 'Uncle Sam.'" A vast amount of property afterwards passed through Wilson's hands, marked in the same way, and he was rallied on the extent of his possessions. The joke spread, and it was not long before the initials of the United States were regarded as "Uncle Sam," which name has been in popular parlance ever since. The song says:

"Uncle Sam is rich enough to give us all a farm."

Underground Railroad. A popular designation of the secret means by which slaves, fleeing from the slave-labor states for their liberty, escaped through the Northern States into Canada during the operation of the Fugitive Slave Law. These secret means were various kinds of aid given to the slaves by their Northern friends. (See *Fugitive Slave Law*.)

Underhill, CAPTAIN JOHN, was born in Warwickshire, England; died at Oyster Bay, L. I., about 1672. He had been a soldier on the Continent; came to New England with Winthrop in 1630; represented Boston in the General Court; favored Mrs. Hutchinson (see *Hutchinsonian Controversy*); and was associated with Captain Mason, in command of forces in the Pequot War, in 1637. Banished from Boston as a heretic, he went to England, and there published a history of the Pequot War, entitled *News from America*. Dover, N. H., regarded as a place of refuge for the persecuted, received Underhill, and he was chosen governor. It was discovered that it lay within the chartered limits of Massachusetts, and the latter claimed political jurisdiction over it. Underhill treated the claim with contempt at first, but, being accused of gross immorality, he became alarmed, and not only yielded his power, but urged the people to submit to Massachusetts. He went before the General Court and made a most abject confession of the truth of the charges. He did the same publicly in the church, and was excommunicated. He afterwards lived at Stamford, Conn., and in 1646 went to Flushing, L. I. In the war between the Dutch and Indians he commanded troops, and in 1655 he represented Oyster Bay in the Assembly at Hempstead. His descendants still possess lands given him by Indians on Long Island.

Unfaithful Cabinet Ministers. Three of President Buchanan's cabinet ministers were unfaithful to their trusts, and were engaged in a conspiracy for the overthrow of the Republic while in office and sworn to protect it from harm. These were the Secretary of the Treas-

ury, Howell Cobb, of Georgia; the Secretary of War, John B. Floyd, of Virginia; and the Secretary of the Interior, Jacob Thompson, of Mississippi. These men had evidently been engaged in secret movements against the life of the Republic before they became cabinet ministers. After the nomination of Mr. Lincoln, whose election seemed certain, they were active in movements tending to the destruction of the Union. The Assistant Secretary of State, W. H. Trescott, one of the most active members of the "Southern Rights Association" of South Carolina, revealed not only this fact, but the secret designs of the Secretary of the Treasury, so early as Nov. 1, 1860. In a letter of that date (the original is before me) he wrote from Washington to the editor of the *Charleston Mercury*, as follows:

"DEAR RHETT.—I received your letter this morning. As to my views or opinions of the administration, I can, of course, say nothing. As to Mr. Cobb's views, he is willing that I should communicate them to you, in order that they may aid you in forming your own judgment; but you will understand that this is confidential—that is, neither Mr. Cobb nor myself must be quoted as the source of your information. I will not dwell on this, as you will, on a moment's reflection, see the embarrassment which might be produced by any *authorized* statement of his opinions. I will only add, by way of preface, that, after the very fullest and freest conversations with him, I feel sure of his earnestness, singleness of purpose, and resolution in the whole matter. Mr. Cobb believes that the time is come for resistance; that upon the election of Lincoln, Georgia ought to secede from the Union; and that she will do so. That Georgia and every other state should, as far as secession, act for herself, resuming her delegated powers, and thus put herself in position to consult with other sovereign states who take the same ground. After the secession is effected, then will be the time to consult. But he is of opinion, most strongly, that whatever action is resolved on should be consummated on the 4th of March, not before. That while the action determined on should be decisive and irrevocable, its initial point should be the 4th of March. He is opposed to any Southern convention merely for the purpose of consultation. If a Southern convention is held, it must be of delegates empowered to *act*, whose action is at once binding on the states they represent. But he desires me to impress upon you his conviction that any attempt to precipitate the actual issue upon this administration will be most mischievous—calculated to produce differences of opinion and destroy unanimity. He thinks it of great importance that the cotton crop should go forward at once, and that the money should be in the hands of the people, that the cry of popular distress should not be heard at the outset of this move.* My own opinion is, it would be well to have a discreet man—one who knows the value of silence, who can listen wisely—at Milledgeville [capital of Georgia], at the meeting of the State Legislature, as there will be there an outside gathering of the very ablest men of the state. And the next point, that you should, at the earliest possible day of the session of our own Legislature, elect a man as governor whose name and character will conciliate, as well as give confidence to, all the men of the state. If we do act, I really think this half the battle—a man on whose temper the state can rely. I say nothing about a convention, as I understand on all hands that it is a fixed fact, and I have confined myself to answering your questions. I will be much obliged to you if you will write me soon and fully from Columbia. It is impossible to write to you, with the constant interruption of the office, and, as you want Cobb's opinion, not mine, I send this to you.

"Yours, W. H. T."

Floyd *acted*, but did not *write*. He stripped the arsenals of the free-labor states of arms and ammunition, and crowded those of the slave-labor states with these munitions of war. (See *Floyd's Disloyal Acts*.) Thompson had been an avowed disunionist for ten years. From his seat in Congress in 1850 he wrote (Sept. 2) to General

* It was a common practice for the planters to receive pay for their crops in advance. The crop then to "go forward" was already paid for. The money which was to be received on its delivery was for the next year's crop, which would never be delivered. So the Northern people would lose many million dollars.

Quitman, then Governor of Mississippi, saying, "When the President of the United States commands me to do one act, and the executive of Mississippi commands me to do another thing inconsistent with the first order, I obey the governor of my state. To Mississippi I owe *allegiance*, and, because she commands, I owe *obedience* to the United States"—the doctrine of state supremacy in a nutshell. On Nov. 20, 1860, Thompson, Secretary of the Interior, wrote from his official desk at Washington: "My allegiance is due to Mississippi and her destiny. I believe she ought to resist, and to the bitter end, Black Republican rule. (See *Black Republican*.) . . . As long as I am here I shall shield and protect the South. Whenever it shall come to pass that I think I can do no further good here, I shall return home. Buchanan is the truest friend of the South I have ever known in the North. He is a jewel of a man." After speaking of the intended secession of Mississippi, he said: "I want the co-operation of the Southern States. I wish to do all I can to secure their sympathy and co-operation. A confederacy of the Southern States will be strong enough to command the respect of the world and the love and confidence of our people at home. South Carolina will go. I consider Georgia and Florida as certain, Alabama probable. Then Mississippi must go. But I want Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, North Carolina, Virginia; and Maryland will not stay behind long. As soon as our mechanics, our merchants, our lawyers, our editors, look this matter in the face and calculate the consequences, they will see their interest so strong in the movement I fear they will be violent beyond control." Floyd and Thompson remained in office until January, 1861. Cobb, who for several months had been endeavoring to destroy the public credit of the United States, resigned Dec. 8, 1860—two days after he had written, from his official desk in the Treasury Department, an inflammatory address to the people of Georgia, in which he said: "On the 4th of March, 1861, the Federal government will pass into the hands of the Abolitionists. It will then cease to have the slightest claim either upon your confidence or your loyalty; and, in my honest judgment, each hour that Georgia remains thereafter a member of the Union will be an hour of degradation, to be followed by certain and speedy ruin. I entertain no doubt either of your right or your duty to secede from the Union. Arouse, then, all your manhood for the great work before you, and be prepared, on that day, to announce and maintain your independence of the Union, for you will never again have equality or justice in it. Identified with you in heart, feeling, and interest, I return to share in whatever destiny the future has in store for our state and ourselves." In his letter of resignation, Cobb informed the President of this address, and of his determination to assist his state in the work of revolution.

Uniforms of the American Army. The American provincial troops serving with British

regulars in the colonial wars were generally without uniforms; but there were exceptions. The New Jersey infantry, under Colonel Schuyler, were clad in blue cloth, and obtained the name of "The Jersey Blues." Their coats were blue faced with red, gray stockings, and buckskin breeches. The portrait of Washington, painted by Charles Wilson Peale in 1772, shows his dress as a Virginia colonel of infantry to be a blue coat faced with buff, and buff waistcoat and breeches. This was his uniform during the Revolution, and in it he appeared at the session of the Second Continental Congress (1775), indicating, as Mr. Adams construed it, his readiness for the field in any station. In this costume he appeared when, early in July, 1775, he took command of the army at Cambridge. There is a political significance in the blue-and-buff-colored uniform. The coats of the soldiers of William of Orange who invaded Ireland in 1689 were blue faced with orange or buff, and this Hollandish insignia became that of the English Whigs, or champions of constitutional liberty. The American Whigs naturally adopted these colors for a military uniform. In the battle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill there were no uniformed companies. Washington prescribed a uniform for his officers on his arrival soon afterwards. Their coats were blue faced with buff, and the generals each wore a ribbon across the breast—each grade of a separate color. Field-officers wore different-colored cockades to distinguish their rank. Brown being then the color most convenient to be procured, Washington prescribed for the field-officers brown coats, the distinction between regiments to be marked by the facings. He also recommended the general adoption by the rank and file of the hunting-shirt, with trousers buttoned at the ankle. This was always the costume of the riflemen or sharpshooters; and Washington remarked that "it is a dress justly supposed to carry no small terror to the enemy, who think every such person a complete marksman." These hunting-shirts were black, white, or of neutral colors. The uniform of Washington's Life-guard, organized early in the war, was a blue coat faced with buff, red waistcoat, buckskin breeches, and black felt hat bound with white tape. The different colonies had uniformed companies in the earlier period of the struggle. The prevailing color of their coats was blue, with buff or white facings. For a long time the artillery were not uniformed, but in 1777 their regulation costume was "a dark-blue or black coat reaching to the knee and full-trimmed, the lapels fastened back, with ten open-worked button-holes in yellow silk on the breast of each lapel, and ten large regimental yellow buttons at equal distances on each side, three large yellow regimental buttons on each cuff, and a like number on each pocket-flap; the skirts to hook back, showing the red lining; bottom of coat cut square; red lapels, cuff-linings, and standing capes; single-breasted white waistcoat with twelve small regimental buttons; white breeches, black half-gaiters, white stock, ruffled shirt, and at the wrists, and black cocked hat bound with yellow; red plume

and black cockade; gilt-handled small-sword, and gilt epaulets." For the navy officers—blue coats with red facings, red waistcoats, blue breeches, and yellow buttons; and for its marine officers, a green coat with white facings, white breeches edged with green, white waistcoat, white buttons, silver epaulets, and black gaiters. The distress of the American soldiers for want of clothing was at its height during their winter encampment at Valley Forge. Baron Steuben wrote: "The description of the dress is most easily given. The men were literally naked—some of them in the fullest extent of the word. The officers who had coats had them of every color and make. I saw an officer at a grand parade at Valley Forge mounting guard in a sort of dressing-gown made of an old blanket or woollen bed-cover." The uniform of the Continental army was prescribed by a general order issued in October, 1779, by the commander-in-chief. The coat was to be blue, and the facings for infantry varied—white, buff, red, and blue. Those of the artillery and artificers were faced with scarlet, with scarlet linings, and of the light dragoons faced with white; white buttons and linings. Until this time the uniforms of the Continental army had been variegated. In the summer of 1780 Washington prescribed the uniforms of the general officers, and of the staff generally. The coats and facings were the same as those already described—blue, buff, and white. The major-generals to wear two epaulets, with two stars upon each, and a black and white feather in the hat; the brigadiers a single star and a white feather; the colonels, two epaulets; the captains, an epaulet on the right shoulder; the subalterns, an epaulet on the left shoulder; the aides-de-camp, the uniform of their rank and corps; those of the major-generals and brigadier-generals to have a green feather in the hat; those of the commander-in-chief, a white feather. Cockades were to be worn in the hat by all military men. In the field, such of the regiments as had hunting-shirts were required to wear them. In the summer of 1782 the uniform of the infantry and cavalry was prescribed as follows: "Blue ground, with red facings and white linings, and buttoned;" the artillery and sappers and miners to retain their uniform. The cavalry had brass helmets, with white horse-hair. It was found difficult to procure the prescribed color for clothing, and the order was only partially complied with. White facings were generally used; the buff rarely, excepting by the general officers. At the close of the Revolution some of the colonels of infantry wore black round hats, with black and red feathers. During the period of the Confederation the troops retained substantially the uniform of the Continental army. In 1787 the shoulder-strap of dark blue edged with red first made its appearance. In 1792 bearskin-covered knapsacks, instead of linen painted ones, were first issued to the troops. In 1796 the infantry had dark-blue coats reaching to the knee and full-trimmed, scarlet lapels, cuffs, and standing capes, retaining white buttons, white trimmings, and white under-dress, black stocks,

and cocked hats with white binding. Black top-boots now replaced the shoe and black half-gaiter. In 1794 the artillery wore helmets with red plumes. The coats of the musicians were red, with pale-blue facings, blue waistcoats and breeches, and a silk epaulet for the chief musician. This was the uniform of the drummers in the royal regiments of the British army at an early period, it being the royal livery. The red coat was the uniform of the drummers in the American army until 1857. In 1799 the white plume was prescribed for the infantry; it is worn now (1880). The cavalry had green coats and white facings, white vests and breeches, top-boots, and leather helmet with black horse-hair. In Jefferson's administration the infantry wore round ("stove-pipe") hats, with brim three inches wide, and with a strip of bearskin across the crown. Artillery officers had gold epaulets. The infantry wore a white belt over the shoulder and across the breast, with an oval breast-plate three by two and a half inches, ornamented with an eagle. In 1810 high standing collars for the coats were prescribed, and in 1812 they were ordered to "reach the tip of the ear, and in front as high as the chin would permit in turning the head." At that time many changes were made in the uniform. Officers of the general staff wore cocked hats without feathers; single-breasted blue coats with ten gilt buttons; vest and breeches, or pantaloons, white or buff; high military boots and gilt spurs; and waist-belts of black leather, but no sashes. The rank and file were put into blue coats, or jackets. The medical officers, whose coats had been dark blue from 1787, were put into black coats in 1812. In 1814 a portion of the army on the Niagara frontier were compelled by circumstances to change from blue to gray. (See *Cadet's Gray*.) In the army regulations in 1821 dark blue was declared to be the national color. President Jackson, in 1832, tried to restore the "facings" which were worn in the Revolution, but was only partially successful. When the Civil War broke out in 1861 some of the volunteer troops were dressed in gray. As the Confederates adopted the same color for their regulars, and butternut brown for their militia, the United States troops were clad in blue, with black felt hats and feathers and gilt epaulets for officers. In this old Whig color they fought in defence of the Republic. After the close of the war the infantry coats had white edgings, stripes, and facings, and plumes of the Revolution; and the artillery the red plume, red facings, and yellow buttons of the same period. General officers alone retained buff sashes and buff-colored body-belts.

Union Armies in Virginia. When McClellan's army went to the Virginia peninsula (April, 1862), there were three distinct Union armies in the vicinity of the Blue Ridge, acting independently, but in co-operation with the Army of the Potomac. One was in the "Mountain Department," under General Frémont; a second in the "Department of the Shenandoah," under General Banks; and a third in the newly created "Department of the Rappahannock," under

General McDowell. Frémont was at Franklin, in Pendleton County, early in April, with 15,000 men; Banks was at Strasburg, in the Shenandoah valley, with about 16,000 men; and McDowell was at Fredericksburg, on the Rappahannock, with 30,000 men. When Washington was relieved by the departure of Johnson for the Peninsula, McDowell was ordered forward to co-operate with McClellan, and Shields's division was added to his force, making it about 40,000.

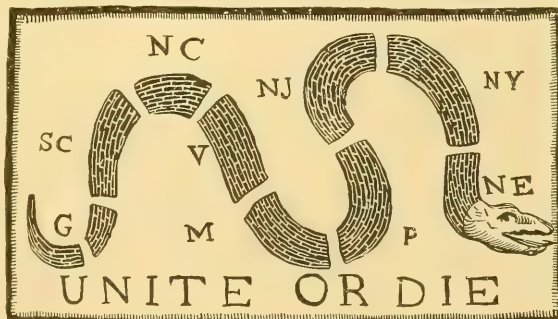
Union Called For. After the destruction of tea in Boston harbor, there was a general impression throughout the colonies that unity of action was indispensable. The *Boston Gazette* expressed the sentiments of the people when it said, on Dec. 27, 1773: "There is no time to be lost; a congress or a meeting of the American states is indispensable; and what the people will shall be effected."

Union Convention in North Carolina. Satisfied that there was a prevailing Union sentiment in eastern North Carolina, Colonel Hawkins, who had been left to garrison the Hatteras forts (which see), issued a proclamation to the people of that portion of the state, assuring them that the National troops made war only on the enemies of the government, and had come to support the loyal people in upholding the law and the Constitution. A response to this was a convention of the people in the vicinity of Cape Hatteras (Oct. 12, 1861), who professed to be loyal. By resolutions the convention offered the loyalty of its members to the national government. A committee drew up and reported a list of grievances; also a declaration of independence of Confederate rule. A more important convention was held at Hatteras more than a month later (Nov. 18), in which representatives from forty-five of the counties of North Carolina appeared. That body assumed the functions of a state government, and by a strongly worded ordinance provided for the government of North Carolina in allegiance to the national Constitution. The promise of good was so hopeful that President Lincoln, by proclamation, ordered an election to be held in the First Congressional District in North Carolina. C. H. Foster was elected to Congress, but never took a seat. This haven of loyalty in North Carolina was soon destroyed by the strong arm of Confederate power.

Union Defence Committee of New York. On the evening of the day (April 15, 1861) when the President called for seventy-five thousand troops to put down insurrection in the South, some gentlemen met at the house of an influential citizen in New York and resolved to take immediate steps for the support of the national government. They made arrangements for a great public meeting (April 20) at Union Square. (See *Union Meeting in New York*.) At that gathering a Committee of Safety was appointed, com-

posed of some of the most eminent citizens of New York, of all parties, and that evening it was organized under the title of "The Union Defence Committee of New York." The chairman was John A. Dix; vice-chairman, Simeon Draper; secretary, William M. Everts; treasurer, Theodore Dehon. The other members of this remarkable committee were Moses Taylor, R. M. Blatchford, Edwards Pierrepont, Alexander T. Stewart, Samuel Sloane, John Jacob Astor, Jr., John J. Cisco, James S. Wadsworth, Isaac Bell, James Boorman, Charles H. Marshall, Robert H. McCurdy, Moses H. Grinnell, Royal Phelps, W. E. Dodge, Greene C. Bronson, Hamilton Fish, William F. Havemeyer, Charles H. Russell, James T. Brady, Rudolph A. Witthaus, A. A. Low, Prosper M. Wetmore, A. C. Richards, and the Mayor, Comptroller, and presidents of the two boards of the Common Council of the city of New York. The specific duties assigned to the committee by the great meeting that appointed it were "to represent the citizens in the collection of funds, and the transaction of such other business, in aid of the movements of the government, as the public interests may require." So zealously and efficiently did this committee work, in concert with Major-general Wool, that within ten days after the President's call for troops no less than eight thousand well-equipped and fully armed men had gone to the field from the city of New York. During the existence of this committee, which continued about a year, it disbursed almost \$1,000,000 which the corporation of New York had appropriated for war purposes and placed at its disposal. It assisted in the organization, equipment, etc., of forty-nine regiments, or about forty thousand men. For military purposes, it spent of the city fund nearly \$759,000, and for the relief of soldiers' families \$230,000.

Union Devices. When the quarrel between the British Parliament and the English-American colonies became warm, the patriotic newspapers in America, as well as handbills, bore devices emblematic of union. One was espe-



UNION DEVICE.

cially a favorite—namely, a snake, disjointed, each separate part representing one of the thirteen English-American colonies, with the words "Unite or die." This snake device first appeared when the Stamp-act excitement was at

its height. John Holt, the patriotic publisher of the *New York Journal*, varied it after the adjournment of the First Continental Congress in 1774. He had a column standing upon *Magna Charta*, and firmly grasped, as a pillar indicating inalienable rights,



UNION DEVICE.

by twelve hands, representing the twelve colonies (Georgia not having had a representative in that Congress). The hands belonged to bare arms coming out of the clouds, denoting heavenly strength. The whole was surrounded by a large serpent, perfect, and in two coils, on whose body were the following words:

"United, now, alive and free,
Firm on this basis Liberty shall stand,
And, thus supported, ever bless our land,
Till time becomes eternity."

After the Declaration of Independence a print appeared in London with a device combining a part of Holt's (the hands, thirteen of them), but instead of bare arms they were heavily mailed, denoting warfare, and symbolizing union by grasping an endless chain. These arms all came out of the clouds, indicating that their strength was from above. Within the chain was a radiant heart, and within the heart a lighted candle, denoting the sincerity, truth, rectitude, and divine emotions of those whose hearts were engaged in the cause. Above this device was a balance equipoised, with a naked sword, held in the paw of a lion couchant. The lion symbolized British power; the sword, in that connection, British valor; and the balance, British justice. These the Americans, who were yet a part of the British nation, invoked in aid of their cause. A noon-day sun, shining near, indicated that the Americans stood manfully, in broad daylight, before the world in defence of their rights, and invited the closest scrutiny of their conduct.

Union First Announced. In the second petition of the Continental Congress to the king (July, 1775), written by John Dickinson, negotiation was thus proffered, according to Duane's proposition (which see): "We beseech your majesty to direct some mode by which the united applications of your faithful colonists to the throne may be improved into a happy and permanent reconciliation; and that in the meantime measures may be taken for preventing the further destruction of the lives of your majesty's subjects, and that such statutes as more immediately distress any of your majesty's colonies may be repealed." This was the first official announcement to the king of the union of the colonies, and their refusal to treat separately confirmed it. It was a great step towards independence. The king could not consistently receive a document from Congress, whose legality he denied. They thought to have it received if the members individually signed it. Dickinson believed it would be received. He de-

plored one word in it — Congress — and that proved fatal to it. "It is the only word which I wish altered," he said. "It is the only word I wish to retain" was the reply of the staunch patriot Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia. Richard Penn, a proprietary of Pennsylvania and recently its governor — a loyal Englishman — was selected to bear this second petition to the throne.

Union, FIRST ASSERTION OF THE. The first official intimation that the English-American colonies were politically united was in the following resolution adopted by the second Continental Congress, June 7, 1775: "On motion, *Resolved*, That Thursday, the 20th of July next, be observed throughout the Twelve United Colonies as a day of humiliation, fasting, and prayer." After that the term "United Colonies" was frequently used; and in the Declaration of Independence the term "United States" was first used. Georgia not having sent delegates to the first and second congresses, only "twelve" were alluded to in the expression. The inhabitants of St. John's parish, in Georgia, had chosen Lyman Hall (March 21, 1775) to represent them in the Congress, and he took his seat on the third day of the session, but without the privilege of voting. The movements in St. John's soon led to the accession of Georgia to the Continental Union, making the number of colonies that carried on the war thirteen.

Union Flag at Boston. On the 1st of January, 1776, the new Continental army was organized, and on that day the Union flag was displayed over Washington's camp at Cambridge for the first time, in compliment to the United Colonies. "The hoisting of that flag," Washington wrote to Joseph Reed, "was received at Boston by the British commanders as a token of the deep impression the king's speech had made upon the Americans, and as a signal of submission. . . . By this time, I suppose, they begin to think it strange that we have not made a formal surrender of our lines." Why the hoisting of the Union flag in compliment to the United Colonies should have been received by the British as "a signal of submission" was a question which historians could not answer until 1855, when the writer of this work discovered among the papers of General Philip Schuyler a drawing of the *Royal Savage*, Arnold's flag-vessel on Lake Champlain in the battle in October, 1776, with the Union flag at its mast-head. It was composed of thirteen stripes, alternately red and white, with the British union—the combined crosses of St. George and St. Andrew—in an upper corner of the flag. It was the British union that excited the hopes of the British officers that the Americans were about to submit. Why was the British union in the American flag? The colonies had not yet declared themselves independent, and did not for six months afterwards. They acknowledged their allegiance to Great Britain and loyalty to the king, and were only opposing the oppressive measures of the British ministry and Parliament. They were yet British subjects, and so they displayed

the emblem of colonial union by the stripes, and their continued loyalty by the British union.

Union Meeting in New York. On April 20, 1861, a most remarkable meeting was held in Union Square, New York. Places of business were closed, that all might participate in the proceedings. It was estimated that at least 100,000 persons were present during the afternoon. The soiled and tattered flag which Major Anderson had brought from Sumter was placed in the hands of the equestrian statue of Washington standing there. Four stands for officers and speakers had been erected, and the multitude were addressed by representative men of all political parties. At the principal stand, John A. Dix, late Secretary of War, presided. The most notable speech on the occasion was that of Senator Baker, of Oregon, a leading Democrat in Congress. He appealed to the young men of the United States. "In all the broad land," he said, "in their rebel nest, in their traitor's camp, no truthful man can rise and say that he has ever been disturbed, though it be for a single moment, in life, liberty, estate, character, or honor. The day they began this unnatural, false, wicked, rebellious warfare, their lives were more secure, their property more secure by us—not by themselves, but by us—guarded far more securely than any people ever had their lives and property secured from the beginning of the world. We have committed no oppression, have broken no compact, have exercised no unholy power; have been loyal, moderate, constitutional, and just. We are a majority of this Union, and we will govern our own Union, within our Constitution, in our way. We are all Democrats. We are all Republicans. We acknowledge the sovereignty of the people within the rule of the Constitution, and under that Constitution and beneath that flag, let traitors beware." Other able representatives of the venerable Democratic party spoke similar sentiments. The influence of this great meeting upon the whole country was marked. It encouraged the loyal people everywhere, for it attested the devotion to their country of the citizens of the great commercial metropolis, which, in the course of the four years of the war that ensued, gave 100,000 soldiers to the Union army, and contributed in actual expenditures of money, the loss of the labor of their able-bodied men, private and public contributions, taxes, etc., not less than \$300,000,000. The resolutions adopted were of the most patriotic character, and for several months afterwards the government had fewer obstacles cast in its way by political opponents.

Union of New England for Peace. Towards the close of 1813, the whole of the New England states presented a united front in opposition to the national administration and the war. The Peace faction was very active, and industriously sowed discontent. The newspapers and orators of the ultra-Federal party denounced the administration as hostile to New England, which, it was asserted, was treated as a conquered province; her great interests—commerce and navi-

gation—being sacrificed, and her sentiments of right and justice trampled upon. They declared that every New England man of promise in public affairs had been for twelve years proscribed by the national government, and that, reduced as New England was by follies and oppressions to the brink of ruin, it was her first duty to consult her own interest and safety. The idea was broached in a Boston newspaper (*Daily Advertiser*) that it would be desirable for New England to conclude a separate peace with Great Britain, or, at least, assume a position of neutrality, leaving it to the states that chose to fight it out to their hearts' content. No person appeared as the avowed champion of such a step. It was denounced as a treasonable suggestion, and produced considerable anxiety at Washington. These discontents finally led to the Hartford Convention (which see).

Union Troops, FIRST, TO LAND AT BALTIMORE. General Patterson, in command of the Department of Pennsylvania, determined to vindicate the dignity and honor of his government after the attack on Massachusetts troops, sent the First Pennsylvania Volunteer Artillery (Seventeenth in the line) and Sherman's Battery, in all 930 men, commanded by his son, Colonel Francis E. Patterson, to force a passage through Baltimore. These troops left Philadelphia on May 8, accompanied by some of the regulars from Texas. (See *Twiggs, David E., Treacherous Conduct of*.) They went down the Chesapeake in the steamers *Fanny Cadwalader* and *Maryland*. The whole force was about 1200 strong. They debarked at Locust Point, near Fort McHenry, under cover of the guns of the *Harriet Lane* and a small gunboat, at about four o'clock (May 8), in the presence of the Mayor of Baltimore, Marshal Kane, police commissioners, and a considerable police force. The Union sentiment was then finding expression in Baltimore. Hundreds of excited citizens crowded the wharves at the landing-place, and the troops received hearty shouts of welcome. The mayor and police were overawed, and the Pennsylvanians passed through the city on their way to Washington without molestation. They were the pioneers of the immense army that passed through Baltimore without hindrance during the war that ensued. (See *Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore*.)

Unitas Fratrum. (See *Moravians in America*.)

United Colonies of New England. In May, 1643, delegates from Connecticut, New Haven, and Plymouth, and the General Court of Massachusetts, assembled at Boston to consider measures against the common danger from the Dutch in Manhattan and the Indians. Delegates were not invited from Rhode Island, for that colony was considered "schismatic" and an intruder. When it asked for admission, it was refused, unless it would acknowledge allegiance to Plymouth. Then it applied for a charter, and obtained it in 1644. (See *Rhode Island, Colony of*.) A confederacy was formed under the above title, and continued for more than forty years (1643-1686), while the government of England was changed three times during that period. It was

a confederacy of states like our early Union (see *Articles of Confederation*), and local supreme jurisdiction was jealously reserved by each colony. Thus early was the doctrine of state supremacy developed. (See *State Supremacy or Sovereignty*.) The general affairs of the confederacy were managed by a board of commissioners consisting of two church-members from each colony, who were to meet in a congress annually, or oftener if required. Their duty was to consider circumstances and recommend measures for the general good. They had no executive power, nor supreme legislative power. Their propositions were referred to and finally acted upon by the several colonies, each assuming an independent sovereignty. But war was not to be declared by one colony without the consent of this congress of commissioners, to whose province Indian affairs and foreign relations were especially consigned. All war expenses were to be a common charge, and runaway servants and fugitive criminals were to be delivered up; and it was soon an established rule that judgments of courts of law and probates of wills in each colony should have full faith and credit in all others. The commissioners of Massachusetts, representing by far the most powerful colony of the league, and assuming to be a "perfect republic," claimed precedence, which the others readily conceded. New Haven was the weakest member of the league, Plymouth next, but all were growing. Fort Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut River, was yet an independent settlement. (See *Say-Brook, Fort*.)

United Colonies, THE (so first called). The second Continental Congress assembled at Philadelphia on May 10, 1775. The harmony of action in that body, and the important events in the various colonies which had been pressed upon their notice, made the representatives feel that the union was complete, notwithstanding Georgia had not yet sent a delegate to the Congress. Recognizing this fact, the Congress, on June 7, in ordering a fast, *Resolved*, "That Thursday, the 20th of July next, be observed throughout the Twelve United Colonies as a day of humiliation, fasting, and prayer." When, exactly one year later, a resolution declaring these colonies "free and independent states" was adopted, the committee to draft a declaration to that effect entitled the new government The United States of America.

United States and Georgia, CONTROVERSY BETWEEN THE. By a compact between the national government and Georgia, made in 1802, they forever agreed, in consideration of the latter relinquishing her claim to the Mississippi Territory, to extinguish, at the national expense, the Indian title to the lands occupied by them in Georgia, "whenever it could be peaceably done on reasonable terms." Since making that agreement, the national government had extinguished the Indian title to about 15,000,000 acres, and conveyed the same to the State of Georgia. There still remained 9,537,000 acres in possession of the Indians, of which 5,292,000 acres belonged to the Cherokees and the remainder to

the Creek nation. In 1824 the state government became clamorous for the entire removal of the Indians from the commonwealth, and, at the solicitation of Governor Troup, President Monroe appointed two commissioners, selected by the governor, to make a treaty with the Creeks for the purchase of their lands. The latter were unwilling to sell and move away, for they had begun to enjoy the arts and comforts of civilization. They passed a law forbidding the sale of any of their lands, on pain of death. After the breaking-up of the general council, a few of the chiefs violated this law by negotiating with the United States commissioners. By these chiefs, who were only a fraction of the leaders of the tribes, all the lands of the Creeks in Georgia were ceded to the United States. The treaty was ratified by the United States Senate, March 3, 1825. When information of these proceedings reached the Creeks, a secret council determined not to accept the treaty and to slay McIntosh, the chief of the party who had assented to it. He and another chief were shot, April 30. A new question now arose. Governor Troup contended that upon the ratification of the treaty the fee simple of the lands vested in Georgia. He took measures for a survey of the lands, under the authority of the Legislature of Georgia, and to distribute them among the white inhabitants of the state. The remonstrances of the Creeks caused President Adams to appoint a special agent to investigate the matter, and General Gaines was sent with a competent force to prevent any disturbance. The agent reported that bad faith and corruption had marked the treaty, and that forty-nine fiftieths of the Creeks were hostile to it. The President determined not to allow interference with the Indians until the next meeting of Congress. Troup determined, at first, to execute the treaty in spite of the President, but the firmness of the latter made the governor hesitate. A new negotiation was opened with the Creeks, and finally resulted in the cession of all the Creek lands in Georgia to the United States. By this new treaty the Creeks retained all their lands in Alabama, which had been ceded by a former treaty.

United States and Macedonian. Commodore Rodgers sailed from Boston (Oct. 10, 1812) in the *President*, accompanied by the *United States*, 44 guns, Captain Decatur, and the *Argus*, 16 guns, Lieutenant-commandant Sinclair, leaving the *Hornet* in port. The *President* parted company with her companions on Oct. 12, and, on the 17th, captured a British packet. The *United States* and *Argus* also parted company, the former sailing to the southward and eastward in search of British West Indiamen. At dawn, on Sunday morning, the 25th, the watch at the maintop of the *United States* discovered a sail to windward—an English ship-of-war. Decatur spread all his sails and gave chase, and, as the *United States* drew nearer and nearer the British ship, such loud shouts went up from her decks that they were heard on board the vessel of the enemy. At about nine o'clock in the morning, Decatur had got so near that he open-

ed a broadside upon the strange vessel, with much effect. It was responded to in kind, both vessels being on the same tack. They continued the fight by a heavy and steady cannonade with the long guns of each, the distance being so great that carronades and muskets were of no avail. In the course of half an hour the British vessel was fearfully injured, and her commander, perceiving that her only safety from destruction was to engage in close action, drew up to the *United States* for that purpose. The latter, with splendid gunnery, sent shots which cut her enemy's mizzen-mast so that it fell overboard. Very soon her main and fore top-masts were gone and her fore-mast was tottering. No colors were seen floating over her deck. Her main-mast was severely damaged, while the *United States* remained almost unhurt. Decatur bore away for a while, and his antago-

on the 1st of January, 1813, the *Macedonian* was anchored in the harbor of New York, where she was greeted as "a New-year's gift." "She comes with the compliments of the season from old Neptune," said one of the newspapers. The boys in the streets were singing snatches of a song:

"Then quickly met our nation's eyes,
The noblest sight in nature,
A first-rate frigate as a prize,
Brought home by brave Decatur."

Legislatures of states gave Decatur thanks, and two of them each gave him a sword. So, also, did the city of Philadelphia. The authorities of New York, in addition to a splendid banquet to Hull, Jones, and Decatur (Jan. 7, 1813), gave the latter the freedom of the city and requested his portrait for the City Hall. The National Congress thanked him and gave him a gold medal.



GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO DECATUR

nist, supposing his vessel, badly crippled, was withdrawing, set up an exulting shout. To their astonishment the *United States* tacked and brought up in a position of greater advantage than before. The British commander, perceiving that longer resistance would be useless, struck his colors and surrendered. The captured vessel was the British frigate *Macedonian*, 38 guns, Captain J. S. Carden. She had received no less than one hundred round-shot in her hull, many of them between wind and water, and she had nothing standing but her fore and main masts and fore-yard. All her boats were rendered useless but one. Of her officers and men—three hundred in number—thirty-six were killed and sixty-eight were wounded. The loss of the *United States* was five killed and six wounded. The *Macedonian* was a new ship, and though rated at 38, carried 44 guns. The action occurred not far from the Island of Madeira. After the contest, Decatur returned to the United States, arriving off New London Dec. 4, 1812. The *Macedonian*, in charge of Lieutenant Allen, arrived at Newport harbor at about the same time. At the close of the month both vessels passed through Long Island Sound, and,

United States, APPORTIONMENT OF REPRESENTATIVES IN THE CONGRESS OF THE. The first really legal apportionment was made in 1792. (See *Apportionment of Representatives, The First.*) Since then a new apportionment has been made every ten years. The first apportionment (1792) was made on the basis of the census of 1790, and gave one representative to every 33,000 inhabitants; on that of 1800, the same; on that of 1810, one to 35,000; on that of 1820, one to 40,000; on that of 1830, one to 47,700; on that of 1840, one to 70,680; on that of 1850, one to 93,420; on that of 1860, one to 127,840; on that of 1870, one to 131,400; on that of 1880, one to 157,228; on that of 1890, one to 173,901. A table showing the representative strength at the time of the several apportionments reveals the fact that New England has steadily fallen back, beginning with more than one fourth of the Representatives, and ending, in the apportionment of 1882, with not more than one tenth. In the Middle States, the representative strength has decreased but slightly; the Southern States, starting with a great preponderance of strength, began to lose their relative strength after the apportionment of

1810, while the Western States, beginning with no representation in the apportionment of 1810, in 1890 were entitled to nearly two fifths of the whole number of members of the House of Representatives. The apportionment in 1892, on the basis of the eleventh census, made fewer changes in the representation than did the former apportionment. The colored population of the South, having been invested with the rights of citizenship, largely increased the representative strength of the late slave-labor states in the House of Representatives. New England and the Middle States being fairly filled up with population, must continue to recede in relative strength, compelled by the rapid growth of population elsewhere, chiefly in the West.

United States Bank, THE. Alexander Hamilton, observing the prosperity and usefulness to the commercial community and the financial operations of the government, of the Bank of North America, Bank of New York, and Bank of Massachusetts, which held the entire banking capital of the country before 1791, recommended the establishment of a government bank in his famous report on the finances (1790), as Secretary of the Treasury. His suggestion was speedily acted upon, and an act for the purpose was adopted Feb. 8, 1791. President Washington asked the written opinion of his cabinet concerning its constitutionality. They were equally divided. The President, believing it to be legal, signed the bill, and so made it a law. The bank received a charter, the existence of which was limited to twenty years. It soon went into operation, with a capital of \$10,000,000, of which amount the government subscribed \$2,000,000 in specie and \$6,000,000 in stocks of the United States. The measure was very popular. The shares of the bank rose to twenty-five and forty-five per cent. premium, and it paid an average dividend of eight and a half per cent. on its capital. The shares were \$400 each. The bank was established at Philadelphia, with branches at different points. In 1808—or three years before the charter would expire—application was made to Congress for its renewal. A sort of bank mania had succeeded the original establishment of the institution, and local banks rapidly increased. They became favorites of the people, for they furnished business facilities that were of great importance to the whole commercial community. This local bank interest combined to prevent a renewal of the charter of the United States Bank, on the grounds, 1, That it was unconstitutional; 2, That too much of the stock was owned by foreigners; and, 3, That the local banks better accommodated the public. Though the Secretary of the Treasury (Gallatin) reported in favor of a renewal of the charter, nothing was done by Congress until within a few weeks before the time when the bank would cease to exist. The bill for its re-charter was defeated by the casting vote of the Vice-President (George Clinton) in the Senate, and the bank closed its affairs, giving to the stockholders eight and a half per cent. premium over the par value. The finances of the

country were in a wretched state at the close of the war, in 1815. The local banks had all suspended specie payments, and there was very little of other currency than depreciated bank-notes. There was universal dissatisfaction, and the people clamored for another United States Bank as a cure for financial evils. One was chartered in the spring of 1816 (April 3). A bill to that effect had been vetoed by President Madison in January, 1815; now it received his willing signature. Its charter was for twenty years, and its capital was \$35,000,000, of which amount the United States subscribed \$7,000,000, and the remaining \$28,000,000 by individuals. The creation of this bank compelled the state banks to resume specie payments or wind up. Many of them were aided in resumption by the great bank, but many, after a struggle more or less prolonged, closed their doors. Of the two hundred and forty-six state banks, with an aggregate capital of about \$90,000,000 in 1816, a very large number were compelled to go into liquidation. From 1811 to 1830, one hundred and sixty-five banks, with a capital of \$30,000,000, closed their business, and the loss of the government and of individuals by these banks was estimated at \$5,000,000, or one-sixth of their capital. The second United States Bank went into operation in Philadelphia, in 1817, to continue until March, 1836. In it were deposited the funds of the government, the use of which gave the bank great facilities for discounting, and so aiding the commercial community. It soon controlled the monetary affairs of the country; and when General Jackson became President of the United States, in 1829, he expressed his decided hostility to the government bank, as a dangerous institution. He began a war upon it, which ended in its destruction. It failed to have its charter renewed, and it expired by limitation in March, 1836. It was re-chartered the same year by the Legislature of Pennsylvania, with the same capital. It was compelled to suspend specie payments, with all the local banks, in 1837, and again in 1839; and in February, 1840, it made a final suspension, and closed up its affairs. There remained nothing for the stockholders. The entire capital had been spent, and wide-spread distress was the consequence.

United States Bank, WAR UPON THE. In his first annual message to Congress (December, 1829), President Jackson took strong ground against a renewal of the charter of the United States Bank (which see), which would expire in 1836. His reasons were, that it had failed in the fulfilment of promises of its creation—namely, to establish a uniform and sound currency for the whole nation; and, also, that such an institution was not authorized by the national Constitution. Again, in his annual messages in 1830 and 1831, he attacked the bank, and renewed his objections. At the close of 1831 the proper officers of the bank petitioned, for the first time, for the renewal of its charter. The petition was presented in the Senate Jan. 9, 1832, and on March 13 a select committee, to whom it was referred, reported in favor of renewing the charter for fifteen years. Long de-

bates ensued, and finally a bill for re-chartering the bank passed both Houses of Congress—the Senate on June 11, by twenty-eight against twenty, and the House of Representatives, July 3, by a vote of one hundred and seven against eighty-five. The President vetoed it, and as it failed to receive the constitutional vote of two thirds (see *Veto, The First*) of both Houses, the bank charter expired by limitation in 1836. The commercial community, regarding such an institution as essential to their prosperity, were alarmed, and prophecies of panics and business revulsions, everywhere uttered, helped to accomplish their own speedy fulfillment. Again, in his annual message (December, 1832), Jackson's hostility to the bank was manifested by a recommendation to remove the public funds in its custody, and a sale of the stock of the bank belonging to the United States. Congress, by a decided vote, refused to authorize the measure; but after the adjournment of that body the President assumed the responsibility of performing the act. He directed the Secretary of the Treasury (William Duane) to withdraw the government funds—about \$10,000,000—from the bank, and deposit them in certain state banks. The Secretary would only consent to appoint an agent to inquire upon what terms the local banks would receive the funds on deposit. Then the President gave him a peremptory order to remove them from the bank. Duane refused compliance, and was dismissed from office. His successor, Roger B. Taney (afterwards Chief-justice of the United States), obeyed the President, and in October, 1833, the removal was accomplished. The effect produced was widespread commercial embarrassments and distress. The business of the country was plunged from a height of prosperity to the depths of adversity, because its intimate connection with the national bank rendered any paralysis of the operations of that institution fatal to commercial activity. The vital connection of the bank with the business of the country, evidenced by the confusion, confirmed the President's conviction of the danger to be apprehended from such an enormous moneyed institution.

United States Christian Commission, THE, had its origin in the Young Men's Christian Association, in New York city, and was first suggested by Vincent Colyer, who, with Frank W. Ballard and Mrs. Dr. Harris, who represented the Ladies' Aid Society, of Philadelphia, went to Washington immediately after the battle of Bull's Run (July, 1861), to do Christian work in the camps and hospitals there. Mr. Colyer distributed Bibles and tracts and hymn-books among the soldiers, and held prayer-meetings. In August he suggested the combination of all the Young Men's Christian Associations of the land in the formation of a society similar to that of the United States Sanitary Commission (which see). The suggestion was acted upon, and at a meeting of the Young Men's Christian Association, held in New York, Sept. 23, 1861, a committee was appointed, with Mr. Colyer as chairman, to conduct the correspondence, and make arrangements for holding

a national convention of such associations. A convention was called, and assembled in the city of New York, Nov. 14, 1861, when the United States Christian Commission was or-



VINCENT COLYER.

ganized, with George H. Stuart, of Philadelphia, at its head. Its specific work was to be chiefly for the moral and religious welfare of the soldiers and sailors, conducted by oral instruction, and the circulation of the Bible and other proper books, with pamphlets, newspapers, etc., among the men in hospitals, camps, and ships. The commission worked on the same general plan pursued by the United States Sanitary Commission. Its labors were not confined wholly to spiritual and intellectual ministrations, but also to the distribution of a vast amount of food, hospital stores, delicacies, and clothing. It, too, followed the great armies, and was like a twin angel of mercy with the Sanitary Commission. It co-operated most efficiently with the army and navy chaplains, and in various ways cast about the soldier a salutary hedge of Christian influence. The money collected for the use of the commission was chiefly gathered by the women of various denominations. It was a free-will offering, and amounted to about \$1,000,000. The entire receipts of the commission amounted to over \$6,000,000.

United States Greenback Currency. This was a name given to the paper currency issued by the government of the United States during the Civil War and afterwards, because the lettering and devices on the back of the notes were printed in a green color. These notes were called "greenbacks." The name of "Greenbackers" was given to those who opposed the resumption of specie payments in our country according to an act passed in January, 1875, and who favored "legal tender" paper-money. They formed a political organization known as the "Greenback Party," and in 1880 nominated a candidate (General Weaver) for President of the United States.

United States Navy (1812). When the President of the United States proclaimed war against Great Britain (July 19, 1812), the Navy of the United States consisted of only twenty vessels, exclusive of gunboats. They were as follows:

NAME.	Rated.	Mount- ed.	COMMANDERS.	NAME.	Rated.	Mount- ed.	COMMANDERS.
Constitution...	44	58	Capt. Hull.	John Adams...	26		Capt. Ludlow.
United States...	44	58	" Decatur.	Wasp...	16	18	" Jones.
President...	44	58	Com. Rodgers.	Hornet...	16	18	" Lawrence.
Chesapeake...	36	44	Capt. Smith.	Siren...	16		Lieut. Carroll.
New York...	36	44	Ordinary.	Argus...	16		" Crane.
Constellation...	36	44	Ordinary.	Oneida...	16		" Woolsey.
Congress...	36	44	Ordinary.	Vixen...	12		" Gadsden.
Boston...	32		Ordinary.	Nautilus...	12		" Sinclair.
Essex...	32		Capt. Porter.	Enterprise...	12		Capt. Blakeley.
Adams...	32		Ordinary.	Viper...	12		" Bainbridge.

These vessels were scattered—four of them had wintered at Newport, R. I.; four others in Hampton Roads, Va.; two were away on foreign service; two were at Charleston, S. C.; two were at New Orleans; one was on Lake Ontario, and five were laid up in ordinary. There were four bomb-vessels—*Vengeance*, *Spitfire*, *Etna*, and *Vesuvius*. The gunboats were all numbered, and during the War of 1812 were distributed as follows: At New York, 54; New Orleans, 26; Norfolk, 14; Charleston, 2; Wilmington, N. C., 2; St. Mary's, 11; Washington, 10; Portland, 8; Boston, 2; Connecticut and Rhode Island, 4; Philadelphia, 20; and Baltimore, 10. Of these, only 62 were in commission; 86 were laid up in ordinary, and some were undergoing repairs.

United States of America. This name was first given to the English-American colonies in the Declaration of Independence, on July 4, 1776. They then consisted of thirteen. In 1890 their number had increased to forty-four, as shown in the following table:

Order.	NAME.	Date of Settlement.	Where first Settled.	By whom Settled.	Date of Admission.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1890.
1	Virginia.....	1607	Jamestown...	English...	The 13 Original States.	38,348	1,655,980
2	New York.....	1614	New York....	Dutch.....		47,000	5,997,853
3	Massachusetts..	1620	Plymouth....	English...		7,800	2,238,943
4	New Hampshire.	1623	Little Harbor..	".....		9,392	376,530
5	Connecticut....	1633	Windsor.....	".....		4,750	746,258
6	Maryland.....	1634	St. Mary's....	".....		11,124	1,042,390
7	Rhode Island...	1636	Providence....	".....		1,308	345,506
8	Delaware.....	1638	Wilmington...	Swedes....		2,120	168,943
9	North Carolina.	1650	Chowan River.	English...		50,704	1,617,947
10	New Jersey.....	1664	Elizabeth....	".....		8,320	1,444,933
11	South Carolina.	1670	Ashley River..	".....		34,000	1,151,149
12	Pennsylvania...	1682	Philadelphia..	".....		43,000	5,258,014
13	Georgia.....	1733	Savannah....	".....		58,000	1,837,353
14	Vermont.....	1724	Fort Dummer..	".....	1791	10,212	332,422
15	Kentucky.....	1775	Boonesborough	".....	1792	37,680	1,858,635
16	Tennessee.....	1757	Fort Loudon...	".....	1796	45,600	1,767,518
17	Ohio.....	1788	Marietta.....	".....	1802	39,964	3,672,316
18	Louisiana.....	1699	Iberville.....	French....	1812	49,346	1,118,587
19	Indiana.....	1730	Vincennes....	".....	1816	38,809	2,192,404
20	Mississippi.....	1716	Natchez.....	".....	1817	47,156	1,289,600
21	Illinois.....	1720	Kaskaskia....	".....	1818	55,410	3,826,351
22	Alabama.....	1711	Mobile.....	".....	1819	50,722	1,513,017
23	Maine.....	1625	Bristol.....	".....	1820	35,000	661,086
24	Missouri.....	1764	St. Louis.....	".....	1821	65,350	2,679,184
25	Arkansas.....	1685	Arkansas Post.	".....	1836	52,198	1,128,179
26	Michigan.....	1670	Detroit.....	".....	1837	56,451	2,093,889
27	Florida.....	1565	St. Augustine..	Spanish...	1845	59,268	391,422
28	Texas.....	1692	San Antonio..	".....	1845	274,356	2,235,523
29	Iowa.....	1833	Burlington...	English...	1846	55,045	1,911,896
30	Wisconsin.....	1669	Green Bay....	French....	1848	53,924	1,686,880
31	California.....	1769	San Diego....	Spanish...	1850	188,981	1,208,130
32	Minnesota.....	1846	St. Paul.....	Americans.	1858	83,531	1,301,826
33	Oregon.....	1811	Astoria.....	".....	1859	95,274	313,767
34	Kansas.....	".....	1861	81,318	1,427,096
35	West Virginia.	English...	1863	23,000	762,794
36	Nevada.....	Americans.	1864	104,125	45,761
37	Nebraska.....	".....	1867	75,995	1,058,910
38	Colorado.....	".....	1876	104,500	412,198
39	North Dakota..	1780	Pembina.....	French....	1889	70,795	182,719
40	South Dakota..	1857	Sioux Falls...	Americans.	1889	77,650	328,808
41	Montana.....	1827	Fort Union...	".....	1889	146,080	31,769
42	Washington.....	1845	Tumwater....	".....	1889	69,180	349,390
43	Idaho.....	1834	Fort Hall.....	".....	1890	84,800	84,305
44	Wyoming.....	1834	Fort Laramie..	".....	1890	97,890	60,705

United States Sanitary Commission. THE, was the product of divine seed that took root in the heart of woman, and by her it was chiefly nourished. On the day when the President called for 75,000

men to put down insurrection, the women of Bridgeport, Conn., organized a society for the purpose of affording relief and comfort to the volunteers. This was the first in all the land. On the same day (April 15, 1861) a woman in Charlestown, Mass. (Miss Almena Bates), took steps to form a similar organization, and a few days later the women of Lowell did the same. They proposed to supply nurses for the sick and wounded, and provisions, clothing, and other comforts not furnished by the government; also to send books and newspapers to the camps, and to keep up a constant communication with their friends in the field. On the 19th the women of Cleveland, O., formed an association for the purpose of taking care of the families of the volunteers. Earnest women in New York, at the suggestion of Rev. H. W. Bellows, D.D., and Dr. Elisha Harris, met with a few earnest men, and formed the "Women's Central Association for Relief." Auxiliary associations were formed. Then an organization on a more extended and efficient plan was formed, which

contemplated the co-operation of the Medical Department of the army, under the sanction of the government, in the care of the sanitary interests of the soldiers. Already Miss Dorothy Dix had done much in that direction. She had offered her services gratuitously to the government, and obtained the sanction of the War Department for the organization of military hospitals and the furnishing of nurses for them. Eight days after the President's call for troops (April 23, 1861), the Secretary of War issued a proclamation, announcing the fact of the acceptance of Miss Dix's services, and on the 1st of May the Surgeon-general (R. C. Wood) "cheerfully and thankfully" recognized the ability and energy of Miss Dix, and requested all women who offered their services as nurses to report to her. On June 9 the Secretary of War issued an order appointing H. W. Bellows, D.D., Professor A.D. Bache, LL.D. (chief of the

Coast Survey), Professor Jeffries Wyman, M.D., W. H. Van Buren, M.D., R. C. Wood (Surgeon-general of the United States Army), General G. W. Cullum, of General Scott's staff, and Alexander Shiras, of the United States Army, in conjunction with such others as might associate with them, "a Commission of Inquiry and Advice in respect of the Sanitary Interests of the United States Forces." The Surgeon-general issued a circular, announcing the creation of this commission. On June 12 a Board of Managers was organized, with Dr. Bellows at its head. He submitted a plan of organization, which was adopted, and it became the constitution of the commission, bearing the signatures of President Lincoln and Secretary of War, Simon Cameron. The name now assumed was the "United States Sanitary Commission." F. L. Olmsted was chosen Resident Secretary—a post of great importance, for that officer was really the general manager of the affairs of the commission. Its seal bore the name and date of creation of the commission; also a shield bearing the figure of Mercy, winged, with the symbol of Christianity upon her bosom and a cup of consolation in her hand, coming down from the clouds to visit wounded soldiers on the bat-

campaigns, and before the smoke of conflict had been fairly lifted, there was the commission with its tents, vehicles, supplies, and necessities. When the war was ended, and the work of the Sanitary Commission was made plain, it was found that the loyal people of the land had given to it supplies valued at \$15,000,000, and money to the amount of \$5,000,000. The archives of the United States Sanitary Commission, containing a full record of its work, were deposited in the Astor Library in 1878, as a gift to that institution. "With this act," wrote Dr. Bellows, in his letter of presentation, "and with my signature as President of the Sanitary Commission, the last official act of my service, the United States Sanitary Commission expires. You receive its ashes, in which I hope some fragrance may linger, and, at least, survive to kindle in times of new need a flame equal to its own."

United States, THE, A LEGATEE. In the summer of 1829, James Smithson, a British subject, died in Italy, and by his will, made in 1826, he bequeathed to the United States a large sum of money subject to certain conditions. (See *Smithson, James Lewis Macie.*) According to the prescribed conditions the United States, in 1835, became Mr. Smithson's sole legatee. Richard Rush was sent to London to prosecute the claim. In September, 1838, he deposited in the United States mint the proceeds of the bequest in English sovereigns, which amounted to \$515,169. After the discussion for several years of plans for the best mode of disposing of the funds, for executing the will of the testator, "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," it was determined to found an institution at the national capital. By act of Congress, passed in 1846, it was provided that the institution should be placed under the control of a board of trustees, or regents, consisting of the President and Vice-President of the United States, the several members of the cabinet, the Chief-justice of the Supreme Court, the Commissioner of the Patent Office, and the Mayor of Washington, during their respective terms of office, with such other persons as these may elect honorary members of the institution. Provision was made for the increase of the fund by the accumulation of interest for the purpose of erecting buildings and of other current and incidental expenses, such expenditures to be made wholly from accruing interest (the funds being loaned at six per cent.), and not from the principal. Grounds were chosen and a building was erected at a cost of about \$500,000. In December, 1846, the regents or board of trustees of the "Smithsonian Institution," as it is called, chose Professor Joseph Henry as their secretary, which office he held until his death, early in 1878. Provision was made for a library, museum, gallery of art, and lectures. Transactions of learned societies and scientific works were collected; the museum was enriched by the fruits of government explorations and the contributions of individual explorers; a gallery of art was commenced; and lectures, chiefly on scientific subjects, were delivered up to 1865, when a fire destroyed the lecture-room. Then a change was made in the



SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES SANITARY COMMISSION.

file-field. Compare the account in *Stillé's History of the United States Sanitary Commission*. The commission was to supplement government deficiencies. An appeal was made to the people, and was met by a most liberal response. Supplies and money flowed in, from all quarters, sufficient to meet every demand. All over the country, men, women, and children were seen working singly and collectively for it. Fairs were held in cities, which turned immense sums of money into the treasury of the commission. One small city alone (Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson) contributed \$16,000, or \$1 for every man, woman, and child of its population. Branches were established; ambulances, army-wagons, and steamboats were employed in the transportation of the sick and wounded. It followed the armies closely in all

arrangements. The library was incorporated with that of Congress, and its art collection was transferred to Mr. Corcoran's Free Art Gallery. The institution co-operates as far as practicable with other public institutions in Washington city for the diffusion of knowledge among men. It also distributes much valuable printed matter, chiefly on scientific subjects; and it gives assistance to geographical and other scientific researches. For many years it employed five hundred regular meteorological observers scattered over every part of the continent. These operations have been transferred to the United States Signal Service. The publications of the institution are numerous and of the highest value, and have been distributed gratuitously among all the important scientific and learned associations of the world; and it receives in turn the "Transactions" of such societies. Reports are made to Congress annually, by the secretary of the institution. These, besides a popular analysis of the memoirs to be contained in the several forthcoming volumes of the "Contributions" to the institution, are accompanied by a synopsis of lectures and original and translated articles, which introduce the student to information and topics of discussion much above the range of those usually presented even to the educated public. These reports are printed at the expense of Congress, and are circulated through the members of both Houses as well as by the institution itself. It keeps up a vast and continually increasing correspondence with all quarters of the globe; and each day brings to it accounts of real or supposed discoveries which are referred to the institution. In 1865 a residuary legacy of Smithson was received, amounting to \$26,210. In 1876 the total permanent Smithsonian fund in the United States Treasury, drawing interest at six per cent. in gold, amounted to \$651,000. There were, besides, depreciated investments valued at \$35,000, which, with a cash balance on hand, made the total resources of the institution about \$700,000.

United States, PROGRESS IN POPULATION.

Census.	Date of Census.	Number of States.	Population of the States.	Population of the Territories.	Total Population.
1	1790	13	3,894,136	35,691	3,929,827
2	1800	16	5,231,992	73,949	5,305,941
3	1810	17	7,036,474	203,340	7,239,814
4	1820	23	9,515,397	122,794	9,638,191
5	1830	24	12,729,429	136,591	12,866,020
6	1840	26	16,897,207	172,246	17,069,453
7	1850	31	23,047,891	143,985	23,191,876
8	1860	33	31,040,842	402,479	31,443,321
9	1870	37	38,113,253	442,730	38,555,983
10	1880	38	49,666,529	487,254	50,155,783
11	1890	44	61,919,702	702,548	62,622,250

University of Pennsylvania. In 1749 a subscription was made towards founding an academy and charitable school in Philadelphia. Dr. Franklin was one of the subscribers. It was opened in 1750, and in 1753 was incorporated and endowed by the proprietaries of Pennsylvania with nearly \$15,000. Rev. William Smith was appointed principal and Rev. Francis Allison master of the Latin school. It soon grew into a college by an act of incorporation in 1755,

under the title of "College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia." Dr. Smith was appointed provost. In 1764 the foundation of a medical school in connection with the college was laid. This was the origin of the most famous medical school in the United States. The events of the Revolution made a change in the institution. The old Provincial charter was abandoned, and in 1779 a new charter was given by the Pennsylvania Legislature, with the title of "University of Pennsylvania." It was endowed with the property of the old college and the confiscated estates of the Tories. In 1789 the law department was established. The old college was revived in that year, but in 1791 it was absorbed by the university. Then the present organization of the university was established. The university occupies fine buildings in West Philadelphia, on two squares, comprising over sixteen acres. The state granted \$300,000 for the establishment of a hospital connected with the university, and \$350,000 were obtained by subscription. The whole number of professors and instructors in the university in 1890 was 180; and of students, 1325. Its libraries contained in 1890 80,000 volumes.

Upper Canada Declared a Temporary American Province (1813). On Oct. 17, 1813, General Harrison, of the United States Army, and Commodore Perry, commander of the fleet on Lake Erie, issued a proclamation, stating, that by the combined operation of the land and naval forces of the United States, British power had been destroyed within the upper districts of Canada, which was in quiet possession of United States troops. They therefore proclaimed that the rights and privileges of the inhabitants and the laws and customs of the country, which were in force before the arrival of the conquerors, should continue to prevail, and that all magistrates and other civil officers might resume their functions, after taking an oath of fidelity to the United States government so long as the troops should remain in possession of the country.

Uprising in New England. In 1774 a false rumor spread over New England that General Gage had actually begun war at Boston; that British ships were bombarding the town, and that British troops were murdering the patriotic inhabitants. This rumor created fearful excitement. The minute-men (which see) everywhere, though not organized, seized their arms and marched, in squads or singly, for Boston. Within thirty-six hours, the whole country for almost two hundred miles from the New England capital had heard the tidings. Young men and old men seized their firelocks, and matrons and maidens buckled on their well-filled knapsacks, and sent them away with the blessings of patriotic hearts. The roads were soon swarming with armed men, most of them on foot, but many on horseback—a strange cavalcade—queer-looking men and queer-looking horses, of all ages, colors, and conditions. Some of the horses were saddled and bridled, and some

were without either bit or stirrup. The host, full twenty thousand strong, in the aggregate, were intent upon the salvation of their brethren and the destruction of the invaders. Truth met the moving host, and the excitement soon ceased; but the incident gave Gage such a prophecy of what would happen should he commit an overt act of hostility that he was more circumspect afterwards.

Uprising of the People (1775). The skirmishes at Lexington and Concord (April 19, 1775), stirred society in the colonies as it was never stirred before. There was a spontaneous resolution to environ Boston with an army of Provincials that should confine the British to the Peninsula. For this purpose New Hampshire voted 2000 men, with Folsom and Stark as chief commanders. Connecticut voted 6000, with Spencer as chief and Putnam as second. Rhode Island voted 1500, with Greene as their leader; and Massachusetts voted 13,600 men. The people there seemed to rise *en masse*. From the hills and valleys of the Bay State (as from all New England) the patriots went forth by hundreds, armed and unarmed, and before the close of the month—in the space of ten days—an army of 20,000 men were forming camps and piling fortifications around Boston, from Roxbury to the River Mystic. The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, with Joseph Warren at its head, worked day and night in consonance with the gathering army. They appointed military officers; organized a commissariat; issued bills of credit for the payment of the troops to the amount of \$375,000, and declared (May 5) General Gage to be an inveterate enemy of the people. And as the news of the events of the 19th of April went from colony to colony, the people in each were equally aroused. With the hottest haste, it did not reach Charleston, S. C., under twenty days. Arms and ammunition were seized, in various places, by the Sons of Liberty; provincial congresses were formed, and, before the close of summer, the power of every royal governor from Massachusetts to Georgia was utterly destroyed. Everywhere the inhabitants armed in defence of their liberties, and took vigorous measures for future security.

Upton, EMORY, was born in New York about 1840, and graduated at West Point in 1861. He became aid to General Tyler, and was wounded in the battle of Bull's Run. In the Peninsular campaign he commanded a battery, and was active in the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg (1862-63). In the campaign against Richmond (1864) he commanded a brigade until assigned to the army under Sheridan in the Shenandoah valley, where he was wounded in the battle of Winchester (which see). Early in 1865 he commanded a division of cavalry in General Wilson's operations in Alabama and Georgia, and was distinguished in the capture of Selma. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army for "meritorious services during the rebellion." General Up-

ton is the author of *Infantry Tactics for the United States Army*, adopted in 1867. He died in 1882.

Ursuline Nunnery at Quebec. In 1639 Madame de la Petrie, a pious French lady, devoting her person and fortune to the religious design of founding a nunnery at Quebec, went to that place with three Ursulines, attended by Le Jeune, superior of the Jesuit mission in Canada. (See *Jesuit Missions in North America, Early*.) When she landed on the shore at Quebec she knelt and kissed the earth, and then, in solemn procession, went to the church, while cannons thundered and the people shouted. At the church a solemn *Te Deum* was chanted, and Madame de la Petrie and her religious companions immediately proceeded in their pious task.

Usurpation in Georgia. Late in 1771 Noble Wimberley Jones was chosen speaker of the Georgia Assembly. He was a man of exemplary life, but the royal governor, Sir James Wright, who had reported him a strong opposer of government measures, would not consent to the choice. The Assembly voted this interference a breach of their privileges. Hillsborough, the Secretary of State for the colonies, censured the House for their "unwarrantable and inconsistent arrogance," and directed the governor to "put his negative upon any person whom they should next elect for speaker, and to dissolve the Assembly in case they should question the right of such negative." So the affections of the colonies, one after another, were alienated from the mother country by her unwise rulers.

Utah is a territory of the United States, situated between latitude 37° and 42° north, and longitude 109° and 114° west from Greenwich, which, in 1890, contained a population of 207,905. Of these more than 43,000 were of foreign birth. Utah forms a part of the territory acquired from Mexico in 1848. It was settled in 1847 by a sect of polygamists called Mormons, led thither by Brigham Young. They formed an independent government and called it the State of Deseret—the land of the honey-bee—in March, 1849. This was superseded by a territorial government, organized by act of Congress, Sept. 9, 1850 (see *Omnibus Bill, The*), under the name of Utah, the name of an Indian tribe. It then contained over 220,000 square miles, embracing portions of what is now Colorado, Nevada, and Wyoming. In 1856, having a requisite number of inhabitants, the Legislature framed a constitution for the "State of Deseret," and application has since been frequently made for its admission into the Union, without success. (See *Mormons*.)

Utrecht, THE TREATY OF (April 11, 1713), secured the Protestant succession to the throne of England, the separation of the French and Spanish crowns, the destruction of Dunkirk, the enlargement of the British colonies in America, and a full satisfaction from France of the claims of the allies, England, Holland, and Germany. This treaty terminated Queen Anne's war, and secured peace for thirty years. (See *Queen Anne's War*.)

V.

Vallandigham, ARREST AND PUNISHMENT OF. The most prominent leader of the Peace faction (which see) during the Civil War was C. L. Vallandigham, member of Congress from Ohio. His seditious utterances proclaiming him to be an enemy of his country, he was arrested at his own house, near Dayton (May 4, 1863), by a military order, on a charge of "treasonable conduct." He was tried by a court-martial at Cincinnati, convicted, and sentenced to close confinement in a fortress for the remainder of the war. This sentence was modified by the President, who directed him to be sent within the Confederate lines, and, in the event of his returning without leave, to suffer the penalty prescribed by the court. Being now of no use to his "Southern friends," for whom he had earnestly labored, they treated him with such marked indifference that, disappointed and disgusted, he finally made his way to Canada, where he enjoyed the society of refugee Confederates. He was the Democratic candidate for Governor of Ohio in 1863, but was defeated by 100,000 majority. The late M. F. Maury, who had been Superintendent of the National Observatory, but joined the Confederates, wrote to the *London Times* (Aug. 17, 1863): "Vallandigham waits and watches over the border, pledged, if elected Governor of the State of Ohio, to array it against Lincoln and the war and to go for peace."

Vallandigham, CLEMENT L., was born at New Lisbon, O., in 1822; died at Lebanon, O., June 17, 1871. He was of Huguenot descent; studied at Jefferson College, Ohio; was principal of an academy at Snow Hill, Md.; and was admitted

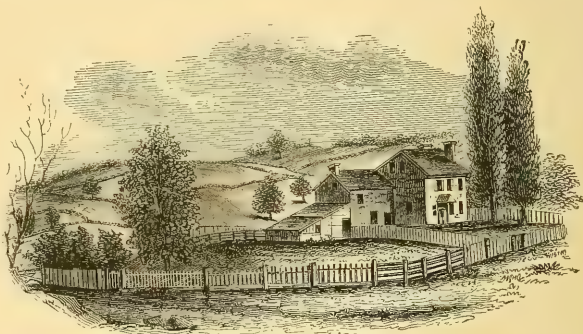


CLEMENT L. VALLANDIGHAM.

to the bar in 1842. In 1845-46 he was a member of the State Legislature, and for ten years afterwards edited a newspaper at Dayton. An

earnest Democratic politician, he was sent to Congress in 1857, in which body he was active until 1863, opposing all measures of the government for the suppression of the insurrection and openly showing sympathy with the Secessionists. For alleged treasonable conduct, he was banished in 1863, and finally went to Canada. In 1864 he was the Democratic candidate for Governor of Ohio, but was defeated. While engaged in a suit in court he was mortally wounded by a pistol which he was handling in explaining some fact to the jury.

Valley Forge, ENCAMPMENT AT. Washington's army encamped at Whitemarsh, in a beautiful valley about fourteen miles from Philadelphia, where he remained until Dec. 11, 1777, and proceeded with his half-clad, half-barefooted



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS, VALLEY FORGE.

soldiers to Valley Forge, about twenty miles northward from Philadelphia. These numbered about eleven thousand men, of whom not more than seven thousand were fit for field duty. The place was chosen because it was further from the danger of sudden attacks from the foe, and where he might more easily afford protection for the Congress sitting at York. Blood-stains, made by the lacerated feet of his barefooted soldiers, marked the line of their march to Valley Forge. There, upon the slopes of a narrow valley on the borders of the winding Schuylkill, they were encamped, with no shelter but rude log huts which they built themselves. The winter that ensued was severe. The soldiers shivered with cold and starved with hunger, and there their genuine patriotism was fully tested. At the same time the British army was made as weak by indulgence in the city as were the American soldiers by physical privations, and Franklin was justified in saying, "Howe did not take Philadelphia; Philadelphia took Howe." At Valley Forge Baron Steuben entered upon his duties as Inspector-general of the Continental Army. There the joyful news reached the American army of a treaty of alliance with France. It was promulgated by Washington in general orders on the 6th of May, 1778. He

set apart the next day as one of rejoicing and grateful acknowledgment of the divine goodness in raising up a powerful friend "in one of the princes of the earth." It was celebrated with tokens of delight. The several brigades were drawn up to hear discourses by their respective chaplains. The men were placed in specified positions to fire a *feu de joie* with muskets and cannons—three times three discharges of thirteen cannons. At the first the army huzzaed "Long live the King of France;" at the second, "Long live the friendly European Powers;" and at the third there was a shout, "The American States." Washington and his wife, and other officers and their wives, attended the religious services of the New Jersey brigade. Then the commander-in-chief dined in public with all the officers. Patriotic toasts were given, and loud huzzas greeted Washington when he left the table. As the season advanced comforts abounded at Valley Forge, the army increased, and on the 18th of June (1778) the encampment broke up and the army began a chase of the British across New Jersey when the latter had evacuated Philadelphia.

Valverde (New Mexico), **BATTLE AT**. General Canby, Commander of the Department of New Mexico, was at Fort Craig, on the Rio Grande, early in 1862. At that time Colonel H. H. Sibley, a Louisianian, had invaded New Mexico with twenty-three hundred Texas Rangers, many of them veterans who had fought the Indians. Sibley issued a proclamation demanding from the inhabitants aid for and allegiance to his marauders. Feeling confident of success, he moved towards Fort Craig to attack Canby. His light field-pieces could not injure the fort, so he crossed the Rio Grande below and out of reach of the guns of the fort for the purpose of drawing Canby out. In this he was successful. Canby threw a force across the river to occupy an eminence commanding the fort, which it was thought Sibley might attempt to gain. There a skirmish ensued, and the Nationals retired to the fort. On the following day (Feb. 21, 1862) a considerable force of cavalry, artillery, and infantry, under Lieutenant-colonel Roberts, crossed the river, and at Valverde, seven miles north of the fort, a severe battle occurred. Canby was about to make a general advance, when about one thousand Texans, horse and foot, armed with carbines, revolvers, and bowie-knives, suddenly burst from a thick wood and attacked two of the National batteries, commanded respectively by Captains McRea and Hall. The cavalry were repulsed, but the insurgent infantry pressed forward, while the grape-shot were making fearful lanes in their ranks, and captured the battery of McRea. The brave captain defended his guns with great courage. Seated upon one of them, he fought the assailants with a pistol until he was shot dead. At length the Nationals, panic-stricken by the fierceness of the charge, broke and fled, and did not stop until they had reached the shelter of Fort Craig. That flight was one of the most disgraceful scenes of the war. Canby was compelled to see the victory snatched from

him just as it seemed to be secured. Sibley, alarmed by the sudden development of Canby's strength by accessions to his ranks, hurried towards Santa Fé, captured it, but could not hold it, and was soon afterwards driven over the mountains into Texas.

Van Buren, MARTIN, eighth President of the United States, was born at Kinderhook, N. Y., Dec. 5, 1782; died there, July 24, 1862. He was educated at the village academy; studied law with W. P. Van Ness; and was admitted to the



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

bar in 1803. Having a taste for politics, he early engaged in it, being a member of a nominating convention when he was eighteen years of age. In 1808 he was appointed Surrogate of Columbia County, and was sent to the State Senate in 1812. From 1815 to 1819 he was Attorney-general of the State of New York; and was again Senator in 1816, holding both offices at the same time. He began a new organization of the Democratic party in 1818, and became the leader of a body of politicians known as the Albany Regency (which see). It held the political control of the state for nearly twenty years. Mr. Van Buren was chosen a member of the United States Senate in 1821, and was also in the convention that revised the state constitution. In the latter body he was favorable to the extension of the elective franchise, but not of universal suffrage. He opposed a proposition to deprive colored people of the elective franchise, but voted in favor of requiring of them a freehold qualification of \$250. He was again United States Senator in 1827; Governor of New York in 1828; entered Jackson's cabinet as Secretary of State in March, 1829; but resigned in 1831, when he was appointed minister to England. He arrived there in September, but in December the Senate rejected his nomination, and he returned. In May, 1832, he was nominated for Vice-President by the convention that re-nominated Jackson for the Presidency. He received all the electoral votes that were cast for Jackson excepting Pennsylvania. In 1836 he was elected President of the United States by one hundred and

seventy votes out of two hundred and eighty-three, and he was inaugurated March 4, 1837. The business of the country was in a depressed state during most of his administration, and his political opponents, unfairly holding him responsible for the grievance, accomplished his defeat at the next Presidential election. When his name was proposed at the Democratic nominating convention at Baltimore in 1844 as a candidate for the Presidency, it was rejected, because Mr. Van Buren was opposed to the annexation of Texas to the Union. In 1848, when the Democrats had nominated General Cass to please the slaveholders, the friends of Mr. Van Buren, in convention at Utica, adopting as their political creed a phase of anti-slavery, nominated him as a "free-soil" candidate for the Presidency, with Charles Francis Adams, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. In accepting the nomination, Mr. Van Buren declared his full assent to the anti-slavery principles of the platform. The convention declared that Congress had "no more power to make a slave than to make a king," and that it was the duty of the national government to relieve itself of "all responsibility for the existence or continuance of slavery wherever the government possessed constitutional authority to legislate on that subject." General Taylor, candidate of the Whigs, was elected. Mr. Van Buren made a tour in Europe (1853-55). On the outbreak of the Civil War he took decided ground against the enemies of the government.

Van Buren's Cabinet: John Forsyth, of Georgia, Secretary of State; Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire, Secretary of the Treasury; Joel R. Poinsett, of South Carolina, Secretary of War; Mahlon Dickerson, of New Jersey, Secretary of the Navy; Amos Kendall, of Kentucky, Postmaster-general; and Benjamin F. Butler, of New York, Attorney-general. These gentlemen were all members of President Jackson's cabinet excepting Mr. Poinsett. The latter succeeded General Lewis Cass, who, in 1836, had been sent as United States Minister to France.

Van Cleve, HORATIO PHILLIPS, was born at Princeton, N. J., Nov. 23, 1809, and graduated at West Point in 1831, but left the army in 1839. He was employed in civil-engineering and agriculture in Michigan and Minnesota until the breaking-out of the Civil War in 1861, when he became colonel of a regiment of Minnesota volunteers. He commanded these in the battle of Mill Spring (which see) in January, 1862; and for his gallant conduct there he was made a brigadier-general in March. He commanded a brigade in Crittenden's division in northern Mississippi and Alabama; and when that officer was promoted (Oct. 1, 1862) General Van Cleve took command of the division, with which he did excellent service in the battle of Stone's River, where he was wounded. In September, 1863, he performed good service in northern Georgia, particularly in the battle of Chickamauga. From 1863 to 1865 he was in command at Murfreesborough, and in January, 1866, was

made Adjutant-general of the State of Minnesota.

Van Cortlandt, PHILIP, was born in New York, Sept. 1, 1749; died Nov. 5, 1831. At the age of nineteen years he became a land-surveyor, but when the war for independence began he entered the military service as lieutenant-colonel. His Tory relatives had tried to dissuade him from this step, and Governor Tryon sent him a commission as colonel of militia, which he destroyed. In 1776 he was made colonel of the Second New York Regiment, with which he fought at Bemis's Heights and Saratoga (which see). In the winter of 1778 he was sent to protect the New York frontiers against the Indians under Brant. Colonel Van Cortlandt was a member of the court that tried General Arnold for improper conduct at Philadelphia, and was in favor of cashiering him. "Had all the court," wrote Van Cortlandt in his diary, "known Arnold's former conduct as well as myself, he would have been dismissed the service." In 1780 Colonel Van Cortlandt commanded a regiment under Lafayette; was with him in Virginia; and for his gallant conduct at Yorktown was promoted to brigadier-general. At the close of the war he retired to the Manor House at Croton. From 1788 to 1790 he was a member of the New York Legislature, and of the state convention that adopted the national Constitution. He was United States Senator from 1791 to 1794, and member of Congress from 1793 to 1809. Lafayette was accompanied by General Van Cortlandt in his tour through the United States in 1824-25.

Van Cortlandt, PIERRE, was born on the Van Cortlandt Manor, Westchester County, N. Y., Jan. 10, 1721; died at the Manor House, May 1, 1814. He was a member of the First Provincial Congress of New York. He was Chairman of the Committee of Public Safety, and was exceedingly active in the patriot cause. Throughout the Revolution he appears to have been the principal administrator of the government of New York; and so obnoxious was he to the British government that it set a bounty on his head. He was the first Lieutenant-governor of the State of New York (George Clinton was the first governor), and held that position by re-election while Clinton remained in office—eighteen years. He had been one of the committee that framed the constitution of the State of New York in 1777.

Vancouver, GEORGE, an English navigator, was born about 1758; died near London, May 10, 1798. He accompanied Captain Cook in his last two voyages. In 1790 he was made master in the royal navy, and was sent out in command of the *Discovery* to ascertain whether in North America, between north latitudes 30° and 60°, there was any interior sea or water communication between the known gulfs of the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. He sailed from England in April, 1791, and in the spring of 1792 crossed from the Sandwich Islands to the American coast, when Nootka was surrendered by the Spaniards in accordance with previous arrange-

ments. He did not find the sought-for waters, and returned to London, late in 1795, with shattered health. His name was given to a large island on the western coast of America. He devoted himself to the arrangement of his manuscripts for publication, and his voyages, published in three volumes after his death, were edited by his brother.

Vanderbilt, CORNELIUS, was born near Stapleton, Staten Island, N. Y., May 27, 1794; died in New York city, Jan. 4, 1877. Spurning education, at the age of sixteen years he managed, with his mother's assistance, to buy a small boat, with which he carried passengers and "truck" between Staten Island and New York. At eighteen he owned two boats, and was captain of a third. Prosperity constantly attended him. He married at nineteen, and when he was twenty-three he was worth \$9000 and out of debt. Then he settled in New York, where he bought vessels of various kinds; and in 1817 he assisted in building the first steamboat that plied between New York and New Brunswick, of which he was captain, with a salary of \$1000 a year. He commanded a finer boat in 1818, his wife at the same time keeping a hotel at New Brunswick. He soon had full control of that steamboat line, and in 1827 he made \$40,000 a year profit. He started steamboats in various waters—the Hudson, the Delaware, Long Island Sound, etc., everywhere seeking to have a monopoly of the business and profits. His wealth greatly increased. He engaged in establishing steamboat and other connection between New York and California. After 1848 he fought opposition vigorously and triumphed. In 1856 he received a large subsidy for withdrawing his transit line; and in 1861 he presented to the government of the United States the *Vanderbilt*, a steam-vessel that cost \$800,000, for the suppression of the great insurrection. During his steamship career he owned twenty-one steamships, eleven of which he built; and, with steamboats, his entire fleet numbered sixty-six. For many years he was popularly called "Commodore." When he abandoned the water in 1864 his accumulations were estimated at \$40,000,000. So early as 1844 he had become interested in railroads; now he turned his capital and his energies in that direction. He obtained control of one railroad after another; and at the time of his death his various roads covered lines more than two thousand miles in extent, and, under one management, represented an aggregate capital of \$150,000,000, of which Vanderbilt and his family owned fully one half. His entire property at his death was estimated in value at nearly \$100,000,000, nearly all of which he bequeathed to his son William H., that the great railroad enterprise might go on as a unit and increase. In 1873 Mr. Vanderbilt went to Europe in his steam yacht *North Star*, and the same year he gave \$500,000 to a university of the Methodist Episcopal Church at Nashville, which is called "Vanderbilt University." He afterwards increased the gift to \$700,000, \$300,000 of which is to remain as a permanent invested sum.

Van der Lyn, JOHN, painter, was born at Kingston, N. Y., in October, 1776; died there, Sept. 23, 1852. At the age of sixteen years he received instructions in painting from Gilbert Stuart, and in 1796, through the aid of Aaron Burr, he went to Paris, and studied there five years. He returned, but went to Europe again, where he resided twelve years (from 1803 to 1815). There he painted a large picture of "Marius seated amid the Ruins of Carthage," for which he won the gold medal at the Louvre in 1808, and high commendation from Napoleon. On his return to America he painted portraits of distinguished citizens, and introduced the panoramic method of exhibiting pictures. In 1832 he was commissioned to paint a full-length portrait of Washington for the House of Representatives; and in 1839 he painted for one of the panels of the Rotunda of the Capitol "The Landing of Columbus."

Van Dorn, EARL, was born in Missouri in 1821; died at Spring Hill, Tenn., May 8, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1842, and served in the war against Mexico. A zealous proslavery advocate, he was among the first to leave his flag and join the insurgents, taking a command of Texas volunteers. He received in Texas the surrender of a portion of the United States soldiers betrayed by General Twiggs. Made a Confederate major-general, he took command of the trans-Mississippi district in January, 1862, and was defeated at Pea Ridge (which see) in March. He was afterwards defeated at Corinth, and superseded by Pemberton. Defeated at Franklin (which see), he was not long afterwards shot by Dr. Peters, whose wife, it was alleged, he had dishonored.

Van Dorn in Texas. Major Earl Van Dorn, who had deserted his flag, was commissioned colonel by Jefferson Davis, and appeared in Texas in April, 1861, to secure for the use of the insurgent army, by persuasion or force, the remnant of the forces betrayed by Twiggs. (See *Twiggs, David E., Treacherous Conduct of.*) Van Dorn was a brave and dashing officer. He held out to them brilliant promises, and persuasions of every kind were brought to bear upon them, but in vain. At that time seven companies, under Major Sibley, were at Matagorda Bay, preparing to embark for the North on the *Star of the West*, under convoy of the gunboat *Mohawk*. These vessels did not make their appearance, and Sibley embarked on two lighters for Tampico, Mexico. Lack of coal and provisions compelled him to turn back. Again sailing, a heavy gale compelled him to anchor within the bay. During a very dark night that ensued, four vessels, with 1500 Texans under Van Dorn, came into the bay, and the next morning captured Sibley and his whole command. At about the same time a party of volunteers from Galveston captured the *Star of the West* (April 17), with all her stores—20,000 rations. On the 23d Colonel Waite and all his officers, on duty at San Antonio, were made prisoners; so also were seven companies under Colonel Reese, who were making their way towards the coast, by

1500 men under Van Dorn. These were all the National troops remaining in Texas, which Twiggs had surrendered. They were kept prisoners a while, and, after being compelled to give their parole not to bear arms against the insurgents, embarked for New York.

Vane, SIR HENRY, was born at Hadlow, Kent, Eng., in 1612; executed on Tower Hill, London, June 14, 1662. He was a son of Sir Henry, Secretary of State under kings James and Charles I. In very early life he refused to take the oath of supremacy, became a Puritan and a Republican, came to Boston in 1635 (Oct. 3), at the age of twenty-four years, and was almost immediately chosen governor. His was a stormy administration, for it was agitated by the "Hutchinson Controversy." (See *Hutchinson, Anne*.) Vane was enlightened and tolerant. He abhorred bigotry in every form, warmly defended the inviolability of the rights of conscience and the exemption of religion from all control by the civil authorities, and had no sympathy with the attacks of the clergy upon Mrs. Hutchinson. Winthrop, whom he had superseded as governor of Massachusetts, led a strong opposition to him, and the next year he was defeated as a candidate for re-election, but became a member of the General Court. Late in the summer of 1637 he sailed for England, was elected to Parliament, became one of the treasurers of the navy, and in 1640 was knighted. In the Long Parliament he was a member, and a strong opponent of royalty. He was the principal mover of the Solemn League and Covenant, and in 1648 was a leader of the minority in Parliament which favored the rejection of terms of settlement offered by the king. In 1649 he was a member of the Council of State, and had almost exclusive direction of the navy. He was then considered one of the foremost men in the nation, and Milton wrote a fine sonnet in his praise. He and Cromwell were brought in conflict by the forcible dissolution of the Long Parliament by the latter. Vane was leader of the Rebellion Parliament in 1659. When Charles II. ascended the throne, Vane, considered one of the worst enemies of his beheaded father, was committed to the Tower in 1662, and soon afterwards executed. Sir Henry Vane was chiefly instrumental in procuring the first charter for Rhode Island.

Van Horne's Defeat. The untiring Governor Meigs sent Captain Brush with men, cattle, provisions, and a mail for Hull's army. At the River Raisin (now Monroe, Mich.), Brush sent word to Hull that he had information that a body of Indians under Tecumtha was lying in wait for him near Brownstown, at the mouth of the Huron River, twenty-five miles below Detroit, and he asked the general to send down a detachment of soldiers as an escort. Hull ordered Major Thomas B. Van Horne, of Colonel Findlay's regiment, with two hundred men, to join Brush, and escort him and his treasures to headquarters. The major crossed the Detroit from Hull's forces in Canada Aug. 4, 1812. On the morning of the 5th, while the detachment

was moving cautiously, Van Horne was told by a Frenchman that several hundred Indians lay in ambush near Brownstown. Accustomed to alarmists, he did not believe the story, and pushed forward his men in two columns, when they were fired upon from both sides by Indians concealed in the thickets and woods. The attack was sudden, sharp, and deadly, and the troops were thrown into confusion. Apprehensive that he might be surrounded, Van Horne



THOMAS B. VAN HORNE.

ordered a retreat. The Indians pursued, and a running fight was kept up for some distance, the Americans frequently turning upon the savage foe and giving them deadly volleys. The mail carried by the Americans was lost, and fell into the hands of the British at Fort Malden, by which most valuable information concerning the army under Hull was revealed, for officers and soldiers had written freely to their friends at home. The Americans lost seventeen killed and several wounded, who were left behind.

Van Rensselaer, HENRY KILLIAN, was born near Albany in 1744; died at Greenbush, N. Y., Sept. 9, 1816. He commanded a regiment in the old war for independence, and was wounded in the battle of Saratoga (which see). He was afterwards a general of militia. In July, 1777, at about the time of the retreat of the American army from Ticonderoga before Burgoyne, he was attacked by a large British force near Fort Anne. He made stout resistance; but, hearing of the evacuation of Ticonderoga, he fell back towards Fort Edward. In that encounter he received a bullet in his thigh, which was not extracted until after his death. It is preserved by his family.

Van Rensselaer, SOLOMON, was born in Rensselaer County, N. Y., Aug. 6, 1774; died at Albany, N. Y., April 23, 1852. He was a son of Henry Killian. He entered the military service as cornet of cavalry in 1792, and in the battle of Fall-

en Timbers (which see), fought by Wayne (Aug. 20, 1794), was shot through the lungs. From 1801 to 1810 he was adjutant-general of the New York militia. He was lieutenant-colonel of vol-

the first patroon. His mother was a daughter of Philip Livingston. He married a daughter of General Philip Schuyler in 1783. In 1789 he was a member of the Legislature, and State Senator from 1790 to 1795. From 1795 to 1801 he was lieutenant-governor. He presided over the Constitutional Convention in 1801, and in 1810-11 was one of the commissioners to ascertain the feasibility of a canal to connect the waters of the Lakes with the Hudson. From 1816 until his death he was one of the canal commissioners, and for fifteen years president of the board. In 1801 he commanded the state cavalry, with the rank of major-general; and when the War of 1812-15 broke out was chief of the New York state militia. (See *Queenstown, Battle at.*) In 1819 he was elected a regent of the State University, and afterwards its chancellor. In 1820 he was president of the State Agricultural Board, a member of the Constitutional Convention in 1821, and of Congress from 1823 to 1829. At his expense, and under his direction, a geological survey of New York was made in 1821-23. In 1824 he established at Troy, N. Y., a scientific school for the instruction of teachers, which was incorporated in 1826 as "The Rensselaer Institute." Yale College conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D. in 1825.

Van Schaack, PETER, was one of the most eminent citizens of the state of New York. His ancestors were from Holland, and settled at an early period at Kinderhook, Columbia Co., N. Y., where he was born in March, 1747, and died Sept. 17, 1832. Mr. Van Schaack was educated at King's (now Columbia) College, in the city of New York, and had the reputation of being a most accomplished classical scholar. While in college he married Elizabeth Cruger; and choosing the law as a profession, entered the office of Mr. Sylvester, in Albany, concluding his studies with the eminent William Smith, in New York. Soon rising to eminence in his profession, he was appointed, at the age of twenty-six years, sole reviser of the colonial statutes. When the war for independence broke out he was one of the New York Committee of Correspondence; but when the question, Shall the American colonies take up arms against Great Britain? had to be answered by every American citizen, his voice was in the negative, and during the war that ensued Mr. Van Schaack was a conscientious loyalist, but assumed the position of strict neutrality. He did not escape persecution, for suspicion was everywhere keen-scented. The Committee on Conspiracies at Albany summoned him before them (June, 1777), and required him to take the oath of allegiance to the Continental Congress. He refused, and was ordered to Boston within ten days. From that time he was constantly restrained; and when he asked the privilege of taking his wife, who was dying with consumption, to New York, it was refused. She died, and he was banished from his native country in October, 1778, when he went to England, and remained there until the summer of 1785—almost seven years—when he returned home, and was received with open arms by men of all parties. While in England he had asso-



SOLOMON VAN RENSSELAER.

unteers of New York in 1812, and commanded the troops that attacked those of the British at Queenstown, Oct. 13 of that year. At the landing-place he received four wounds, and had to be carried back to Lewiston, on the east side of the Niagara River. From 1819 to 1822 he was a member of Congress, and from 1822 until 1839 postmaster at Albany. He published a *Narrative of the Affair at Queenstown* in 1836.

Van Rensselaer, STEPHEN, LL.D., the last of the patroons (which see), was born in New



STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER.

York, Nov. 1, 1764; died at Albany, Jan. 26, 1839. He was the fifth in lineal descent from Killian,

ciated with the most distinguished men of the realm, who regarded him as one of the brightest Americans among them, for his scholarship, legal attainments, and rare social qualities were remarkable. These made his mansion at Kinderhook (yet standing) the resort of some of the most eminent men of our land, and his society was sought after continually as a boon. In early life Mr. Van Schaack lost the sight of one of his eyes, and he suffered many afflictions with great fortitude.

Van Schaick, GOOSEN, was born at Albany, N. Y., in 1737; died July 4, 1789. He served in the French and Indian War, taking part in the expeditions against Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Fort Frontenac, and Niagara (1756-59), and was major in Colonel Johnson's regiment in 1759. On the breaking-out of the Revolution he was made colonel of the Second New York Regiment, and late in 1776 was in command of a battalion sent to the vicinity of Cherry Valley to protect the inhabitants against Brant and his followers, in which work he was vigilant and active. In the battle of Monmouth he was a brigadier under Lord Stirling. In the spring of 1779 he was sent by Washington to destroy the settlement of the Onondaga Indians, for the performance of which service Congress gave him its thanks. He was made brigadier-general by brevet, Oct. 10, 1783. (See *Brevet*.) Van Schaick was a rigid disciplinarian, and his regiment one of the best in the service.

Van Twiller, WOUTER (or WALTER), was a resident of Nieuwkerk, in Holland, and in 1623 was chosen to succeed Peter Minuits as governor of New Netherland. He was one of the clerks in the West India Company's warehouse at Amsterdam, and had married a niece of Killian van Rensselaer, the wealthiest of the newly created patroons. Van Rensselaer had employed him to ship cattle to his domain on Hudson's River, and it was probably his interest to have this agent in New Netherland; so, through his influence, the incompetent Van Twiller was appointed direct-general of the colony. He was inexperienced in the art of government, slow in speech, incompetent to decide, narrow-minded, and irresolute. He was called by a satirist "Walter the Doubter." Washington Irving, in his broad caricature of him, says, "His habits were as regular as his person. He daily took his four stated meals, appropriating exactly an hour to each; he smoked and doubted eight hours, and he slept the remaining twelve of the four-and-twenty." He knew the details of the counting-room routine, but nothing of men or the affairs of state. He even came into collision with abler men in the colony. In the company's armed ship *Soutberg*, with one hundred and four soldiers, he sailed for Manhattan. With him also came Evert Bogart (or Everardus Bogardus), the first clergyman sent to New Netherland, and Adam Roelandsen, schoolmaster. The chief business of Van Twiller's administration appears to have been to maintain and extend the commercial operations of his principals, the West India Company. He repaired Fort Amsterdam, erected a guard-house

and barracks, and built expensive windmills; but the latter were so near the fort that their wings frequently missed the wind. Buildings were erected for officers and other employees, and several in various parts of the province. Of this extravagance complaint was made, and Van Twiller's shortcomings were severely denounced by Dominie Bogardus, who, in a letter to him, called him a "child of the devil," and threatened him with "such a shake from the pulpit" on the following Sunday "as would make him shudder." His administration was so much complained of in Holland that he was recalled in 1637. He left the colony in a sorry condition, but with an ample private estate. Van Rensselaer seems to have had confidence in Van Twiller, for he made him executor of his last will and testament. In a controversy, Van Twiller took sides against the West India Company, and vilified the administration of Stuyvesant. The company were indignant, and spoke of Van Twiller as an ungrateful man who had "sucked his wealth from the breasts of the company which he now abuses."

Varick, RICHARD, was born at Hackensack, N. J., March 25, 1753; died in Jersey City, July 30, 1831. He was a lawyer in the city of New York when the war for independence began, and he entered the service as captain in McDougall's regiment. Soon afterwards he became General Schuyler's military secretary, and remained so until that officer was superseded by Gates in the summer of 1777, continuing with the army, with the rank of colonel, until the capture of Burgoyne. Varick was inspector-general at West Point until after Arnold's treason, when he became a member of Washington's military family, acting as his recording secretary until near the close of the Revolution. When the British evacuated the city of New York (Nov. 25, 1783) Colonel Varick was made recorder there, and held the office until 1789, when he became attorney-general of the state. Afterwards he was elected mayor of New York, and held that office until 1801. He and Samuel Jones were appointed (1786) to revise the laws of the state of New York, and in 1787 he was speaker of the Assembly. Colonel Varick was one of the founders of the American Bible Society. In person he was over six feet in height, and of imposing presence.

Varnum, JAMES MITCHELL, was born at Dracut, Mass., in 1749; died at Marietta, O., Jan. 10, 1789. He graduated at Rhode Island College (Brown University) in 1769, and became an eminent lawyer in East Greenwich, R. I. In 1774 he was commander of the "Kentish Guards," from the ranks of which came General Greene and about thirty other officers of the Revolution. He was made colonel of the First Rhode Island Regiment in January, 1775, and soon afterwards entered the Continental army, becoming brigadier-general in February, 1777. He was at Red Bank (Fort Mercer), in command of all the troops on the Jersey side of the Delaware, when the British took Philadelphia; and it was under his direction that Major Thayer

(which see) made his gallant defence of Fort Mifflin. General Varnum was at Valley Forge the following winter; took part in the battle of Monmouth (June 28, 1778); joined Sullivan in his expedition to Rhode Island, serving under the immediate orders of Lafayette, and resigned in 1779, when he was chosen major-general of militia, which office he held until his death. In the Continental Congress (1780-82 and 1786-87) he was very active, and an eloquent speaker. Appointed Judge of the Supreme Court in the Northwest Territory, he removed to Marietta in June, 1788, and held the office until his death.

Varnum, JOSEPH BRADLEY, brother of James M., was born at Dracut, Mass., in 1750; died there, Sept. 11, 1821. He was an active patriot during the Revolution, both in the council and in the field; was member of Congress from 1795 to 1811, speaker of the Tenth and the Eleventh Congress, and United States Senator from 1811 to 1817. Mr. Varnum had been made major-general of militia at an early day, and at the time of his death was the oldest officer of that rank in Massachusetts, and also senior member of the United States Senate.

Varuna, THE. In the naval battle on the Mississippi (which see) below New Orleans, the chief efforts of the Confederate gunboats seemed to be directed against the *Cayuga*, Captain Bailey, and the *Varuna*, Captain Boggs (which see).



CAPTAIN BOGGS.

The *Cayuga* had compelled three of the Confederate gunboats to surrender to her, and was fighting desperately, when the *Varuna* rushed into the thickest of the battle to rescue her. Then the *Varuna* became the chief object of the wrath of the Confederates. "Immediately after passing the forts," reported Captain Boggs, "I found myself amid a nest of rebel steamers." As he penetrated this "nest," he poured a broadside upon each vessel as he passed. The first that received his fire appeared to be crowded with troops. Her boiler was exploded by a shot, and she drifted ashore. Soon afterwards the *Varuna* drove three other vessels ashore in flames, and all of them blew up. Very soon af-

terwards she was fiercely attacked by the "ram" Governor Moore, commanded by Captain Kennon, formerly of the United States Navy. It raked along the *Varuna's* port-gangway, doing considerable damage; but Boggs soon drove her out of action, when another "ram," its beak under water, struck the *Varuna* at the same point. The shots of the latter glanced harmlessly from the armor of her assailant. The "ram" backed off a short distance, and, darting forward, gave the *Varuna* another blow in the same place, which crushed in her side. The "ram" became entangled, and was drawn nearly to the side of the *Varuna*, when Boggs gave her five 8-inch shells abaft her armor from his port-guns, and drove her ashore in flames. Finding his own vessel sinking, he ran her into the bank, let go her anchor, and tied her bow fast to the trees. All that time her guns were at work crippling the *Moore*, and did not cease until the water was over the gun-trunks. Then he got his wounded and crew safely on shore. The *Moore* was soon afterwards set on fire by Kennon, who abandoned her, leaving his wounded to perish in the flames. This was one of the most daring exploits of the war, and received great applause.

Vasquez De Allyon, LUKE, was a wealthy Spanish colonist in Santo Domingo, who owned extensive mines there. Cruelty had almost exterminated the natives, and Vasquez sailed northward in two ships, in 1520, in search of men on some island, to make them slaves to work his mines. Entering St. Helen's Sound, on the coast of South Carolina, by accident, he saw with delight the shores swarming with wonder-struck natives, who believed his vessels to be sea-monsters. When the Spaniards landed, the natives fled to the woods. Two of them were caught, carried on board of the ships, feasted, dressed in gay Spanish costume, and sent back. The sachem was so pleased that he sent fifty of his subjects to the vessels with fruits, and furnished guides to the Spaniards in their long excursions through the woods. When Vasquez was ready to leave, he invited a large number of native men to a feast on board his ships. They were lured below, made stupidly drunk, and were carried away to be made slaves of. Many of them died from starvation, for they refused to eat, and one of the ships foundered, and perished with all on board. The remainder were made slaves in the mines. Vasquez was rewarded as a discoverer of new lands (see *America, Discoverers of*), and made governor of Chicora, as the natives called the region of South Carolina. With three ships he proceeded to take possession of the territory and plant a colony. On Beaufort Island, Port Royal Sound, they began to build a town. The natives seemed friendly, and very soon the sachem invited the Spaniards to a great feast near the mouth of the Combahee River. About two hundred of them went. It lasted three days. When the Spaniards were all asleep, the Indians fell upon and murdered the whole of them. Then they attacked the builders on Beaufort. Some of the Spaniards escaped to their ships, and among them was Vasquez, mortally wounded.

The treachery taught the Indians by the Spaniards was repeated in full measure.

Vassar College was the first seminary of learning for imparting a full collegiate education to women established in the world. It was founded by Matthew Vassar, at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in 1861, who, on the organization of a board of trustees (Feb. 26, 1861), presented to them, for the purpose of building and equipping a college for women, the sum of \$408,000. The college edifice was erected during the Civil War, and a few weeks after the close of that war a faculty was chosen (June, 1865). The institution was opened for the reception of students in September following, when nearly three hundred and fifty young women entered. In 1864 Mr. Vassar purchased and presented to the college a collection of oil and water-color pictures for its art-gallery, at a cost of \$20,000, including an art-library of about eight thousand volumes. Mr. Vassar died in 1868, leaving, by his will, \$50,000 as a "Lecture Fund," \$50,000 as an "Auxiliary Fund," and \$50,000 as a "Library, Art, and Cabinet Fund," the income of each to be applied to the purpose for which it was intended—namely, the first-named for employing lecturers, the second for aiding meritorious students unable to pay the whole expense of a collegiate course, and the third for the enlargement of the library, art-gallery, and cabinets. He also bequeathed \$125,000 as a "Repair Fund," to meet necessary expenses in repairs of and additions to the college buildings. The college buildings are seven in number, the main building being five hundred feet in length and five stories in height. It is furnished with an excellent observatory and a museum and art department. It has a well-chosen library of fifteen thousand volumes, and every department is thoroughly equipped with everything required. The college edifice stands in the midst of two hundred acres of fine land, on which is a lake used for boating and skating purposes, which is fed by springs of pure water, from which the college is supplied with more than twenty thousand gallons a day. From the start Vassar College has been successful in every particular, and is pronounced by educators at home and abroad as a model institution. It has the honor of being the pioneer in the work of the higher education of women.

Vassar, MATTHEW, founder of Vassar College for the higher education of women, was born at Norfolk, Eng., April 29, 1792; died in the college, at Poughkeepsie, at an annual meeting of the trustees, June 23, 1868. He came to the United States with his father in 1796, when the family settled on a small farm near Poughkeepsie, Dutchess Co., N. Y., and established a brewery of ale in a small way. In 1812, at the age of twenty, Matthew began the business at Poughkeepsie, and by this and other enterprises he accumulated a large fortune. In declining life, as he was childless, he contemplated the establishment of some public institution. At the suggestion of his niece (Miss Booth), a suc-

cessful teacher of girls, he resolved to establish a college for young women, and in February, 1861, at a meeting of a board of trustees which he had chosen, he delivered to them \$408,000, for the founding of such an institution. A spacious building was erected, and in September, 1865, it was opened with a full faculty and over three hundred students. Other gifts to the college and bequests in his will increased the amount to over \$800,000. It was the first institution of the kind ever founded, and has been always flourishing. Its educational apparatus, including a valuable art-gallery for its art-schools, is very perfect. Mr. Vassar's nephews (Matthew and John Guy Vassar) built a fine laboratory on the grounds, at a cost of about \$13,000, and presented it to the college. The *alumnae* built and presented a gymnasium in 1889.

Vaudreuil, PHILIP DE RIGAUD (Marquis de), had been a brave soldier when, in 1689, he was named governor of Montreal, under Frontenac. He served in an expedition against the Iroquois, and also in defence of Quebec against the armament under Phipps, in 1690. Active and brave in military life, he was made governor of Canada in 1703, and remained so until his death, Oct. 10, 1725. During his administration he gave the English colonies infinite trouble by inciting the Indians to make perpetual forays on the frontier. His son, Pierre François, who inherited his title and was the last French governor of Canada, was born at Quebec in 1698, and died in France, 1764. He, too, was a soldier in the French army; became governor of Three Rivers in 1733, and of Louisiana in 1743; was made governor of Canada in 1755, but was regarded with contempt by Montcalm, whose friends, after the surrender of Montreal and the return of Vaudreuil to France, made charges which caused the ex-governor's imprisonment in the Bastille. He was exonerated from all blame and released, but was stripped of nearly all his possessions.

Vaughan, SIR JOHN, was born in 1738; died at Martinique, June 30, 1795. He came to America as colonel of the Fortieth Regiment, and served on the staff of Sir Henry Clinton as brigadier and major-general. In January, 1777, he was made major-general in the British army. In the battle of Long Island he led the grenadiers, and was wounded at the landing on New York Island afterwards. He participated in the capture of forts Clinton and Montgomery, in the Hudson Highlands, and, proceeding up the river in a squadron of light vessels, he burned Kingston and devastated other places on the shores. (See *Kingston, Burning of*.) In May, 1779, he captured Stony and Verplanck's Points on the Hudson, and returned to England in the fall, becoming commander-in-chief of the Leeward Islands. With Rodney, he took Eustatia in 1781. He was a representative of Berwick, in Parliament, from 1774 until his death.

Velasquez, DON DIEGO, Governor of Cuba (1518), encouraged by the account of Cordova's expedition (see *Cordova, Francis Fernandez*), fitted out an armament, under Juan de Grijalva, for further explorations of Yucatan, who sailed

from Cuba with four ships and two hundred Spanish soldiers. The advantages pointed out by this expedition induced Velasquez to send another, under Hernando Cortez, to make discoveries, and, perchance, the conquest of Mexico, the shores of which Grijalva had seen. In 1520 he sent a force, under Narvaez, to put down the ambitious Cortez in Mexico. (See *Cortez, Hernando*.) Velasquez died in 1523. He was born in old Castile, about 1460.

Vera Cruz, BOMBARDMENT AND CAPTURE OF. On Nov. 30, 1846, General Winfield Scott sailed from New York to take chief command of the American armies in Mexico. He reached the mouth of the Rio Grande about the 1st of January, 1847, but the tardiness of government in furnishing materials for attacking Vera Cruz delayed that movement several weeks. For that expedition he assigned 12,000 men, and appointed the Island of Lobos, about one hundred and twenty-five miles northwest of Vera Cruz, as the place of rendezvous. When the troops were gathered, they sailed for Vera Cruz, and landed near that city March 9, 1847. Upon an island opposite was a very strong fortress, called the Castle of San Juan de Ulloa, which the Mexicans regarded as invulnerable. This and Vera Cruz were considered the "key of the country." This fortress and the city were completely invested by the Americans four days after the landing, and on the 22d General Scott and Commodore Conner were ready for the bombardment. Then Scott summoned the city and fortress to surrender. The demand was refused, when shells from seven mortars on land (soon increased to nine) were hurled upon the city. The engineering works for the siege had been skilfully prepared by the late General Totten. The entire siege continued fifteen days, during which time the Americans fired 3000 ten-inch shells, 200 howitzer-shells, 1000 Paixhan shot, and 2500 round-shot, the whole weight of metal being about 500,000 pounds. The shells did terrible damage within the city, and many women and children became victims. On the morning of March 26 the commander of the post made overtures for surrender, and on the 29th that event took place, when about 5000 Mexicans marched out to a plain a mile from the city, where they laid down their arms, gave up their flags, and retired to the interior on parole. The city and fortress of San Juan de Ulloa, with 500 pieces of artillery and a large quantity of munitions of war passed into the possession of the Americans. The latter, during the whole siege, had lost only 80 men killed and wounded; the Mexicans lost 1000 killed and many more wounded. Scott tried to induce the governor to send the women and children and foreign residents out of the city before he began the bombardment, but that magistrate refused. (See *Mexico, War with*.)

Verazzani, JOHN, a Florentine navigator, was born about 1485. Going to France, he was employed as a navigator; and some allusions in French annals make it seem probable that he was so employed as early as 1508. He became

a bold corsair, and a terror to the merchant-ships of Spain and Portugal, seizing many vessels. In 1522 he captured the treasure-ship sent by Cortez to Charles V. with the spoils of Mexico, valued at \$1,500,000. Finally his depredations aroused both Spain and Portugal, and he was captured in the autumn of 1527 and executed at Puerto del Pico, Spain, soon afterwards. Meanwhile Verazzani, according to a



JOHN VERAZZANI.

letter from the navigator to Francis I., dated July 8, 1524, and published in the collection of voyages by Ramusio in 1556, had sailed from France late in 1523 in the ship *Dauphin*, under a commission from the king, and touched America first, at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, in March, 1524. In that letter he gives an account of his explorations of the North American coast from latitude 34° to 50°, at the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He describes the people at various points, and his topographical descriptions seem to indicate that he entered the bays of Delaware, New York, and Narraganset, and the harbor of Boston. In the Strozzi library at Florence is preserved a cosmographic description of the coasts and all the countries which Verazzani visited, from which it is evident he was in search of a northwest passage to India. The region of America which he visited he called New France (which see). The authenticity of Verazzani's letter to Francis I. has been questioned by American writers, who suppose that it was forged by one of his countrymen anxious to secure for Italy the glory due to Cabot for the discovery of the North American Continent. It is possible that Verazzani the corsair was not Verazzani the navigator. Some writers say that the latter sailed again for America in 1525, and was never heard of afterwards; while it is known that Verazzani the corsair was executed in Spain in 1527.

Vergennes, CHARLES GRAVIER (Count de), was born at Dijon, Dec. 28, 1717; died at Versailles, Feb. 13, 1787. In 1740 he was sent to Lisbon in a diplomatic capacity; in 1750 was

minister at the court of the Elector of Treves; and from 1755 to 1768 he was French ambassador to Turkey. When Louis XVI. came to the throne (1774), Vergennes was minister in Sweden. The king recalled him, and made him Minister for Foreign Affairs in July. He was the eminent French minister with whom the American diplomatists had intercourse during the entire war for independence.



CHARLES GRAVIER VERGENNES.

Vergennes, PROPHECY OF. When the Count de Vergennes, the French minister, was informed of the proclamation of King George (which see), and that it had been determined by the British ministry to burn the town of Boston and desolate the country, he exclaimed, prophetically: "The cabinet of the King of England may wish to make North America a desert, but there all its power will be stranded; if ever the English troops quit the borders of the sea, it will be easy to prevent their return." Vergennes could not persuade himself that the British ministry could refuse conciliation on the reasonable terms offered by the Americans. The king's proclamation changed his mind. "That proclamation against the Americans," he said, "changes my views altogether; it cuts off the possibility of retreat; America or the ministry themselves must succumb."

Vermont a "Sovereign State." At the middle of January (15-17), 1777, the people of the "New Hampshire Grants" (which see) assembled in convention at Windsor, and declared the "Grants" an independent state, with the title of Vermont. The territory was yet claimed by New York. At the same time the convention adopted a petition to the Continental Congress, setting forth reasons for their position of independence, and asking for admission into the confederacy of free and independent states and seats for delegates in the Congress. This petition, presented to Congress April 8, 1777, was dismissed by resolutions on June 30, in one of which it was declared "That the independent government attempted to be established by the people styling themselves inhabitants of the New Hampshire Grants can derive no countenance or justification from the act of Congress declaring the United Colonies to be independent of the crown of Great Britain, nor from any other act or resolution of Congress." The Vermonters had adopted a constitution modelled on that of Pennsylvania, and on the 8th of July a convention at Windsor adopted it. Under this frame of government Vermont successfully maintained its independence and "sovereignty" until 1791. During that time the Congress refused to admit its independence as a state of the Union, according to the ideas of

state supremacy then prevailing. After the ratification of the Articles of Confederation, in 1781, Congress offered to admit it, with a considerable curtailment of its boundaries. The people refused to come in on such terms, and for ten years they remained outside of the Union. Finally, on the 10th of January, 1791, a convention at Bennington adopted the national Constitution, and Vermont, having agreed to pay to the State of New York \$30,000 for territory claimed by that state, was, by a resolution of Congress passed on the 18th of February, admitted as a state of the Union on the 4th of March, to have two representatives in Congress until an apportionment of representatives should be made.

Vermont, STATE OF. The first settlement of white people in this state was made in 1724, by the erection of Fort Dummer near the (present) site of Brattleborough, then supposed to be in Massachusetts. The portion of country between the Connecticut River and Lake Champlain was known as "New Hampshire Grants" (which see). In the spring of 1777 the settlers in Vermont petitioned the Continental Congress for admission into the confederacy, but, New York opposing, the petition was withdrawn, and at a convention held the next year at Windsor a constitution, modelled after that of Pennsylvania, was adopted. In 1781 Congress offered to admit Vermont upon terms which the people would not agree to, and it remained outside the Union until March 4, 1791. Satisfactory arrangements having been made, it assumed the position of a state of the Union. In the War of 1812-15 the



STATE SEAL OF VERMONT.

governor refused to call out the militia, and forbade troops to leave the state; but Vermont volunteers took an active part in the battle at Plattsburg (which see), in 1814. During the troubles in Canada (1837-38), sympathizing Vermonters to the number of fully six hundred, went over to the help of the insurgents, but were soon disarmed. During the late Civil War Vermont furnished to the National army 35,256 troops. Population in 1890, 332,422.

Vermont, TOWNS ADDED TO. In February, 1781, an arrangement was made between the Legislature of Vermont and a convention held at Cornish, by which the New Hampshire Grants

(which see) east of the Connecticut River and west of the "Maine Line" were taken into union with the former state; and on April 5 the union of the Grants east and west of the Connecticut River was consummated. On the following day thirty-five representatives from the Grants east of the river took their seats in the Assembly of Vermont.

Vernon, EDWARD, was born at Westminster, England, Nov. 12, 1684; died at his seat in Suffolk, Oct. 29, 1757. He served under Admiral Hopson in the expedition which destroyed the French and Spanish fleets off Vigo on Oct. 12, 1702, and was at the naval battle between the French and English off Malaga in 1704. In 1708 he attained the rank of rear-admiral, and remained in active service until 1727, when he was elected to Parliament. He loudly condemned the acts of the ministry, and, in the course of remarks while arraigning them for their weakness, declared that Porto Bello could be taken with six ships. For this remark he was extolled throughout the kingdom. There was a loud clamor against the ministry, and to silence it they sent Vernon to the West Indies, with the commission of vice-admiral of the blue. With six men-of-war he captured Porto Bello on the day after the attack (November, 1739), the English losing only seven men. For this exploit a commemorative medal was struck, bearing an effigy of the admiral on one disk, and a town and six ships on the other. With twenty-nine ships of the line and eighty small vessels, bearing fifteen thousand sailors and twelve thousand land-troops, Vernon sailed from Jamaica (January, 1741) to attack Carthagena, but was repulsed with heavy loss. Twenty thousand men perished, chiefly by a malignant fever. The admiral was afterwards in Parliament several years, and during the invasion of the Young Pretender in 1745 he was employed to guard the coasts of Kent and Suffolk; but soon afterwards, on account of a quarrel with the admiralty, his name was struck from the list of admirals. Lawrence Washington, a spirited young man of twenty-two, bearing a captain's commission, joined Vernon's expedition in 1741, and because of his admiration for the admiral he named his estate, on the Potomac, "Mount Vernon."

Veto, PRESIDENT MADISON'S. The third veto in the history of the government was made by the President near the close of the session of Congress in March, 1811, on two bills—one incorporating an Episcopal Church in the District of Columbia, the other granting a piece of public land to a Baptist Church in Mississippi. The ground of the veto was that the bill conflicted with the clause in the Constitution forbidding Congress to make any law respecting a religious establishment.

Veto, THE FIRST. Section VII., article 1 of the national Constitution authorizes the President of the United States to return any act presented to him for his approval, to the House in which it may have originated, with his objections, made in writing. This is called a veto. If

Congress shall thereafter pass the bill by a vote of two thirds of its members, it becomes a law without the signature of the President. The first exercise of the veto power by the President of the United States was by Washington, who returned to the House of Representatives, wherein it originated, "an act for the apportionment of representatives among the several states according to the first enumeration," with his objections, stated as follows: "1st. The Constitution has prescribed that representatives shall be apportioned among the several states according to their respective numbers; and there is no proportion or division which, applied to the respective numbers of the states, will yield the number and allotment of representatives proposed by the bill. 2d. The Constitution has also provided that the number of representatives shall not exceed one for thirty thousand—which restriction is, by the context, and by fair and obvious construction, to be applied to the separate and respective numbers of the states—and the bill has allotted to eight of the states more than one for thirty thousand."

Vice-admiralty Courts. For the enforcement of the Navigation Acts (which see), courts of vice-admiralty were established throughout the colonies in 1697, with power to try admiralty and revenue cases without a jury—the model of our existing United States District Courts. These were strongly resisted, especially in the chartered colonies. The Privy Council (which see) maintained the doctrine that nothing prevented the king from establishing an admiralty jurisdiction within every dominion of the crown, chartered or not.

Vicksburg and Farragut. The city of Vicksburg, situated on a group of eminences called the Walnut Hills, on the east bank of the Mississippi River, in the State of Mississippi, had been fortified by the Confederates, who thus blockaded that great stream. It was at a bold bend in the river. It promised to be a most commanding centre of power for the Confederates, and towards that point operations in the southwest were soon tending. To remove this obstruction to the navigation of the Mississippi, Commodore Farragut, in command of National vessels, bent his energies. Baton Rouge had been taken possession of by National forces (May 7, 1862). At that point Farragut held communication with the commanders of gunboats above. Finally he went up and attacked the batteries there (June 26). General Williams attempted, with the aid of twelve hundred negroes, to cut a canal across a peninsula in front of Vicksburg, so as to avoid the Confederate guns at the city. He failed. It was undertaken by Grant the next year, with the same result. (See *Vicksburg, Siege of*.)

Vicksburg, SIEGE OF. This was begun at the close of 1862, and ended early in July following. At the beginning of 1863 the national government had more than 700,000 soldiers in its service; and up to that time the loyal people had furnished 1,200,000 troops, mostly vol-

unteers, for the salvation of the life of the Republic. The Confederates had blockaded the Mississippi River by planting heavy batteries on bluffs at Vicksburg and Port Hudson. These formed connections between the insurgents on each side of that stream, and it was important to break those connections. To this end General Grant concentrated his forces near the Tallahatchee River, in northern Mississippi, where Generals Hovey and Washburne had been operating with troops which they had led from Helena, Ark. Grant had gathered a large quantity of supplies at Holley Springs, which, through carelessness or treachery, had fallen (Dec. 20, 1862) into the hands of Van Dorn, and he was compelled to fall back to Grand Junction to save his army. Taking advantage of this movement, a large Confederate force under Lieutenant-general J. C. Pemberton had been gathered at Vicksburg for the protection of that post. On the day when Grant's supplies were seized General W. T. Sherman left Memphis with transports bearing siege-guns to beleaguer Vicksburg. At Friar's Point they were joined by troops from Hatteras, and were met by Commodore Porter, whose fleet of gunboats was at the mouth of the Yazoo River, just above Vicksburg. The two commanders arranged a plan for attacking the city in the rear, and proceeded to attempt to execute it. The troops and boats went up the Yazoo to capture some batteries that blocked the way, but were unsuccessful, and abandoned the project. Early in January General J. A. McClernand arrived and, ranking Sherman, took the chief command, and went up the Arkansas River to attack Confederate posts. Meanwhile General Grant had arranged his army into four corps, and with it descended the river from Memphis to prosecute the siege of Vicksburg with vigor. He was soon convinced that it could not be taken by direct assault. He tried to perfect the canal begun by Williams (see *Vicksburg and Farragut*), but failed. Then he sent a land and naval force up the Yazoo to gain the rear of Vicksburg, but was repulsed. Finally Grant sent a strong land force down the west side of the Mississippi, and Porter ran by the batteries at Vicksburg in the night (April 16, 1863) with nearly his whole fleet. Then Grant prepared for vigorous operations in the rear of Vicksburg, on the line of the Black River. On April 27 Porter ran by the Confederate batteries at Grand Gulf, when Grant's army crossed a little below, gained a victory at Port Gibson, and, calling Sherman down the west side of the Mississippi and across it to join him (May 8), the whole force pushed forward and captured Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. Then the victorious army turned westward towards Vicksburg, and, after two successful battles, swept on and closely invested the strongly fortified city in the rear (May 19), receiving their supplies from a base on the Yazoo established by Porter. For a fortnight the army had subsisted off the country through which it passed. After a brief rest Grant began the siege of Vicksburg. Sherman had taken possession of the Walnut Hills, near

Chickasaw Bayou, cutting off a Confederate force at Haines's Bluff (which see); while McClernand, advancing to the left, took position at Mount Albans, so as to cover the roads leading out of the city. Porter, with his fleet of gunboats, was lying in the Mississippi, above Vicksburg, and was preparing the way for a successful siege, which Grant began with Sherman on the right, McPherson in the centre, and McClernand on the left. Grant was holding a line almost twenty miles in extent—from the Yazoo to the Mississippi at Warrenton. He prepared to storm the batteries on the day after the arrival of his troops before them. It was begun by Sherman's corps in the afternoon of May 19, Blair's division taking the lead. There had been artillery firing all the morning; now there was close work. The Nationals, after a severe struggle, were repulsed. Grant engaged Commodore Porter to assist in another assault on the 22d. All night of the 21st and 22d Porter kept six mortars playing upon the city and the works, and sent three gunboats to shell the water-batteries. It was a fearful night for Vicksburg, but the next day was more fearful still. At ten o'clock on the 22d Grant's whole line moved to the attack. As before, Blair led the van, and very soon there was a general battle. At two different points the right was repulsed. Finally McClernand, on the left, sent word that he held two captured forts. Then another charge upon the works by a part of Sherman's troops occurred, but without success. The centre, under McPherson, met with no better success, and, with heavy losses, McClernand could not hold all that he had won. Porter had joined in the fray; but this second assault was unsuccessful. The Nationals had lost about 3000 men. Then Grant determined on a regular siege. His effective force then did not exceed 20,000 men. The beleaguered garrison had only about 15,000 effective men out of 30,000 within the lines, with short rations for only a month. Grant was soon reinforced by troops of Generals Lanman, A. J. Smith, and Kimball, which were assigned to the command of General Washburne. Then came General Herron from Missouri (June 11) with his division, and then a part of the Ninth Corps, under General Parke. With these troops, his force numbered nearly 70,000 men, and, with Porter's fleet, Vicksburg was completely enclosed. Porter kept up a continual bombardment and cannonade for forty days, during which time he fired 7000 mortar-shells, and the gunboats 4500 shells. Grant drew his lines closer and closer. He kept up a bombardment day and night. The inhabitants had taken shelter in caves dug in the clay hills on which the city stands. In these families lived day and night, and in these children were born. Famine attacked the inhabitants, and mule-meat made a savory dish. The only hope of the Confederates for deliverance was in the arrival of Johnston from Jackson (which see) with a force competent to drive the Nationals away. As June wore on Grant pressed the siege with vigor. Johnston tried to help Pemberton, but could not. Grant proceeded to

mine under some of the Confederate works to blow them up. One of these, known as Fort Hill Bastion, was in front of McPherson, and on the afternoon of June 25 it was exploded with terrible effect, making a great breach, at which a fierce struggle ensued. Three days later there was another explosion, when another struggle took place. Other mines were ready to be fired, and Grant prepared for a general assault. Pemberton lost hope. For forty-five days he had been engaged in a brave struggle, and saw nothing but submission in the end, and on the morning of July 3 he raised a white flag. That afternoon Grant and Pemberton met and arranged terms of surrender, and at ten o'clock the next day (July 4, 1863) the vanquished brigades of the Confederates began to march out of the lines at Vicksburg as prisoners of war. At the same time there was a great National victory at Gettysburg (which see); and the 4th of July, 1863, was the turning-point in the Civil War. In the battles from Fort Gibson to Vicksburg Grant lost 9855 men, of whom 1223 were killed. In these engagements he had made 37,000 prisoners; and the Confederates had lost, besides, 10,000 killed and wounded, with a vast number of stragglers. Two days before the surrender a Vicksburg newspaper, printed on wall-paper, ridiculed a reported assurance of Grant that he should dine in that city on the 4th of July, saying, "Ulysses must first get into the city before he dines in it." The same paper eulogized the "luxury of mule-meat and fricasseed kitten."

Viele, EGBERT L., was born at Waterford, N. Y., June 17, 1825, and graduated at West Point in 1847, serving through a portion of the war against Mexico. He resigned in 1853, and was appointed State Engineer of New Jersey. In 1857 he was Engineer-in-chief of the Central Park (N. Y.) Commission, and, in 1860, of Prospect Park, Brooklyn. In August, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and accompanied the expedition to Port Royal. In the siege of Fort Pulaski (which see) he was in command of the investing forces; and he led the advance in the capture of Norfolk, of which place he was made military governor in August, and remained so until his resignation in October, 1863. Since then he has been a civil engineer in New York city. He is author of a *Hand-book for Actual Service, Reports on the Central Park, Topographical Survey of New Jersey, and Topography and Hydrography of New York*.

Vienna (VA.), SKIRMISH NEAR. At the middle of June, 1861, the insurgents were hovering along the line of the railway between Alexandria and Leesburg, Va., and on the 16th they fired upon a railway train at the little village of Vienna, fifteen miles from Alexandria. Ohio troops under A. McD. McCook were ordered to picket and guard this road. They left their encampment near Alexandria on June 17, 1861, accompanied by Brigadier-general R. C. Schenck, and proceeded cautiously in cars towards Vienna. Detachments were left at different points, and when they approached that village only

four companies (less than three hundred men) were on the train. A detachment of six hundred South Carolinians, a company of artillery, and two companies of cavalry, sent out by Beauregard, were waiting in ambush. These had just torn up the track and destroyed a water-tank, when they heard the whistling of the coming train. In a deep cut at a curve of the railway they planted two cannons so as to sweep the road, and masked them. When the train was fairly exposed the cannons opened fire and swept the cut with grape and canister. These went over the heads of the sitting soldiers. The troops leaped from the train, fell back along the railway, rallied in a grove near by, and maintained their position so firmly that the insurgents, believing them to be the advance of a heavier force, retired and hastened to Fairfax Court-house. The Union force lost five killed, six wounded, and thirteen missing. The loss of the insurgents is unknown. When the latter ascertained how small was the force they had assailed they returned and took possession of Vienna and Falis Church Village. On that occasion the flag of the "sovereign" State of South Carolina was first displayed before Union troops outside of that state.

Villere's Plantation, BATTLE AT (1814). The British army for the invasion of Louisiana (which see) were landed on the shore of Lake Borgne, after the fleet had destroyed the American flotilla on that sheet of water, and pushed on in barges towards the Mississippi through the Bienville Bayou and Villere's Canal. They encamped on Villere's plantation, about nine miles from New Orleans and in sight of the Mississippi. As they approached that spot the active Lieutenant-colonel Thornton, of the British army, pushed forward with a detachment, surrounded the mansion of General Villere, the commander of the first division of Louisiana militia, and made him a prisoner. He soon escaped to New Orleans. Early on the 15th Jackson had been informed of the capture of the American flotilla on Lake Borgne (which see). He at once proceeded to fortify and strengthen every approach to the city. He sent messengers to Generals Coffee, Carroll, and Thomas, urging them to hasten to New Orleans with the Tennesseans, and directed General Winchester, at Mobile, to be on the alert. On the 18th he had a grand review of all the troops at his command, and there was much enthusiasm among the soldiers and the citizens. The call upon the Tennessee generals was quickly responded to. Coffee came first, and encamped five miles above New Orleans. Carroll arrived on Dec. 22; at the same time Major Hinds appeared with a troop of horse. Meanwhile the invaders were making ready to march on New Orleans, believing their presence at Villere's was unknown in the city. It was a mistake. Jackson was fully informed of their movements, and in the afternoon of the 23d issued orders for a march to meet the invaders; and Commodore Patterson was directed to proceed down the Mississippi with such vessels as might be in readiness to flank the British at Villere's. At seven o'clock in the evening the armed

schooner *Carolina*, Captain Henley, the only vessel ready, dropped down the river in the darkness and anchored within musket-shot of the centre of the British camp. She immediately opened fire from her batteries, and in the course of ten minutes killed or wounded 100 men. The British extinguished their camp-fires, and poured upon the *Carolina* a shower of rockets and bullets, but with little effect. In less than half an hour the schooner drove the invaders from their camp in great confusion. Meantime Jackson was pressing forward to the attack, piloted by Colonel De la Ronde and General Villeré. The right of Jackson's troops was composed of regulars, Planché's and D'Aquin's brigades, McRea's artillery, and some marines, and moved along the river bank. The left, commanded by Coffee, was composed of his brigade of mounted riflemen, Hinds's dragoons, and Beale's riflemen. They skirted a cypress swamp in the rear to cut off the communication of the invaders from Lake Borgne. The alarm and confusion in the British camp caused by the attack of the *Carolina* had scarcely been checked when the crack of musketry in the direction of their outposts startled them. General Keane, the commander of the British, now began to believe the tales of prisoners concerning the great number of the defenders of New Orleans—"12,000 strong"—and told the dashing Thornton to do as he pleased. He started with a detachment to support the pickets, and directed another detachment, 500 strong, to keep open the communication with Lake Borgne. Thornton was soon met by a column led by Jackson in person, 1500 in number, with two field-pieces, and perfectly covered by the darkness. At the same time the artillerists and marines advanced along the levee roads, when a desperate attempt was made to seize their cannons. Very soon the engagement became general. Meanwhile Coffee had approached, dismounted his men, and moved in silence; while Beale, with his riflemen, stole around to the extreme left of the invaders on Villeré's plantation, and by a sudden movement penetrated almost to the heart of the British camp, killing several and making others prisoners. At the same time a number of Beale's men were captured, and Thornton fell heavily on Coffee's brigade. For a while the battle raged fearfully, not in regular order, but in detachments, and often in duels. In the darkness friends fought each other by mistake. The Tennesseans used long knives and tomahawks with effect. At length the British line fell back and took shelter behind the levee, more willing to endure danger from the shots of the *Carolina* than bullets from the rifles of the Tennesseans. Jackson could not follow up his victory with safety in the darkness, intensified by a thick fog, so he led his troops back a short distance. The conflict ceased at about half-past nine o'clock, and all was becoming quiet, when, at eleven o'clock, firing was heard below Villeré's. Some Louisiana militia, under General David Morgan, encamped at the English Turn of the Mississippi, had advanced and encountered British pickets at Jumonville's plantation. The

loss of the Americans in this engagement was 24 killed, 115 wounded, and 74 made prisoners. The British lost about 400 men. The number of Americans engaged in the battle was about 1800; that of the British, including reinforcements that came up during the engagement, was 2500. The *Carolina* gave the Americans a great advantage.

VINCENNES, EXPEDITION TO RECOVER. George Rogers Clarke took possession of Vincennes, on the Wabash, in the summer of 1778, and he was working successfully in the pacification of the Indian tribes, when, in January, 1779, the commander of the British post at Detroit retook that place. Clarke left the Ohio River with one hundred and seventy-five men, and in the dead of winter penetrated the dreadful wilderness, a hundred miles from that stream. For a whole week they traversed the "drowned lands," as the overflowed country in the Wabash region was called, suffering every privation from wet, cold, and hunger. When they arrived at the Little Wabash, where the forks of the stream were five miles apart, they found the intervening space covered with water at an average depth of three feet. They travelled the five miles through the icy flood, sometimes armpit deep, and arrived before Vincennes Feb. 13, 1779; and the next morning, with their faces blackened with gunpowder to make themselves appear hideous, they crossed the river in boats, and pushed towards the town. The alarmed garrison, astonished at the apparition, immediately surrendered (Feb. 20), and again the stars and stripes waved over the place. Governor Hamilton was among the prisoners. He was sent to Virginia, and on the just charge of having instigated the Indians to make war on the frontiersmen, was closely confined in jail and treated with rigor.

VINCENNES, M. BISSOT DE, founder of Vincennes, Ind., was born in Canada; died in 1736. He was nephew of Joliet (which see), the explorer, and was much employed among the Indians in the West, who greatly respected him. He went to the Miami country in 1704, where he remained until his death. In an expedition against the Chickasaws in that year (1736) he lost his life. He is supposed to have lived on the site of Vincennes at that time.

Vineland. A name given to a portion of North America discovered by the Scandinavian navigators. It was so called because of the abundance of grapes found there. (See *Northmen in America*.)

Vinton, FRANCIS LAURENS (son of Major J. R. Vinton), was born at Fort Preble, Me., June 1, 1835, and graduated at West Point in 1856. He entered the First Cavalry, but resigned in September and devoted himself to the science of metallurgy, becoming in 1857 a pupil of the Imperial School of Mines in Paris, where he graduated with distinction. At the beginning of the Civil War he was made captain of United States infantry, and was offered the command of a regiment of volunteers by the governors of three states. He accepted that of the Forty-

third New York, with which he served through the Peninsular campaign, and was wounded in the battle of Fredericksburg. In March, 1863, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, resigned in May, and became professor of engineering in Columbia College.

Virginia a Royal Province. On the accession of Charles I. (1625) he reduced the colony of Virginia under the immediate direction of the crown, appointed a governor and council, and ordered all patents and processes to be issued in his name. The king's proclamation of this change in the government of Virginia is dated May 13, 1625. The commissions of the new governor and council were accompanied with arbitrary instructions. "Our full resolution is," he said, "that there may be one uniform course of government in and through our whole monarchie, that the government of the colony of Virginia shall ymmediately depend upon ourselfe, and not be commytted to anie company or corporation, to whom it maie be proper to trust matters of trade and commerce, but cannot be fitt or safe to commit the ordering of state affairs, be they of never soe mean consequence." This assertion of the royal prerogative alarmed the Plymouth colonists, and was the beginning of the curtailment of the commerce of Virginia and the enslavement of its people.

Virginia Assembly. FIRST ACTS OF THE. About the time when the commissioners arrived in Virginia to investigate the affairs of the colony (1624), the first laws of the commonwealth were enacted. (See *London Company*.) They were thirty-five in number, concisely expressed, repealed all former laws, and clearly showed the condition of the colony. The first acts related to the Church. They provided that in every plantation there should be a room or house "for the worship of God, sequestered and set apart for that purpose, and not to be for any temporal use whatsoever;" also a place of burial "sequestered and paled in." Absence from public worship "without allowable excuse" incurred the forfeiture of a pound of tobacco, or fifty pounds if the absence were persisted in for a month. Divine public service was to be in conformity to the canons of the Church of England. In addition to the Church festivals, the 22d of March (O. S.) was to be annually observed in commemoration of the escape of the colony from destruction by the Indians. (See *Opechanca-nough*.) No minister was allowed to be absent from his parish more than two months in a year, under pain of forfeiting one half of his salary, or the whole of it, and his spiritual charge, if absent four months. He who disparaged a minister without proof was to be fined five hundred pounds of tobacco (see *Tobacco*), and to beg the minister's pardon publicly before the congregation. The minister's salary was to be paid out of the first gathered and best tobacco and corn; and no man was to dispose of his tobacco before paying his church-dues, under pain of forfeiting double. Drunkenness and swearing were made punishable offences. The levy and expenditure

were to be made by the Assembly only; the governor might not draw the inhabitants from their private employments to do his work; the whole Council had to consent to the levy of men for the public service; older settlers, who came before Sir Thomas Gates (1611), "and their posterity" were to be exempt from personal military service; the burgesses were not to be arrested in going to, coming from, or during the sessions of the Assembly; every private planter's lands were to be surveyed and their bounds recorded; monthly courts were to be held by special commissioners at Elizabeth City, at the mouth of the James, and at Charles City, for the accommodation of more distant plantations; the price of corn was to be unrestricted; in every parish was to be a public granary, to which each planter was to bring yearly a bushel of corn to be disposed of for public use by a vote of the freemen, and if not disposed of to be returned to the owner; every settler was to be compelled to cultivate corn enough for his family; all trade in corn with the Indians was prohibited; every freeman was to fence in a garden of a quarter of an acre for the planting of grapevines, roots, herbs, and mulberry-trees; inspectors, or "censors," of tobacco were to be appointed; ships were to break bulk only at James City; weights and measures were to be sealed; every house was to be palisaded for defence against the Indians, and no man was to go to work in the fields without being armed, nor to leave his house exposed to attack; no powder was to be spent unnecessarily, and each plantation was to be furnished with arms. Persons of "quality" who were delinquent might not undergo corporal punishment like "common" people, but might be imprisoned and fined. Any person wounded in the military service was to be cured at the public charge, and if permanently lamed was to have a maintenance according to his "quality;" and ten pounds of tobacco were to be levied on each male colonist to pay the expenses of the war. This war was that with the Indians after the massacre in 1622, and much of the legislation had reference to it, such as an order for the inhabitants, at the beginning of July, 1624, to fall upon the adjoining savages "as they did last year."

Virginia, COLONIAL SEAL OF. The colonial seal of Virginia was made of beeswax, covered with very thin paper, and stamped on both sides with appropriate devices. On one side were the royal arms of Great Britain, and on the other an effigy of the reigning monarch, with the sentence in Latin "Seal of the Province of Virginia." Kneeling before the monarch is an Indian presenting a bundle of tobacco, the chief product of the country. In the seal here delineated the sovereign represented is a woman—Queen Anné. The original from which the engraving was copied was somewhat defaced. It was sent to the colony almost immediately after the beginning of her reign, with instructions from the Secretary of the Privy Council, by its order, to break up the seal of her predecessor, William III., and send the fragments to England.



COLONIAL SEAL OF VIRGINIA.

Virginia, COLONY OF. This name was given to an undefined territory in America (of which Roanoke Island, discovered in 1584, was a part) in compliment to the unmarried queen, or because of its virgin soil. It was afterwards defined as extending from latitude 34° to 45° north, and was divided into North and South Virginia. The Northern part was afterwards called New England. (See *New England*.) The spirit of adventure and desire for colonization were again prevalent in England at the beginning of the seventeenth century, and circumstances there were favorable to such undertakings, for there was plenty of material for colonies, such as it was. Soon after the accession of James I., war between England and France ceased, and there were many restless soldiers out of employment—so restless that social order was in danger. There was also a class of ruined and desperate spendthrifts, ready to do anything to retrieve their fortunes. Such were the men who stood ready to go to America when Ferdinando Gorges, Bartholomew Gosnold, Chief-justice Popham, Richard Hakluyt, Captain John Smith, and others devised a new scheme for settling Virginia. The timid king, glad to perceive a new field open for the restless spirits of his realm, granted a liberal patent to a company of "noblemen, gentlemen, and merchants," chiefly of London, to plant settlements in America, between latitude 34° and 38° north, and westward one hundred miles from the sea. (See *London Company*.) A similar charter was granted to another company to settle between latitudes 41° and 45° north. (See *Plymouth Company*.) The space of about two hundred miles between the two territories was a broad boundary-line, upon which neither party was to plant a settlement. In December, 1606, the London Com-

pany sent three ships, under Captain Christopher Newport, with one hundred and five colonists, to make a settlement on Roanoke Island. (See *Roanoke Island*.) They took the long southern route, by way of the West Indies, and when they approached the coast of North Carolina a tempest drove them farther north into Chesapeake Bay, where they found good anchorage. The principal passengers were Gosnold, Edward M. Wingfield, Captain Smith, and Rev. Robert Hunt. The capes at the entrance to Chesapeake Bay Newport named Charles and Henry, in compliment to the king's two sons. Landing and resting at a pleasant point of land between the mouths of the York and James rivers, he named it Point Comfort, and sailing up the latter stream fifty miles, the colonists landed on the left bank, May 13, 1607, and there founded a settlement and built a village, which they named Jamestown in compliment to the king. They gave the name of James to the river.

On the voyage, Captain Smith, the most notable man among them (see *Smith, John*), had excited the jealousy and suspicion of his fellow-passengers, and he was placed in confinement on suspicion that he intended to usurp the government of the colony. It was not known who had been appointed rulers, for the silly king had placed the names of the colonial council in a sealed box, to be opened on their arrival. It was found that Smith was one of the council, and he was released. Wingfield was chosen president. Smith and others ascended the river in small boats to the falls at Richmond, and visited the Indian emperor Powhatan, who resided a mile below. (See *Powhatan*.) Early in June Newport returned to England for supplies and more emigrants. The supplies which they brought had been spoiled in the long voyage, and the savages around them appeared hostile. The marshes sent up poisonous vapors, and before the end of summer Gosnold and full one half of the adventurers died of fever and famine. President Wingfield lived on the choicest stores, and was preparing to escape to the West Indies in a pinnace left by Newport, when his treachery was discovered, and a man equally wicked, named Ratcliffe, was put in his place. He, too, was soon dismissed, when Captain Smith was happily chosen to rule the colony. He soon restored order, won the respect of the Indians, compelled them to bring food to Jamestown until wild-fowl became plentiful in the autumn and the harvest of maize or Indian corn was gathered by the barbarians. Smith and a few companions explored the Chickahominy River, where he was captured and condemned to die, but was saved by the king's daughter. (See *Pocahontas*.) Everything was in disorder on his return from the forest, and only forty men of the

colony were living, who were on the point of escaping to the West Indies. Newport returned with supplies and one hundred and twenty emigrants early in 1608. They were no better than the first. There were several unskilful goldsmiths, and most of the colonists became gold-seekers and neglected the soil. There "was no talk, no hope, no work, but dig gold, work [earth supposed to be] gold, refine gold, and load gold." Some glittering earth had been mistaken for gold, and Newport had loaded his ship with the worthless soil. Smith implored the settlers to plough and sow. They refused, and leaving Jamestown in disgust he explored Chesapeake Bay and its tributary streams in an open boat. In the course of three months he travelled one thousand miles and made a rude map of the country. Newport arrived at Jamestown soon after Smith's return in September, with seventy more emigrants, among them two women, the first Europeans of their sex seen in Virginia proper. (See *Dare, Virginia*.) These emigrants were no better than the first, and Smith entreated the company to send over farmers and mechanics; but at the end of two years, when the settlement numbered two hundred strong men, there were only forty acres of land under cultivation. In 1609 the company obtained a new charter, which made the settlers vassals of the Council of Virginia and extended the territory to the head of Chesapeake Bay. Lord De la Warr (Delaware) was appointed governor of Virginia; Sir Thomas Gates, deputy-governor; Sir George Somers, admiral; Christopher Newport, vice-admiral, and Sir Thomas Dale, high-marshal, all for life. Nine vessels, with five hundred emigrants, including twenty women and children, sailed for Jamestown in June, 1609. Gates and Somers embarked with Newport, and the three were to govern Virginia until the arrival of Lord Delaware. A hurricane dispersed the fleet, and the vessel containing these joint rulers or commissioners was wrecked on one of the Bermuda islands. Seven vessels reached Jamestown. The new-comers were, if possible, more profligate than the first—dissolute scions of wealthy families, who "left their country for their country's good," for Virginia was regarded as a paradise for libertines. Smith continued to administer the government until an accident compelled him to return to England in the fall of 1609. Then the colonists gave themselves up to every irregularity; the Indians withheld supplies; famine ensued, and the winter and spring of 1610 was long remembered as the "Starving Time" (which see). The Indians prepared to exterminate the English, but they were spared by a timely warning from Pocahontas. Six months after Smith left, the settlement of five hundred souls were reduced to sixty. The three commissioners reached Jamestown in June, 1610, and Gates determined to leave for Newfoundland with the famished settlers, and distribute them among the settlers there. In four pinnaces they departed, and were met at Point Comfort by Lord Delaware, with provisions and emigrants. Failing health compelled him to return to Eng-

land in March, 1611, and he was succeeded by a deputy, Sir Thomas Dale, who arrived with three hundred settlers and some cattle. Sir Thomas Gates came with three hundred and fifty more colonists in September following, and superseded Dale. These were a far better class than any who had arrived, and there were then one thousand Englishmen in Virginia. New settlements were planted at Dutch Gap and at Bermuda Hundred at the mouth of the Appomattox. In 1616 Deputy-governor Gates was succeeded by Samuel Argall, but his course was so bad that Lord Delaware sailed from England to resume the government of Virginia, but died on the passage, at the mouth of the bay that bears his name. George Yeardly was appointed governor in 1617, and he summoned two delegates from each of seven corporations or boroughs to assemble at Jamestown, July 30. These delegates formed a representative assembly, the first ever held on the Western Continent. A seal for the colony was adopted by the company. (See *Virginia, Colonial Seal of*.) The same year twelve hundred colonists arrived in Virginia, among whom were ninety "respectable young women," to become wives of planters, who were purchased at a profit to the company and were paid for in tobacco, then become a profitable agricultural product. Within two years, one hundred and fifty respectable young women were sent to Virginia for the same purpose. Homes and families appeared, and so the foundation of the commonwealth of Virginia was laid. Already the Indians had been made friendly by the marriage of Pocahontas with an Englishman. The tribe of gold-seekers had disappeared, and the future of Virginia appeared bright. The king injured the colony by sending over one hundred convicts from English prisons, in 1619, to be sold as servants to the planters, and this system was pursued for one hundred years, in defiance of the protests of the settlers. The same year the colonists bought twenty negro slaves of a Dutch trader, and so slavery was introduced. (See *Slavery in America and Slave-trade in America*.) On July 24, 1621, the London Company granted the colonists a written constitution for their government, which provided for the appointment of a governor and council by the company, and a representative assembly, to consist of two burgesses or representatives from each borough, to be chosen by the people and clothed with full legislative power in connection with the council. This body formed the General Assembly. This was the general form of government in Virginia until 1776. Sir Francis Wyatt was appointed governor, and brought the constitution with him. New settlements were made on the James, York, and Potomac rivers, and on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay. Powhatan was now dead, and his brother and successor, Opechancanough, was hostile. On March 22 (April 1, O. S.), his tribes, by a preconcerted plan, fell upon the English settlements at all points and murdered three hundred and forty-seven men, women, and children. The remote plantations fled to Jamestown, and eighty plantations were reduced to eight. A furious war of retaliation

followed, and the Indians were beaten back into the wilderness; but many colonists, alarmed, left Virginia, and sickness and famine ensued. In 1624, of the nine thousand persons who had been sent to Virginia, only a little more than two thousand remained. The same year the London Company was dissolved by a writ of *quo warranto*, and Virginia became a royal province. George Yeardly was appointed governor, with twelve councillors. He died in 1627, and was succeeded by Sir John Harvey, a haughty and unpopular ruler. Harvey was deposed by the Virginians in 1635, but was reinstated by Charles I., and ruled until 1639. Sir William Berkeley became governor in 1641, at the beginning of the Civil War in England, and being a thorough loyalist, soon came in contact with the republican Parliament. The colonists, also, remained loyal, and invited the son of the beheaded king to come and reign over them. Cromwell sent commissioners and a fleet to Virginia. A compromise with the loyalists was effected. Berkeley gave way to Richard Bennett, one of the commissioners, who became governor. But when Charles II. was restored, Berkeley, who had not left Virginia, was reinstated; the laws of the colony were revived; restrictive revenue laws were enforced; the Church of England—disestablished in Virginia—was re-established, and severe legislative acts against Non-conformists were passed. Berkeley proclaimed Charles II. "King of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Virginia," and ruled with vigor. (See *Old Dominion*.) Under Berkeley, the colonists had become discontented, and in 1676 they broke out into open rebellion, led by a wealthy and enterprising young lawyer named Nathaniel Bacon. (See *Bacon's Rebellion*.) Charles II. had given a patent for Virginia (1673) to two of his rapacious courtiers (Arlington and Culpepper), and in 1677 the latter superseded Berkeley as governor. He arrived in Virginia in 1680, and his rapacity and profligacy soon so disgusted the people that they were on the verge of rebellion, when the king, offended at him, revoked his grant and his commission. He was succeeded by an equally vile governor, Lord Howard of Effingham, and the people were again stirred to revolt; but the death of the king and other events in England made them wait for hoped-for relief. The Stuarts were driven from the throne forever in 1688, and there was a change for the better in the colonies. In 1699 Williamsburg was founded and made the capital of Virginia, where the General Assembly met in 1700. The code was revised for the fifth time in 1705, when by it slaves were declared real estate, and this law continued until 1776. Hostilities with the French broke out in 1754, they having built a line of military posts along the western slope of the Alleghany Mountains, in the rear of Virginia, and at the headwaters of the Ohio. To one of these posts young George Washington was sent on a diplomatic mission towards the close of 1753, by Dinwiddie, governor of Virginia. That was Washington's first appearance in public service. He performed the duty with so much skill and prudence that he was placed at the head of a military force

the next year, and fought the French at and near Fort Necessity (which see). During the French and Indian War that ensued, Virginia bore her share; and when England began to press her taxation schemes in relation to the colonies, the Virginia House of Burgesses took a patriotic stand in opposition, under the leadership of Patrick Henry. From that time until the breaking-out of the old war for independence, in 1775, the Virginians were conspicuous in maintaining the rights of the colonies. Under instructions from his legislature, Richard Henry Lee moved a resolution for independence, in Congress, in June, 1776 (see *Independence, First Proposition in Congress for*), and the Virginia delegation voted solidly for the resolution on the 2d of July, and for the Declaration of Independence on the 4th of July following. Already her royal governor had begun civil war within her borders. The colonial existence of Virginia ended on the 29th of July, 1776, when a state constitution was adopted by a popular convention and a state government was organized, with Patrick Henry as governor. Virginia has the honor of being the first to adopt a state constitution, with a view to a permanent separation from Great Britain.

Virginia Convention (1774). On receiving the news of the Boston Port Bill, the sympathies of the Virginians were deeply moved in favor of Massachusetts. The House of Burgesses passed strong resolutions of condolence, and appointed the 1st of June as a fast-day. The royal governor dissolved them the next day, when the delegates, eighty-nine in number, reassembled at the Apollo Room, Raleigh Tavern, and formed a voluntary convention. They prepared an address to their constituents, in which they declared that an attack upon one colony was an attack upon the whole. They adopted some other important measures while waiting for the arrival of the fast-day. Twenty-five of them remained until then, and sent out a circular recommending that the Burgesses should assemble again in convention at Williamsburg, on the 1st of August. They did so, and, on motion of George Washington, adopted a non-importation agreement; recommended the fostering of native industries, especially the raising of sheep; and chose (Aug. 5) seven delegates to represent Virginia in the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, namely—Peyton Randolph, Richard Henry Lee, George Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Bland, Benjamin Harrison, and Edward Pendleton.

Virginia Convention (1775). On Monday, March 20, 1775, a convention of delegates from the several counties and corporations of Virginia met for the first time. They assembled in St. John's Church (yet standing in 1880), in Richmond. Among the conspicuous members of the convention were Washington and Patrick Henry. Peyton Randolph was chosen president and John Tazewell clerk. A large portion of the members yearned for reconciliation with Great Britain, while others saw no ground for hope that the mother country would be just.

Among the latter was Patrick Henry. His judgment was too sound to be misled by mere appearances of justice, in which others trusted. The convention expressed its unqualified approbation of the proceedings of the Continental Congress, and warmly thanked their delegates for the part they had taken in it. They thanked the Assembly of the Island of Jamaica for a sympathizing document, and then proceeded to consider resolutions that the colony should be instantly put in a state of defence by an immediate organization of the militia. This meant

pointed a committee to prepare a plan accordingly. Their plan for embodying the militia was adopted, and Virginia panoplied herself for the conflict. Provision was made for the enrolment of a company of volunteers in each county. The convention reappointed the Virginia delegates to seats in the Second Continental Congress, adding Thomas Jefferson, "in case of the non-attendance of Peyton Randolph." Henry had said, prophetically, in his speech, "The next gale that comes from the North will bring to our ears the clash of arms!" This prophecy

was speedily fulfilled by the clash of arms at Lexington. His bold proceedings and utterances in this convention caused his name to be presented to the British government in a bill of attainder, with those of Randolph, Jefferson, the two Adamses, and Hancock.

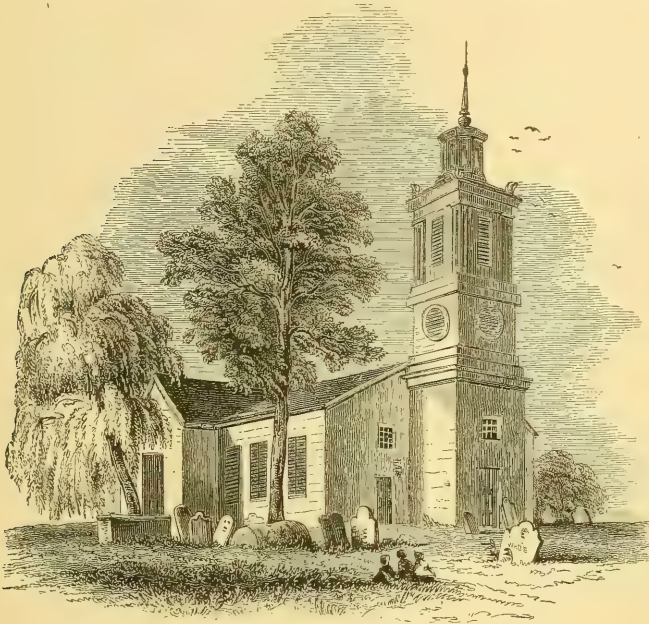
Virginia Currency. In 1645 the Legislature of Virginia prohibited dealing by barter, and abolished tobacco as currency. (See *Tobacco*.) They established the Spanish dollar, or "piece of eight," at six shillings, as the standard of currency for that colony. In 1655 the "piece of eight" was changed from six shillings to five shillings sterling as the standard of currency.

Virginia Divided into Counties. In 1634 Virginia was divided into eight counties—namely,

Elizabeth City, Warwick, James City, Charles City, and Henrico, along the north bank of the James River; Isle of Wight, on the south bank; York, on the York River; and Accomac, on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay.

Virginia, INDEPENDENCE PROCLAIMED IN. On July 25, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was read to the people at the Capitol, the courthouse, and the deserted "palace" at Williamsburg, and then it was proclaimed by the sheriff of every county, at the door of each courthouse, on the first ensuing court day.

Virginia Invaded from Washington City (1861). The Confederates assembled at Manassas Junction (which see) attempted to take a position near the capital. Early in May the family of Colonel Lee had left Arlington House, opposite Georgetown, with its most valuable contents, and joined him at Richmond. Under his guidance, the Confederates were preparing to fortify Arlington Heights, where heavy siege guns would command the cities of Washington and Georgetown. This movement was discovered in time to defeat its object. Already Con-



ST. JOHN'S CHURCH.

resistance, and the resolutions alarmed the more timid, who opposed the measure as rash and almost impious. Deceived by a show of justice on the part of Great Britain, they urged delay, for it was evident that the numerous friends of the colonists in England, together with the manufacturing interest, would soon bring about an accommodation. This show of timidity and temporizing roused the fire of patriotism in the bosom of Henry, and he made an impassioned speech, which electrified all hearers and has become in our history an admired specimen of oratory. When he closed with the well-known peroration: "Is life so dear or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!" all hearts and minds were in unity with the speaker. The resolutions to prepare for defence were passed, and Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, Robert C. Nicholas, Benjamin Harrison, Lemuel Riddick, George Washington, Adam Stephen, Andrew Lewis, William Christian, Edmund Pendleton, Thomas Jefferson, and Isaac Lane were ap-

federate pickets were on Arlington Heights, and at the Virginia end of the Long Bridge across the Potomac. Orders were immediately given for National troops to occupy the shores of the Potomac River, opposite Washington, and the city of Alexandria, nine miles below. Towards midnight, May 23, thirteen thousand troops in Washington, under the command of General Mansfield, were put in motion for the passage of the Potomac at three points—one column to cross the Aqueduct Bridge at Georgetown; another at the Long Bridge, at Washington, and a third to proceed in vessels to Alexandria. General Irvin McDowell led the column across the Aqueduct Bridge, in the light of a full moon, and took possession of Arlington Heights. At the same time the second column was crossing the Long Bridge, two miles below, and soon joined McDowell's column on Arlington Heights and began casting up fortifications. The New York Fire Zouave Regiment, commanded by Colonel Ephraim Elmore Ellsworth, embarked in vessels and sailed for Alexandria, while another body of troops marched for the same destination by way of the Long Bridge. The two divisions reached Alexandria about the same time. The United States frigate *Pawnee* was lying in the river off Alexandria, and her commander had been in negotiation for the surrender of the city. Ignorant of this fact, Ellsworth marched to the centre of the town and took formal possession of it in the name of his government, the Virginia troops having fled. The Orange and Alexandria railway station was seized, with much rolling stock, and very soon Alexandria was in the quiet possession of the Nationals. A keeper of a public-house refused to pull down a Confederate flag that waved over it. Colonel Ellsworth went in person to haul it down. When descending the upper staircase with it he was shot dead by the proprietor, when the latter was instantly killed by one of Ellsworth's companions. This event produced much exasperation on both sides.

Virginia Opposed to a Consolidated National Government. While the foremost citizen of Virginia was leading the army fighting for independence, and was the most earnest advocate for a national bond of all the states, the representatives of her people, in her Legislature, always opposed the measures that would make the states one union. Her Legislature separately ratified (June 2, 1779) the treaty with France, and asserted in its fullest degree the absolute sovereignty of the separate states. And when Congress received petitions concerning lands in the Ohio country, the Virginia Assembly remonstrated against any action in the premises by that body, because it would "be a dangerous precedent, which might hereafter subvert the sovereignty and government of any one or more of the United States, and establish in Congress a power which, in process of time, must degenerate into an intolerable despotism." And Patrick Henry vehemently condemned the phraseology of the Preamble to the National Constitution—"We, the people"—arguing that it should have been "We, the states." So, also,

did George Mason (which see). So jealous of their "sovereignty" were the states in general, that Congress, at the beginning of 1780, finding itself utterly helpless, threw everything upon the states. Washington deeply deplored this state of things. "Certain I am," he wrote to Joseph Jones, a delegate from Virginia, in May, "unless Congress is vested with powers by the several states competent to the great purposes of war, or assume them as matter of right, and they and the states respectively act with more energy than they have hitherto done, our cause is lost. . . . I see one head gradually changing into thirteen. I see one army branching into thirteen, which, instead of looking up to Congress as the supreme controlling power of the United States, are considering themselves as dependent on their several states." Towards the end of June General Greene wrote: "The Congress have lost their influence. I have for a long time seen the necessity of some new plan of civil government. Unless there is some control over the states by the Congress, we shall



GEORGE MASON.

soon be like a broken band." But Virginia and other states persisted in the assertion of state supremacy, and brought the American cause to the verge of ruin.

Virginia Petition. In December, 1764, the Virginia House of Burgesses appointed Peyton Randolph (attorney-general of the province), Richard Henry Lee, George Wythe (an acute lawyer), and Edmund Pendleton—all lawyers, and also leaders of the Virginia aristocracy—a committee to draw up a petition to the king, a memorial to the House of Lords, and a remonstrance to the Commons. In these papers a claim, in moderate tone, was made for the colony of the privilege of self-taxation. Instead of insisting upon this as a matter of right, they pleaded the state of the colonies, encumbered by the burdens of the late war. These faint protestations produced no effect, and in spite of the remonstrances of Franklin, the agent for Pennsylvania; Jackson, agent for Massachusetts; and Ingersoll, agent for Connecticut, and others interested in the colonies, Minister Grenville began his taxation schemes with the famous Stamp Act (which see).

Virginia Plan in the Federal Convention. The convention to consider the Articles of Confederation, or to form a new constitution, having met on the invitation of Virginia, courtesy assigned to the delegates of that state the task of giving a start to the proceedings. Accordingly, Governor Randolph, after a speech on the defects of the confederation, on May 29, 1787, offered fifteen resolutions suggesting amendments to the federal system. They proposed a national legislature, to consist of two branches, the members of the first, or most numerous branch, to be chosen by the people, and to be apportioned to the states in the proportion of free population or taxes; those of the second branch to be chosen by the first, out of candidates to be nominated by the state legislatures. A separate national executive was proposed, to be chosen by the national Legislature; also a national judiciary; also a council of revision, to consist of the executive and a part of the judiciary, with a qualified negative on every act of legislation, state as well as national. These were the principal features of the "Virginia Plan," as it was called. It was referred to a committee, together with a sketch of a plan by Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, which, in its form and arrangement, furnished the outline of the constitution as adopted.

Virginia, ROYAL POWER IN, SUPREME. On the 26th of August, 1624, King James issued a new commission for Virginia, continuing Sir Francis Wyatt as governor, with eleven assistants, or councillors. The governor and council were appointed during the king's pleasure. No assembly was mentioned or allowed, and for a while the royal will was the only law for the colonists. James died April 8, 1625, and his son Charles asserted the full prerogative of the monarch as supreme ruler of all his dominions. Then Virginia became a royal province, and so remained until 1776.

Virginia Sanctions Independence. In May, 1776, a convention of one hundred and thirty delegates, representing the people of Virginia, assembled at Williamsburg. After having finished current business, the convention resolved itself into a committee of the whole on the state of the colony. On May 15, resolutions which had been drafted by Edmund Pendleton were unanimously agreed to, one hundred and twelve members being present. The preamble enumerated their chief grievances, and said, "We have no alternative left but an abject submission or a total separation." Then they decreed that their "delegates in Congress be instructed to propose to that body to declare the united colonies free and independent states, absolved from all allegiance or dependence upon the crown or Parliament of Great Britain; and that they give the assent of this colony to such declaration, and to measures for forming foreign alliances and a confederation of the colonies; provided that the power of forming government for, and the regulation of, the internal concerns of each colony be left to the respective colonial legislatures."

Virginia Secession Ordinance. The disunionists of Virginia found it hard work to "carry out" the state, for there was a strong Union sentiment among the people, especially in the western or mountain districts. They finally procured the authorization of a convention, which assembled in Richmond Feb. 13, 1861, with John Janney as chairman. It had a stormy session from February until April, for the Unionists were in the majority. Even so late as April 4 the convention refused, by a vote of eighty-nine against forty-five, to pass an Ordinance of Secession. But the pressure of the disunionists had now become so hard that one weak Unionist after another gave way, converted by sophistry or threats. Commissioners were sent to President Lincoln, to ascertain his determination about seceding states, who were told explicitly that he should defend the life of the Republic to the best of his ability. Their report added fuel to the flame of passion then raging in Richmond. In the convention, the only question remaining on the evening of April 15 was, Shall Virginia secede at once, or wait for the co-operation of the border slave-labor states? In the midst of excitement pending that question, the convention adjourned until the next morning. The following day the convention assembled in secret session. For three days threats and persuasion had been brought to bear upon the faithful Union members, who were chiefly from the mountain districts of western Virginia, where the institution of slavery had a very light hold upon the people. On the adjournment, on the 15th, there was a clear majority of one hundred and fifty-three in the convention against secession. The Secessionists had become desperate. It is said Richmond was in the hands of a mob, ready to do their bidding, and they resolved to act with a high hand. Many of the Unionists gave way on the 16th. It was calculated that if ten Union members of the convention should be absent, there would be a majority for secession. That number of the weaker ones were waited upon on the evening of the 16th, and informed that they had the choice of doing one of three things—namely, to vote for a secession ordinance, to absent themselves, or be hanged.* Resistance would be useless, and the ten members did not appear in the convention. Other Unionists who remained in the convention were awed by their violent proceedings, and on Monday, April 17, 1861, an ordinance was passed by a vote of eighty-five against fifty-five, entitled, "An ordinance to repeal the ratification of the Constitution of the United States of America by the State of Virginia, and to reserve all the rights and powers granted under said Constitution." At the same time the convention passed an ordinance requiring the governor to call out as many volunteers as might be necessary to repel an invasion of the state. It was ordained that the Secession Ordinance should go into effect only when it should be ratified by the votes of a majority

* Statement by a member of the convention, cited in the *Annual Cyclopædia*, 1861, p. 735.

of the people. The day for the casting of such vote was fixed for May 23, 1861. Meanwhile the whole military force of Virginia had been placed under the control of the "Confederate States of America" (which see), and a treaty of annexation of Virginia to the Southern League had been formed. Nearly the whole state was under the control of the military authority. At the time appointed for the vote, Senator James M. Mason, author of the Fugitive Slave Law (which see), addressed a letter to the people, declaring that the Ordinance of Secession absolved them from all allegiance to the United States; that they were bound to support the "sacred pledge" made to the "Confederate States" by the treaty of annexation (see *Annexation of Virginia to the Confederate States*), and said: "If it be asked, What are those to do who, in their conscience, cannot vote to separate Virginia from the United States? the answer is simple and plain. Honor and duty alike require that they should not vote on the question; and if they retain such opinions, they must leave the state." That is to say, vote for secession or not vote at all; and if you are still Union men, you remain in your native state at the peril of your lives. There was a reign of terror in eastern Virginia at the time the vote was taken, yet there were bold Unionists who voted against secession. The vote for secession was 125,950, and against secession 20,373. This did not include the vote of northwestern Virginia, where, in convention, ten days before the voting, they had planted the seeds of a new commonwealth. (See *West Virginia*.)

Virginia, STATE OF. The state constitution was framed in June, 1776, and in 1779 Richmond became the capital. In 1784 the state ceded to the United States its claim to lands northwest of the Ohio River. Not long afterwards (1789) a portion of its territory south of the Ohio was erected into the State of Kentucky (which see).

For many years the State of Virginia maintained a predominating influence in the affairs of the nation. During the War of 1812-15 its coasts were ravaged by British marauders. In 1831 a servile insurrection occurred in Southampton County, led by a negro named Nat. Turner,



STATE SEAL OF VIRGINIA.

which alarmed the whole state, but it was speedily subdued. In 1859 an attempt was made by John Brown to free the slaves of Virginia. (See *John Brown's Raid*.) Early in 1861 the question of secession divided the people. The Secessionists were very active, and, making arrangements for joining the Southern Confederacy, the Legislature made an appropriation of \$1,000,000 to provide for "the defence of the state." A state convention assembled on Feb. 13, 1861, and on April 17 passed an Ordinance of Secession.

(See *Virginia Secession Ordinance*.) The state authorities immediately afterwards took possession of national property within the limits of Virginia, and on April 25 action was taken for the annexation of the state to the Southern Confederacy, and surrendering the control of its military to the latter power. On May 7 the state was admitted to representation in the Confederate Congress, and large forces of Confederate troops were concentrated in Virginia for the purpose of attempting to seize the national capital. From that time until the close of the Civil War Virginia suffered intensely from its ravages. Western Virginia had remained loyal to the Union, and in 1861 a new state was there organized. (See *West Virginia*.) After the war the state was under military control. A new constitution was prepared, and was ratified on July 6, 1869, by a majority of 197,044 votes out of a total vote of 215,422. The constitution was in accordance with the Fourteenth Amendment of the national Constitution (which see). State officers and representatives in Congress were chosen at the same time; and in January, 1870, Virginia was admitted to representation in the Congress. On Jan. 26, 1870, General Canby, in command of the department, formally transferred the government to the civil authorities. Population in 1890, 1,655,980.

Virginia Toleration. In 1698 a statute was passed by the Assembly of Virginia, in obedience to orders from England, which extended to Dissenters the benefit of the English toleration act. Yet this was not a full toleration act for all consciences, by any means, as it excluded from participation in the most important functions of citizenship all who were not Christians and who did not accept the doctrine of the Trinity. That very act ordained disqualification for any office, disability to sue or to prosecute in any court, or to act as executor or guardian, and imprisonment for three years, as the penalty for denying the being of a God or the Holy Trinity, or asserting that there were more gods than one, or denying the truth of the Christian religion, or the divine authority of the Old and New Testaments. By the same act fines were imposed for non-attendance upon public worship for two months, except for a reasonable excuse.

"Virginius" Affair, THE. Troubles with the Spanish authorities in Cuba and menaces of war with Spain had existed since filibustering movements from the United States to that island began, in 1850. (See *Cuba*.) Finally a "Cuban Junta," composed of native Cubans and American sympathizers, was formed in the city of New York. An insurrection had broken out in Cuba, and assumed formidable proportions, carrying on civil war for several years. When the "Junta" began to fit out vessels to carry men and war materials to the insurgent camps, the United States government, determined to observe the strictest neutrality and impartiality, felt compelled to notice this flagrant violation of the neutrality laws of the Republic, and took measures to suppress the hostile movements;

out irritations on the part of the Spanish authorities continued, and, finally, late in 1873, war between Spain and the United States seemed inevitable. The steamship *Virginus*, flying the United States flag, suspected of carrying men and supplies to the insurgent Cubans, was captured by a Spanish cruiser off the coast of Cuba, taken into port, and many of her passengers, her captain, and some of the crew were publicly shot by the local military authorities. The affair produced intense excitement in the United States. There was, for a while, a hot war-spirit all over the Union; but wise men in control of the governments of the United States and Spain calmly considered the international questions involved, and settled the matter by diplomacy. There were rights to be acknowledged by both parties. The *Virginus* was surrendered to the United States authorities, and ample reparation for the outrage was offered, excepting the impossible restoration of the lives taken by the Spaniards. While the vessel was on its way to New York, under an escort, it sprang aleak off Cape Fear, at the close of December (1873), and went to the bottom of the sea. By a wise policy, our country has been at peace with all the world since the close of the Civil War, if we except the local wars with the Indians.

Vogdes, ISRAEL, was born in Pennsylvania about 1816, and graduated at West Point in 1837, where he remained two years assistant-professor of mathematics. He entered the artillery, and served in the Seminole War. In May, 1861, he was made major. He gallantly defended Fort Pickens (which see) from February to October, 1861, when he was made prisoner in the night attack on Santa Rosa Island (which see). He was active in the operations on Folly and Morris islands against forts Wagner and Sumter, and he commanded the defences of Norfolk and Portsmouth in 1864-65. In April, 1865, he was breveted brig.-general U. S. Army. Died 1889.

Volney and the Aliens. When war with France seemed to be inevitable, in 1798, suspicions of the designs of Frenchmen in the country were keenly awakened. Talleyrand, who had resided awhile in the United States, was suspected of having acted as a spy for the French government, and other exiled Frenchmen were suspected of being on the same errand. It was known that Frenchmen were busy in Kentucky and in Georgia fomenting discontents, and it was strongly suspected that M. de Volney, a French scholar, who had explored the western country, ostensibly with only scientific views, was acting in the capacity of a spy for the French government, with a view to finally annexing the country west of the Alleghany Mountains to Louisiana, which France was about to obtain, by a secret treaty with Spain. These suspicions led to the enactment of the Alien and Sedition Laws (which see). The passage of the Alien Law alarmed Volney and other Frenchmen, and two or three ship-loads left the United States for France.

Voltaire and Franklin. In February, 1778, Voltaire, bent with age, but great in intellect,

and a truer representative of France than Louis XVI., went to Paris, and there he and Franklin had an interview. Franklin called upon Voltaire with his grandson. The two philosophers were agreed in respect to the contest in America—its righteousness and its importance. Franklin was a great admirer of the French philosopher, and at that interview desired his grandson to demand from Voltaire a blessing. In the presence of twenty persons he laid his hand on the head of the youth and said "God and liberty." He everywhere expressed his friendship for the Americans. Being in company with the beautiful young wife of Lafayette, he expressed to her his admiration of the heroism of her husband. Still there was a wide difference between Voltaire and the Americans. He had said "There is no God;" the American people reverently said "There is a God, and he must be worshipped in spirit and in truth." His blessing must have sounded strangely.

Voluntary Contributions (1861-65). The loyal people of the Republic became most earnestly engaged in every way in the work of saving the Union from destruction. The mites of widows and the abundance of the rich fell into the great treasury of patriotism in wonderful profusion. A Michigan soldier put in a cent, and said, "I hope it will grow." It did grow, and yielded more than \$24,000. Cornelius Vanderbilt, once an humble New York boatman, presented the government of the United States a fully equipped steam ship-of-war valued at about \$800,000. In scores of ways—in benevolent gifts in aid of the soldiers, in bounties for soldiers and sailors, to associations, and for special objects, in private and isolated contributions, exclusive of heavy taxes freely voted by the people for the support of the government—the loyal people of the Republic gave for its salvation not less than \$500,000,000.

Volunteer Companies in Philadelphia. At the beginning of the War of 1812-15 the martial spirit was almost dormant in Philadelphia. The fine corps of the McPherson Blues, which formed the guard of honor at the public funeral ceremonies at Philadelphia on the death of Washington, had been disbanded twelve years before the declaration of war. Another, called Shee's Legion, was no more. Only three or four volunteer military companies of any note then existed in Philadelphia, the oldest of which was a company of cavalry called the First (or old) City Troop, which was formed in the autumn of 1774. They formed a body-guard for General Washington when he travelled from Philadelphia to New York in 1775, going to take command of the army. These, with Captain Rush's old Philadelphia Blues, and Fottevall's Independent Volunteers, both large companies, composed the most of the uniformed militia of that vicinity. During the summer of 1812 a new uniformed company was created, called "The State Fencibles." When news of the presence of the British in the Delaware was received, early in 1813, great alarm was felt because of the defenceless state of the city. A meeting

was called by James M. Porter, secretary of the Young Men's Democratic Society, to take measures for defence. About seventy young men who were present formed a military company on that very evening for artillery service. They organized under the name of "The Junior Artillerists," and tendered their services to garrison Fort Mifflin, which were accepted. A new company of infantry, called "The Washington Guards," was formed at about the same time.

Volunteer Militia in Pennsylvania. In 1747 some liberated prisoners from Martinique—a resort for French cruisers—brought a report to Philadelphia that a fleet of privateers was about to make a raid on that city and along the Delaware River. The alarm caused fortifications to be erected and military organizations to be formed for defence; but the Quaker Assembly would do nothing in the matter, so an association of ten thousand volunteer militia was formed. A portion of the Quakers were inclined to justify defensive war. Chief-justice Chew, of Delaware, was "disowned" because of the utterance of such a sentiment.

Volunteer Refreshment Saloons, PHILADELPHIA. Working in harmony with the grand organizations of the United States Sanitary and Christian commissions (which see) were houses of refreshment and temporary hospital accommodations furnished by the citizens of Philadelphia. That city lay in the channel of the great stream of volunteers from New England after the call of the President (April 15, 1861) for 75,000 men to suppress insurrection in the South. The soldiers, crossing New Jersey, and the Delaware River at Camden, were landed at the foot of Washington Avenue, Philadelphia, where, wearied and hungry, they often vainly sought for sufficient refreshments in the bakeries and groceries in the neighborhood before entering the cars for Washington. One morning the wife of a mechanic living near, commiserating the situation of some of the soldiers who had just arrived, went with her coffee-pot and a cup and distributed its contents among them. That generous hint was the germ of a wonderful system of beneficent relief to the passing soldiers which was immediately developed in that city. Some benevolent women living in the vicinity of this landing-place of the volunteers imitated their patriotic sister, and a few of them formed themselves into a committee for the regular distribution of coffee on the arrival of soldiers. Gentlemen in the neighborhood interested themselves in procuring other supplies, and for a few days these were dispensed under the shade of trees in front of a cooper-shop at the corner of Otsego Street and Washington Avenue. Then the cooper-shop (belonging to William Cooper) was used. The citizens of Philadelphia became deeply interested in the benevolent work, and provided ample means to carry it on. Whole regiments were supplied. The cooper-shop was too small to accommodate the daily increasing number of soldiers, and another place of refreshment was opened on the corner of Washington Avenue and Swanson Street, in a building for-

merly used as a boat-house and rigger's loft. Two Volunteer Refreshment Saloon committees were formed, and known respectively as the "Cooper-shop" and the "Union." They worked in harmony and accomplished wonderful results all through the period of the war. In these labors the women of Philadelphia bore a large share. The citizens of Philadelphia so generously supplied these committees with means that during the war almost 1,200,000 Union soldiers received a bountiful meal at their saloons. In the "Union" Saloon 750,000 soldiers were fed; 40,000 were accommodated with a night's lodging; 15,000 refugees and freedmen were cared for, and employment found for them; and in the hospital attached the wounds of almost 20,000 soldiers were dressed. The refreshment tables and the sick-room were attended by women. At all hours of the night, when a little signal-gun was fired, these self-sacrificing women would repair to their post of duty.

Volunteer Ruler, A. In December, 1776, at about the time that Washington was turning the tide of war at Trenton, the French Count de Broglie, disclaiming the ambition of becoming the king of the United States, proposed to play the part of William of Orange in English history for the Americans in their struggle, or rather insinuated his willingness to do so, for a series of years, provided he could be assured of a large grant of money before his embarkation for America, an ample revenue, the highest military rank, the direction of foreign relations during his command, and a princely annuity for life after his return. This benevolent offer could not be accepted because of the poverty of the American people. The letter of De Broglie, in manuscript, was communicated to Mr. Bancroft.

Volunteer System Abandoned, THE (1813). Experience proved that the system of volunteers for an army was not only expensive, but that the soldiers, being under officers without a knowledge of their duties, remained ignorant of good discipline and wholly inefficient. So the law establishing the system was repealed (Jan. 29, 1813); and, as a substitute for it, the President was authorized to enlist twenty regiments of twelve-months' regulars, to whom a bounty of sixteen dollars was offered. Six new generals and six new brigadiers were authorized (Feb. 24), and the number of company and regimental officers was increased.

Volunteers called for (1861). The first call of the President of the United States for volunteers in 1861 was on May 3, when he asked for 42,000, in addition to the 75,000 militia called for on April 15. They were to be enlisted for three years. He also ordered an increase of the regular army of nearly 23,000 for not less than one year nor more than three years, and an enlistment of 18,000 volunteers for the naval service. For the fitting-out of these volunteer and other troops, and maintaining their families, the people in the free-labor states voluntarily contributed, through legislatures and otherwise, fully \$40,000,000 by the first week in May, 1861.

Vose, JOSEPH, colonel of a Massachusetts

regiment in the Revolution, was born at Milton, Mass., in 1738; died there, May 22, 1816. He led the expedition which destroyed the light-house and hay on islands in Boston harbor, May 27, 1775. In November he was made lieutenant-colonel of Groaton's regiment, and accompanied it to Canada in the spring of 1776. In 1777 he joined the main army in New Jersey, and his last military service was under Lafayette at Yorktown.

Voyage of the First Emigrants to Maryland. In two ships, the *Ark* and *Dove*, Leonard Calvert, with "twenty other men of good fortune" and three hundred laboring men, sailed (Nov. 22, 1633) from Cowes, Isle of Wight, accompanied by two Jesuit priests, Andrew White and John Altham. The colonists took the tedious southern route to America by way of the Canaries and the West Indies. When only two days out they were overtaken by a fearful tempest, which increased when night came on. The people of the *Dove* (the smaller vessel) notified the officers of the stanch *Ark* that in case of danger they would hang out a lighted lantern at the mast-head. At midnight that signal appeared for a few minutes and then suddenly vanished. "All is lost!" thought the company of the *Ark*, and they grieved sorely. For three days the tempest swept the ocean, when suddenly the clouds gathered in fearful blackness, rain fell in torrents, and for a few minutes a dreadful hurricane threatened instant destruction to the *Ark*. Her mainsail was split from top to bottom, her rudder was unshipped, and she was left to the mercy of the wind and waves. The emigrants fell on their knees in prayer; the Roman Catholics among them uttered vows in honor of the Virgin and of St. Ignatius, the patron saint of Maryland; and Father White supplicated God for deliverance from the great peril. "I had scarcely finished," wrote the priest, "when they observed that the storm was abating." After that the voyagers had delightful weather on sea and land. The *Ark* ran into a harbor of the island of Barbadoes; and there, after a separation of six weeks, the little *Dove*, which had been mourned as lost, joined them, with all on board well and joyful, after perilous wanderings on the great deep. Late in February they entered the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, touched at Point Comfort, went up to Jamestown, where Governor Harvey gave them a friendly reception, then sailed up the Potomac, and finally rested on the waters of the Wicomico, where they founded the capital of the Maryland colony. (See *Capital of Maryland Founded*.)

Voyage round the World, THE FIRST, BY AN AMERICAN (1790). The restoration of confidence by the operation of the funding system (which see) in 1790-91 was soon perceived by a wonderful stimulus to the various industries of the new nation. Commerce and manufactures felt new life, and new arrangements in favor of the trade and industry of the Americans produced a sudden flood-tide of prosperity. The exports rose enormously in value, and the de-

mand for shipping increased so rapidly that for a while there were doubts whether the United States could supply a sufficiency of vessels for its own carrying-trade. This doubt was soon dispelled, for ship-building kept pace with other industries. A profitable trade had recently been opened with the East Indies and China, and to this was added a lucrative traffic with the natives of the northwest coast of North America, then little known. The trade was in the rich furs of the sea-otter. These were purchased of the natives with trinkets, and sold in China at an immense profit. One of the persons in this traffic was Captain Gray, of Boston. In the *Washington*, he, with her consort, explored the Pacific coast north and south of Nootka Sound in 1790, and afterwards returned home by way of Canton (China) and the Cape of Good Hope, thus completing the first circumnavigation of the globe by an American. On a second voyage to the same coast, in the ship *Columbia*, he entered the mouth of the great Oregon river, and gave it the name of his ship, which it bears.

Vries, DAVID PIETERSEN DE, was born in 1595. When the Dutch West India Company was formed he was an enterprising mariner at Hoorn, a port in Holland, where, in 1624, he and some merchants of Rochelle, France, fitted out a vessel for the American fisheries, and to trade for peltries on the coasts of Canada. The voyage was frustrated by the jealousy of the company. On his return from a voyage to the East Indies in 1630 he became a patroon, in connection with Godyn, Bloemart, Van Rensselaer, and De Laet (see *Patroons*), and they began a settlement within the territory of the present state of Delaware, and called it Swaanendael. The Indians destroyed it in 1632, and soon afterwards De Vries sailed for the scene of disaster and made a treaty of peace with the savages. He sailed for Virginia for supplies, where he was kindly received by Governor Harvey. Swaanendael was abandoned, and De Vries went to Manhattan, where, observing the absurd conduct of Governor Van Twiller, he sailed for Holland. (See *Van Twiller, Wouter*.) De Vries returned to Manhattan in 1635, visited Virginia, and, after making arrangements for planting a colony on Staten Island, near Manhattan, went back to Holland. In 1638 he returned with emigrants and planted them on Staten Island. He began another colony on Manhattan, and bought land of the Indians at the Tappan, on the west side of the Hudson. He was chosen one of the twelve men under Kieft, and opposed the unwise and cruel dealings of that governor with the Indians (see *Kieft, William*); and when, in 1643, he departed for Virginia, uttered in the ears of the governor this prophecy: "The murders in which you have shed so much innocent blood will yet be avenged on your own head." It was fulfilled. Spending the winter in Virginia, De Vries sailed for Holland, where he arrived in June, 1644, and never returned to America. In 1655 an account of his voyages was published at Alcknaer, illustrated by a well-engraved portrait of the author when he was sixty years of age.

W.

Wadsworth, JAMES SAMUEL, was born at Geneseo, N. Y., Oct. 30, 1807; died May 8, 1864, of wounds received in battle. He was educated at Harvard and Yale colleges; studied law a while with Daniel Webster; and was admitted to the bar in 1833, but never practised, having sufficient employment in the management of a large patrimonial estate. He was a member of the Peace Convention (which see) in 1861, and was one of the first to offer his services to the government when the great insurrection broke out. When communication between Washington and Philadelphia was cut off in April, 1861, he chartered a vessel and filled it with supplies, with which he sailed for Annapolis with timely relief for Union soldiers there. In June he was volunteer aid on General McDowell's staff, and was noted for bravery in the battle of Bull's Run. In August he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and Military Governor of the District of Columbia in March, 1862. In that year he was Republican candidate for Governor of New York, but was defeated by Horatio Seymour. In December he commanded a division under Burnside in the battle of Fredericksburg; also in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg in 1863. After the fall of Reynolds General Doubleday commanded his corps. Early in 1864 he was sent on special service to the Mississippi valley; and at the opening of the campaign against Richmond he led a division of the Fifth Corps, and was mortally wounded in the battle of the Wilderness (which see).

Wadsworth, PELEG, was born at Duxbury, Mass., May 6, 1748; died at Hiram, Me., Nov. 18, 1829. He graduated at Harvard University in 1769. He and Alexander Scammel were associated in business before the Revolution. As captain of minute-men, he joined the army gathering around Boston in the spring of 1775; became aid to General Ward; and afterwards adjutant-general for Massachusetts. He was in the battle of Long Island; and in 1777 was made brigadier-general of militia, serving, in 1779, as second in command in the Penobscot expedition (which see), where he was taken prisoner. In February, 1781, he was captured and confined in the fort at Castine, whence he escaped in June. After the war he engaged in business in Portland and in surveying, and in 1792 he was elected a State Senator. From 1792 to 1806 he was a member of Congress.

Wadsworth, WILLIAM, was born at Durham, Conn.; died at Geneseo, N. Y., in February, 1833. He was an early settler, with his brother James, in western New York; and when the War of 1812-15 broke out he was a brigadier-general of New York militia. He served in that war from June 15 to Nov. 12, 1812, and was distinguished in the assault on Queenstown Heights (Oct. 13, 1812), where he was in command when the Americans surrendered, giving up his sword in person to General Sheaffe.

Walbach, JOHN DE BARTH, was born in Alsace, on the Rhine, in 1764; died in Baltimore, Md., June 10, 1857. He was in the French military service; came to America in 1796; studied law with Alexander Hamilton; and entered the United States Army as lieutenant of cavalry in 1799. In June, 1813, he was made assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of major, and did good service on the Northern frontier in the War of 1812-15.

Waldo, DANIEL, was born at Windham, Conn., Sept. 10, 1762; died at Syracuse, N. Y., July 30, 1864. He graduated at Yale College in 1788; was a soldier in the Revolutionary army; suffered the horrors of imprisonment in a sugar-house in New York (see *Prisons and Prison-ships, British, at New York*); and was pastor and missionary from 1792. At the age of ninety-three he was chaplain of the national House of Representatives, when his voice and step were as vigorous as a man of sixty.

Waldron, MAJOR RICHARD, was born in Warwickshire, England, in 1615; died June 28, 1689. He came to Boston in 1635, and settled at Dover, N. H., in 1645. He represented that district from 1654 to 1676, and was seven years speaker. He was councillor and chief-justice, and in 1681 was president. Being chief military leader in that region, he took an active part in King Philip's War. Inviting Indians to Dover to treat with them, he seized several hundred of them, and hung or sold into slavery two hundred of them. They fearfully retaliated thirteen years afterwards. Two apparently friendly Indians obtained a night's lodging at Waldron's house at Dover. At midnight they arose, opened the door, and admitted a party of Indians lying in wait. They seized Waldron, who, though seventy-four years of age, made stout resistance. They bound him in an arm-chair at the head of a table in the hall, when they taunted him, recalled his treachery, and tortured him to death (June 28, 1689).

Waldseemüller, MARTIN, a German cosmographer, was born at Fribourg about 1470; died about 1530. He published an *Introduction to Cosmography; with the Four Voyages of Americus Vesputius* (1507), in which he proposed the name of "America" to the region discovered by Columbus and Cabot. (See *America, Origin of the Name of.*)

Walke, HENRY, was born in Princess Anne County, Va., April 26, 1809. He entered the United States Navy in 1827; served in the war against Mexico; and was a bold and efficient commander in the naval warfare on the rivers in the valley of the Mississippi during the late Civil War. He was particularly distinguished in the attacks on Fort Donelson, Island Number Ten (which see), and in operations against Vicksburg. In 1868 he was placed in command of the naval station at Mound City, Ill.

Walker, BENJAMIN, aide-de-camp to Baron Steuben, was born in England in 1753; died at Utica, N. Y., June 13, 1818. He was a captain in the Second New York Regiment at the beginning of the war for independence; became aide to Baron Steuben, and then to Washington (1781-82); and after the war was secretary to Governor Clinton. He became a broker in the city of New York, and naval officer there during Washington's administration. From 1801 to 1803 he was a member of Congress. In 1797 he became agent for estates in western New York, and was long identified with the growth of Utica.

Walker, FRANCIS AMASA, was born in Boston, July 2, 1840. He graduated at Amherst College in 1860, and began the study of law, but engaged in the military service in the spring of 1861, as sergeant-major of Devens's Massachusetts regiment. In September he was assistant adjutant-general of Couch's brigade, and adjutant-general of his division in August, 1862. In December he became colonel on the staff of the Second Army Corps, serving in the Army of the Potomac. He was wounded at Chancellorsville; was made prisoner at Reams's Station, Va., and confined in Libby Prison; and when exchanged in 1865 was compelled to resign on account of shattered health. He was in charge of the Bureau of Statistics at the capital, and was appointed superintendent of the census for 1870, which work, completed under his supervision, is the most complete of any before made. He was superintendent of the census for 1880, and is Pres. Mass. Inst. Technology.

Walker, ROBERT JAMES, financier, was born in Northumberland, Penn., July 19, 1801; died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 11, 1869. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1819. In 1826 he settled in Natchez, Miss.; was United States Senator from 1837 to 1845, being a Democratic leader in that body; warmly supported the financial measures of President Van Buren; and had great influence over President Tyler, counselling the vigorous steps which led to the annexation of Texas. During the administration of President Polk he was Secretary of the Treasury, and in 1857-58 he was Governor of Kansas Territory. He resigned, being "unwilling," he said, "to aid in forcing slavery on that territory by fraud and forgery." In 1863-64 he was financial agent of the United States in Europe, effecting the sale of \$250,000,000 of five-twenty bonds, and defeating the second authorized Confederate loan of \$175,000,000. Mr. Walker was an efficient advocate of the Pacific Railroad and of free-trade. His celebrated report in favor of free-trade was reprinted by order of the British House of Commons.

Walker, SIR HOVENDEN, was born in Somersham, England; died in Dublin in January, 1726. He became a captain in the navy in 1692, and rear-admiral of the white in 1710. The next year he was knighted by Queen Anne. He made an attempt to capture Quebec in 1711, commanding the naval armament sent for that purpose. (See *Quebec, Expedition against*, 1711.)

Returning to England, his ship, the *Edgar*, blew up at Spithead, when nearly all the crew perished. This accident and the disastrous expedition to Quebec drew upon him almost unqualified censure, and he was dismissed from the service. He afterwards settled upon a plantation in South Carolina; but he returned to Great Britain, and "died of a broken heart" in Dublin.

Walker, WILLIAM, "filibuster," was born at Nashville, Tenn., May 8, 1824; executed at Truxillo, Honduras, Sept. 12, 1860. He was an editor in New Orleans for a while; went to California in 1850; and in 1853 organized an expedition to invade a Mexican territory. (See *Walker's Expedition*.) Making war on the government of Honduras, he was captured, condemned by a court-martial, and shot.

Walking Purchase, THE. In 1682 William Penn purchased of the Indians a tract of land in (the present) Bucks and Northampton counties, bounded on the east by the Delaware River, and in the interior at a point as far as a man could walk in three days. Penn and the Indians started on the walk, beginning at the mouth of Neshaminy Creek. At the end of a walk of a day and a half Penn concluded that it was as much land as he wanted, and a deed was given for the lands to that point—about forty miles from the starting-place—in 1686. This agreement was confirmed by the Delawares in 1718, the year when Penn died. White settlers, however, went over this boundary to the Lehigh Hills. The Indians became uneasy, and, to put an end to disputes, a treaty was concluded in 1737, by which the limits of the tract were defined as in the deed of 1682—not beyond the Lehigh Hills, or about forty miles from the place of the beginning of the "walk." It was then proposed that a "walk" of a "day and a half," as agreed upon by Penn, should be again undertaken. Thomas and Richard Penn, sons of William Penn, were then proprietors, and, contrary to the spirit of their father, they devised a plan to cheat the Indians out of a large tract of most valuable land at the forks of the Delaware and the Minisink country beyond. They advertised for the most expert walkers in the province. Three were selected—Edward Marshall, James Yeates, and Solomon Jennings—and the covetous proprietors caused them to violate the spirit of the agreement by almost running much of the way and being fed by persons who accompanied them on horseback, the walkers eating as they moved on. They started from (the present) Wrightsville on the morning of the 19th of September, 1737, going northerly along the old Durham Road to Durham Creek; then westerly to the Lehigh, which they crossed near Bethlehem; then northwesterly, passing through Bethlehem into Allen County; and halted at sunset near an Indian town. The next morning they passed the Blue Mountains at the Lehigh Water-gap, and at noon completed the "walk," at a distance of about seventy miles from the starting-point, instead of forty miles in Penn's time, and as the Indians expect-

ed. Then, by running a line northeasterly, instead of more directly from that point to the Delaware, it embraced the coveted region of the forks of the Delaware and the Minisink lands. The Indians protested against the intended fraud on the first day of the walk. The result exasperated them. The greedy proprietors had obtained about twelve hundred square miles of territory, when they were not entitled to more than eight hundred square miles. This transaction alienated the Delawares, and it was one of the chief causes that impelled them to join the French against the English in 1755.

Wallace, LEWIS, son of David Wallace, Governor of Indiana from 1837 to 1840, was born in Franklin County, Ind., in 1827. He studied law, and began its practice in Crawfordsville, Ind. He served as lieutenant of Indiana volunteers in the war with Mexico, and afterwards resumed his profession. He served one term in the State Senate; and when the Civil War broke out he was appointed adjutant-general of Indiana. Soon afterwards he was made colonel of the Eleventh (Zouave) Indiana Regiment (which see), with which he performed signal service in western Virginia. (See *Romney, Skirmish at.*) In September, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and led a division in the siege and capture of Fort Donelson (which see). For his services on that occasion he was promoted to major-general. In the battle of Shiloh (which see) he was conspicuous for gallantry. In command at Baltimore, Md., in the summer of 1864, he gallantly held in check a large Confederate force, under General Early, endeavoring to strike Washington, until the arrival of troops that secured the latter place from capture. (See *Monocacy, Battle of.*) After the war he resumed his profession. In 1878 he was governor of New Mexico, and in 1881 was appointed United States Minister at Constantinople. He is the author of *The Fair God*, and *Ben-Hur*, and, in 1893, *Prince of India*.

Wallace on Perilous Duty. When Colonel Wallace, with the Eleventh Indiana (Zouave) Regiment, fell back to Cumberland after his dash on Romney (which see), the insurgents took heart and advanced, four thousand strong—infantry, cavalry, and artillery—under Colonel McDonald. They pushed on to New Creek and destroyed the bridge of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway there. They pressed on, destroyed all communication between Cumberland and Grafton, and completely isolated Wallace. He had neither cannons nor cavalry, and for twenty-one days his men had only twenty-one rounds of cartridges apiece. He prepared to retreat to Bedford, Penn., if attacked. He could not hold Cumberland, and sent his sick and baggage in that direction. Then he boldly led his regiment out upon the same road, halted, changed front, and prepared for battle, believing that if the insurgents should enter Cumberland they would scatter in search of plunder; and in that case he would rush into the town and defeat them in detail. Informed of Wallace's bold stand, the insurgents halted within five miles

of Cumberland, and at night hastened to Romney. Wallace retired to Cumberland and appealed to McClellan, Morris, and Patterson for reinforcements, but none could be spared, for there was danger and weakness at all points. The Governor of Pennsylvania sent him ammunition and forwarded two regiments of the Pennsylvania Reserves (which see) to the borders of that state to assist the Indianians if they should be attacked. That gallant regiment successfully guarded the railway for about one hundred miles, for the insurgents felt a wholesome fear of these Zouaves, who were often engaged in little skirmishes. Wallace had impressed thirteen horses into his service and mounted thirteen picked men of his regiment. While these were on a scout on June 26 they attacked forty-one mounted insurgents, killing eight of them, chasing the remainder two miles, and capturing seventeen of their horses. On their way back they were attacked by seventy-five mounted men (afterwards of the command of the famous Ashby). They had a terrible hand-to-hand fight that ceased only when night came on. The Zouaves had only one man killed, and the rest made their way back to camp in the darkness. For his eminent services in that region for three months Colonel Wallace was rewarded with the commission of brigadier-general. For his bravery and vigilance in guarding the Baltimore and Ohio Railway, the great line of communication with the West, Wallace was heartily commended by McClellan and others.

Wallace, SIR JAMES, British admiral, died in London, March 6, 1803. He commanded the British fleet at Newport, R. I., in 1775, where he had a laconic correspondence with Captain Whipple (which see). He bore General Vaughan's marauding land force up the Hudson River in October, 1777; and in 1779 was captured by D'Estaing. In Rodney's battle with De Grasse on April 12, 1782, he commanded the *Warrior*. In 1794 he was made rear-admiral, vice-admiral in 1795, and admiral of the blue in 1801. He was Governor of Newfoundland from 1793 to 1795.

Wallace, WILLIAM HARVEY LAMB, was born at Urbana, O., July 8, 1821; died at Savannah, Tenn., April 10, 1862, from wounds received in battle. He served in the war with Mexico, in Hardin's regiment; and was State's Attorney for the Ninth Circuit, Illinois, in 1853. In May, 1861, he became colonel of the Eleventh Illinois Regiment. He commanded a brigade in McClelland's division at the capture of Fort Donelson (which see), and was made brigadier-general of volunteers. On the first day of the battle of Shiloh (which see) he was mortally wounded.

Walloons (Flemish, *Waelen*) inhabited the southern Belgic provinces and adjoining parts of France, and numbered, at the time of their dispersion by persecution (1580), over two millions. They were of a mixed Gallic and Teutonic blood, and most of them spoke the old French dialect. When the northern provinces of the Netherlands formed their political union at Utrecht (1579), the southern provinces, whose

people were chiefly Roman Catholics, declined to join the confederation. Many of the inhabitants were Protestants, and against these the Spanish government at once began the most relentless persecution. Thousands of them fled to Holland, where strangers of every race and creed were welcomed and protected; and from these the Dutch gained a knowledge of many branches of manufacture. They were skillful and industrious. Having heard of the fertility of the Western Continent, some of them wished to emigrate thither, and a proposition was made to the Virginia Company to have them favor a settlement there. Negotiations to that end failed. Hearing of this, the directors of the Dutch West India Company made them satisfactory offers, and arrangements were soon made for the emigration of several families to New Netherland. In the spring of 1623 the ship *New Netherland*, of two hundred and sixty tons burden, Captain Cornelius Jacobus May, sailed from the Texel with thirty families, chiefly Walloons, for Manhattan. These landed on the rocky shore of Manhattan on a beautiful morning in May, and were welcomed by Indians and traders. They were feasted under a tent made of sails stretched between several trees, when their Christian teacher gave public thanks to God for their safety and implored blessings on their future career. May, who was to remain as governor of the colony, then read his commission and assumed the functions of his office. The emigrants soon dispersed and formed separate settlements. (See *New York, Colony of*.) Some of the Walloons settled on Long Island, on the borders of a cove at the site of the (present) Brooklyn Navy-yard, which soon became known as the "Waalbogh" (corrupted to Wallabout), or Walloons' Cove. There, in June, 1625, Sarah Rapelje was born—the first ascertained offspring of European parentage in New Netherland.

Walton, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Frederick County, Va., in 1740; died at Augusta, Ga., Feb. 2, 1804. He was early apprenticed to a carpenter, who would not allow him a candle to read by; but he found a substitute in pine knots. He was admitted to the bar in Georgia in 1774, and was one of four persons who called a meeting at Savannah (July 27, 1774) to consult upon measures for the defence of the liberties of their country. Mr. Walton was one of the committee who prepared a petition to the king; also patriotic resolutions adopted on that occasion. From February, 1776, to October, 1781, he was a delegate in Congress from Georgia, and warmly favored the resolution for independence. As colonel of militia, he assisted in defending Savannah in December, 1778, where he was dangerously wounded, made prisoner, and kept so until September, 1779. In October, 1779, he was chosen Governor of Georgia, and again in 1789. In 1783 he was appointed chief-justice of the state. In 1795–96 he was United States Senator.

Wampanoags, or Pokanokets. One of the most powerful of the Massachusetts tribes of the Algonquin nation was that of the Wam-

panoags, of which Massasoit was sachem when the English came to the New England shores. Their domain extended over nearly the whole of southern Massachusetts, from Cape Cod to Narraganset Bay, and at one time the tribe numbered thirty thousand. Just before the landing of the Pilgrims a terrible disease had reduced them to less than one thousand. While Massasoit lived the Wampanoags were friendly to the English; but a growing discontent ripened into war in 1675, led by Metacomet (King Philip), a son of Massasoit, which involved many of the New England Indians. The result was the destruction of the tribe. King Philip's son, while yet a boy, with others, was sent to the West Indies and sold as a slave. (See *King Philip's War*.)

Wampum, an Indian currency, consisting of cylindrical white, blue, and black beads, half an inch long, made from certain parts of sea-shells. The shores of Long Island Sound abounded in these shells, and the Pequods and Narragansets grew "rich and potent" by their abundance of wampum, which was much in demand, first for ornament, and afterwards as currency among the interior tribes. The settlers at Plymouth first learned the use and value of wampum from the Dutch at Manhattan, and found it profitable in trade with the Eastern Indians; for the shells of which it was made were not common north of Cape Cod. It soon became a circulating medium, first in the Indian traffic, and then among the colonists generally. Three of the black beads, or six of the white, passed for a penny. They were strung in known parcels for convenience of reckoning—a penny, threepence, a shilling, and five shillings in white; twopence, sixpence, two-and-sixpence, and ten shillings in black. A fathom of white wampum was worth ten shillings, or two dollars and a half; a fathom of black, twice as much. Wampum was also used in the form of belts in making treaties, they being pledges of fidelity.

War, A VITAL RULE OF. Soon after Washington took command of the army at Cambridge the Legislature of Massachusetts and the Governor of Connecticut applied to him for detachments from the army for the protection of points on their respective sea-coasts exposed to predatory attacks from British cruisers. Washington, in a letter dated July 31, 1775, answered these appeals with a refusal, after giving satisfactory reasons for his decision. He pointed out the danger to be apprehended by scattering the army in detachments. He said the matter had been debated in Congress, and that they had come to the wise conclusion that each province should defend itself from small and particular depredations. It was then established as a rule, that attacks of the enemy at isolated points along the coast "must be repelled by the militia in the vicinity," except when the Continental army was in a condition to make detachments without jeopardizing the common cause.

War Begun by the Confederates. The declaration of the Confederates, South and North.

that the Civil War was begun by the President when he called (April 15, 1861) for seventy-five thousand men to suppress the insurrection, is authoritatively denied by the utterances of the Confederate leaders. On the evening of the day when Fort Sumter was attacked (April 12, 1861), in response to a serenade given to Jefferson Davis and his Secretary of War (L. Pope Walker), at the Exchange Hotel at Montgomery, the latter said, "No man can tell when *the war this day commenced* will end; but I will prophesy that the flag which now flaunts to the breeze here will float over the dome of the old Capitol at Washington before the 1st of May. Let them try Southern chivalry and test the extent of Southern resources, and it may eventually float over Faneuil Hall in Boston." Hooper, the Secretary of the Montgomery Convention, replied to the question of the agent of the Associated Press at Washington—"What is the feeling there?"—by saying:

"Davis answers rough and curt,
With mortar, Paixhan, and petard,
Sumter is ours, and nobody hurt;
We tender Abe our Beau-regard."

General Pillow, of Tennessee, had offered to the "Confederate government" ten thousand volunteers from his state; and assurances had come from all parts of the border slave-labor states that ample means, in men and money, would be afforded to carry on the war. These utterances and these offers were made before the President's proclamation.

WAR, CHANGE OF THE, FROM OFFENSIVE TO DEFENSIVE. For nearly two years the Americans waged offensive war against Great Britain (1812-14), when they were compelled to change to a war of defence. The entire sea-coast from the St. Croix to the St. Mary's, and of the Gulf of Mexico to New Orleans and beyond, was menaced by British squadrons and regiments. At Portland, Boston, Providence, New Haven, New York, Baltimore, Norfolk, Charleston, and Savannah, which were exposed to attack, the people were soon busy casting up fortifications for defence.

WAR, DECLARATION OF, BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND (1756). The serious quarrel between the English and French colonists in America, which was begun in 1754 and continued by collisions of armed men, was taken up by the home governments in 1755. The French had offered to treat for reconciliation, but the terms were not acceptable to the English; and when the offer was refused, the French fitted out privateers and threatened to invade England with a fleet and army collected at Brest. To confront this menace, a body of German troops were introduced into England; and, to induce the colonies to make fresh efforts against the French in America, the Parliament voted a reimbursement of \$775,000 to those involved on account of Dieskau's invasion. Provision was also made for enlisting a Royal American regiment, composed of four battalions of one thousand men each. All hopes of reconciliation being passed, England formally declared war against France (May 18, 1756), to which the latter shortly after responded.

War Ended in Western Virginia, THE. After Lee was recalled to Richmond (see *Lee's, R. E., Campaign in Western Virginia*), Floyd and Rosecrans were competitors for the possession of the Kanawha valley. The former, late in October, took post at a place where his cannons commanded the road over which supplies for the latter passed, and it was resolved to dislodge or capture him. General Schenck was sent to gain Floyd's rear, but he was hindered by a sudden flood in New River, though the Confederates were struck (Nov. 12) in front by Kentuckians under Major Leeper. Floyd fled precipitately, strewing the way with tents, tent-poles, working utensils, and ammunition in order to lighten his wagons. General Benham, pursuing, struck Floyd's rear-guard of 400 cavalry in the flight; but the pursuit was ended after a thirty-mile race, and the fugitives escaped. Floyd soon afterwards took leave of his army. Meanwhile General Reynolds (see *Lee's, R. E., Campaign in Western Virginia*) was moving vigorously. Lee had left General H. R. Jackson, of Georgia, with about 3000 men on Greenbrier River, at the foot of Cheat Mountain, and a small force at Huntersville, to watch Reynolds. He was near a noted tavern on the Staunton pike called "Travellers' Rest." Reynolds moved about 5000 men of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Virginia against Jackson at the beginning of October, 1861. On the morning of the 2d they attacked Jackson, and were repulsed, after an engagement of seven hours, with a loss of 10 men killed and 32 wounded. Jackson lost in picket-firing and in the trenches about 200 men. Reynolds fell back to Elkwater. Meanwhile General Kelley (see *Philippi, Va., Skirmish at*), who was guarding the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, had struck (Oct. 26) the Confederates under McDonald at Romney (which see), and, after a severe contest of two hours, routed them, capturing three cannons and a large number of prisoners. The blow given Jackson at "Travellers' Rest" paralyzed the Confederate power in western Virginia. He left his troops (about 2000 in number) with Colonel Edward Johnson, of Georgia, and returned to that state. Reynolds had left his troops in charge of General Robert H. Milroy, consisting of a single brigade, to hold the mountain passes. He scouted the hills vigorously, skirmishing here and there, and finally, on Dec. 12, moved to attack Johnson. He was at first unsuccessful, the Confederates became the aggressors, and, after losing nearly 200 men, he retired. The Confederate loss was about the same. Late in December Milroy sent some troops under Major Webster to look up a Confederate force at Huntersville. It was successful, after a weary march of fifty miles over ground covered with snow. The Confederates were dispersed, a large amount of stores burned, and their soldiers, disheartened, almost entirely disappeared from that region. This event ended the campaigns in western Virginia, and armed rebellion there was suppressed.

War Message of Madison (1812). On June 1, 1812, President Madison sent a confidential

message to Congress, in which he recapitulated the causes of complaint against Great Britain, and declared that it was the duty of the House to consider, as it was their constitutional right to decide, whether the Americans should remain passive under these progressive and accumulated wrongs. At the same time he cautioned Congress to avoid entanglements in the "contests and views of other powers," meaning France; but he refrained from proposing any definite measure in regard to that nation.

War on Long Island and the Connecticut Border. The eight men selected by the people of New Amsterdam as a council made some provision for defence against the Indians in the autumn of 1643. They equipped a large force of soldiers, of whom fifty were Englishmen, under John Underhill, the Massachusetts leader who had fought the Pequods (which see). In the succeeding winter, suffering dreadfully from the hostile Indians, some English families who had moved from Stamford, Conn., to Hempstead, L. I., were exposed to forays by the Canasie Indians, and begged for troops to protect them. The governor and the eight men sent one hundred and twenty soldiers, who surprised and sacked the Indian villages and killed more than one hundred warriors. Two of the Indians were taken to Manhattan and cruelly tortured to death. This was soon followed by another expedition against the barbarians at Stamford and Greenwich. Underhill, with a force one hundred and fifty strong of Dutch and English, marched through deep snow in February, 1644, to attack the principal Indian village there. The moon shone brightly, but the savages had been warned, and were on the ground seven hundred in number. They were also protected by rude fortifications. Steadily the Dutch and English moved upon them, and nearly two hundred Indians were slain. After a while Underhill succeeded in setting fire to the village. The slaughter was dreadful. Only eight of the seven hundred barbarians escaped, while the assailants had only fifteen wounded. When, a few days afterwards, the victors arrived at Manhattan, a day of thanksgiving was held.

War upon the Creeks (1813). In the summer of 1813 affairs assumed a serious aspect in the Gulf region. The ever-restless Tecumtha had been among the Southern tribes in the autumn of 1811, stirring them up to make war on the white people. The powerful Creeks inhabiting Alabama and western Georgia yielded to his influence and persuasions; and at the close of August a large party of them, led by the noted chief Weathersford, surprised and captured Fort Mims, on the east side of the Alabama River. About 400 men, women, and children were massacred. This event aroused the whole Southwest. General Jackson, with General Coffee, marched into the Creek country with 2500 Tennessee militia, and prosecuted a subjugating war upon them with great vigor. On Nov. 3, 1813, General Coffee, with 900 men, surrounded the Indians at Tallushatchee and killed 200 of

them. Not a warrior escaped. Within ten weeks afterwards bloody battles had been fought at Talladega (Nov. 8), Auttose (Nov. 29), and Emucfau (Jan. 22, 1814); and several skirmishes had also taken place. The Americans were always victorious, yet they lost many brave soldiers. At length the Creeks established a fortified camp at the Great Horseshoe Bend of the Tallapoosa River, and there 1000 warriors, with their women and children, determined to make a defensive stand. The Americans surrounded them; and Jackson, with the main body of his army, attacked them on March 27, 1814. The Indians fought desperately, for they saw no future for themselves in the event of defeat. Almost 600 warriors were slain, for they disdained to surrender; only two or three were made prisoners, with about 300 women and children. This battle crushed the power and spirit of the Creek nation, and soon afterwards the chiefs signified their submission. (*See Creek Confederacy.*)

War-cloud, DISPERSION OF THE (1798). Circumstances humbled the pride of the French Directory, and the wily Talleyrand began to think of reconciliation with the United States. He saw the unity of the people with Washington as leader, and paused; and, through letters to Pinchon (August and September, 1798), information was conveyed to the United States government that the Directory were ready to receive advances from the former for entering into negotiations. Anxious for peace, President Adams, without consulting his cabinet or the national dignity, nominated to the Senate William Vans Murray (then United States diplomatic agent at the Hague) as minister plenipotentiary to France. This was a concession to the insolent Directory which neither Congress nor the people approved, and the Senate refused to ratify the nomination. This advance, after unatoned insults from the Directory, seemed like cowardly cringing before a half-relenting tyrant. After a while the President consented to the appointment of three envoys extraordinary, of which Murray should be one, to settle all disputes between the two governments. Oliver Ellsworth and William R. Davie were chosen to join Murray. The latter did not proceed to Europe until assurances were received from France of their courteous reception. These were received from Talleyrand (November, 1799), and the two envoys sailed for France. The same month the Directory, which had become unpopular, was overthrown, and the government of France remodelled, with Napoleon Bonaparte as First Consul, or supreme ruler of the nation. The envoys were cordially received by Talleyrand in the name of the First Consul, and all difficulties between the two nations were speedily adjusted. A convention was signed at Paris (Sept. 30, 1800) by the three envoys and three French commissioners which was satisfactory to both parties. The convention also made a decision contrary to the doctrine avowed and practised by the English government, that *free ships make free goods*. This affirmed the doctrine of Frederick the Great enunciated fifty

years before, and denied that of England in her famous "Rule of 1756" (which see).

War-spirit Kindled (1775). When the Congress had resolved upon armed resistance in the late spring of 1775 (see *Defence, General Preparations for*), the pulpit, the bar, and the press united in encouraging the people to be firm in their opposition. The clergy of New England were a zealous, learned, numerous, and widely influential body of earnest patriots. They connected religion and patriotism, and in their prayers and sermons represented the cause of America as the cause of Heaven. The Presbyterian synods of New York and Philadelphia sent forth a pastoral letter which was publicly read in their churches. This earnestly recommended such sentiments and conduct as were suitable to the situation. Publicists and journalists followed the preachers, and exerted a powerful influence over the minds of the great mass of the colonists. The legal fraternity denied the charge of rebellion, and proved the justice of the resistance of the Americans. A distinction founded on law was drawn between the king and Parliament. They contended that the king could do no wrong, and upon the latter they charged the crime of treason for using the royal name in connection with their own unconstitutional measures. The phrase of a "ministerial war" became common, and the colonists professed loyalty to the crown until the Declaration of Independence. Thus it was that the leaders in thought bore forward the banner of resistance to British oppression.

Ward, ARTEMAS, first major-general of the Continental Army, was born at Shrewsbury, Mass., Nov. 27, 1727; died there, Oct. 27, 1800. He graduated at Harvard University in 1748, served as major in the Northern army from 1755 to 1758, and became lieutenant-colonel. Taking an active part against the ministerial measures, he was appointed a general officer by the Massachusetts Provincial Congress, and in May he became commander-in-chief of the forces gathered at Cambridge, in which position he acted until the arrival of Washington at the beginning of July, 1775. Ward was made the first major-general under Washington, which he resigned in the spring of 1776 on account of ill-health, when he was appointed chief-justice of the Court of Common Pleas for Worcester County. He was president of the Council in 1777, and in 1779 was chosen a delegate to Congress, but ill-health prevented his taking a seat in that body. For sixteen years he was in the Massachusetts Legislature, and was speaker of the Assembly in 1785. From 1791 to 1795 he was in Congress.

Ward, JAMES HARMAN, was born at Hartford, Conn., in 1806; killed in the battle at Matthias Point, Va., June 27, 1861. Educated at Norwich Military Academy and Trinity College, he entered the navy in 1823, and rose to commander in 1858. He lectured on gunnery, and urged the establishment of a naval school. In May, 1861, he was placed in command of the Potomac flotilla (see *Blockade of the Potomac*);

silenced the batteries at Aquia Creek (which see), and in an attack upon a battery upon Matthias Point was mortally wounded by a Minie-ball.

Ward, SAMUEL, Governor of Rhode Island, was born at Newport, in that state, May 27, 1725; died in Philadelphia, March 26, 1776. He was already a man of note when the Revolution occurred. He had acquired a competence in business, and had served in the Assembly of Rhode Island. In 1761 he was made chief-justice, and was twice governor (in 1762 and from 1765 to 1767). He was one of the founders of the Rhode Island College (Brown University). A firm and persistent patriot, he was regarded as a safe leader and had great influence, and, with Stephen Hopkins, was sent a delegate from Rhode Island to the First Continental Congress in 1774. He was also a member of the Second Congress in 1775, in which he usually presided when in committee of the whole.

Warner, SETH, a leader of the Green Mountain Boys, was born at Roxbury, Conn., May 17, 1743; died there, Dec. 26, 1784. He was a man of noble bearing, sound judgment, energy, and pure patriotism. With his father, Dr. Benjamin Warner, he went to Bennington in 1765, and became, with Allen, a principal leader in the disputes between New York and the New Hampshire Grants. He and Allen were outlawed by the State of New York, and a reward was offered for their arrest. He captured Ticonderoga (May 12, 1775), and on July 27 was appointed colonel of Vermont militia. He joined the Northern army and was at the siege of St. John. He defeated an attempt of General Carleton to relieve the garrison. The next year he performed signal service during the retreat of the Americans from Canada. On the retreat of the Americans from Ticonderoga (July 4) in 1777 he again performed good service. In the command of the rear-guard he fought a severe battle at Hubbardton, and was compelled to retreat. At the battle near Bennington he and his command were essential aids in obtaining a victory over the invaders, and shared in the glory of the exploit. Warner remained in the service until 1782, when his constitution gave way under the strain of fatigue and hardship, and he returned home.

Warren, GOUVERNEUR KEMBLE, was born at Cold Spring, N. Y., in 1830, graduated at West Point in 1850, entering the Topographical Engineers, and was assistant professor of mathematics at the Military Academy from 1859 to 1861, when the Civil War broke out. He was made colonel in August, 1861, and commanded a brigade in the campaign of 1862. In September he was made brigadier-general. He engaged in the battles of Manassas (or Second Bull's Run), Antietam, and Fredericksburg. After Feb. 4, 1863, he was chief of topographical engineers of the Army of the Potomac. He was engaged in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg (where he was wounded), and in the combats at Auburn and Bristow's Station. In March, 1864, he was placed in command of the Fifth Army

Corps, which position he held until April, 1865, in the campaign against Richmond, having been made major-general of volunteers in May, 1863. In that campaign he was exceedingly active and



GOUVENEUR KEMBLE WARREN.

efficient, from the battle in the Wilderness to the battle of Five Forks. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army. General Warren is the author of several interesting reports of explorations in the West and Northwest a few years before the Civil War. He died Aug. 3, 1882.

Warren, JOSEPH, was born at Roxbury, Mass., June 11, 1741; killed in battle, June 17, 1775. He graduated at Harvard University in 1759, studied the healing art, began practice as a physician in 1752 in Boston, and by his successful treatment of small-pox patients in 1764 acquired a high reputation among the faculty.

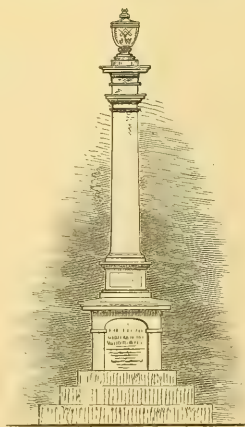


JOSEPH WARREN.

In politics he was in advance of public opinion in general, holding the doctrine that the British Parliament had no right to levy a tax of any kind upon the colonies. When, in 1772, Samuel Adams declined to deliver the annual oration

on the anniversary of the Boston Massacre, Dr. Warren took his place, and exhibited great ability. He again delivered the anniversary oration in 1775 in the midst of the danger caused by the presence of British troops and the exasperation of the citizens. He had been made a member of the Boston Committee of Correspondence in 1772, and worked incessantly and effectively for the cause of the colonists. He was a delegate to the Suffolk County Convention, and was chairman of the committee appointed to address Governor Gage on the subject of the fortifications on Boston Neck and other grievances. He sent him two papers, written by himself, which were communicated to the Continental Congress. (See *Suffolk Resolutions*.) As delegate in the Massachusetts Provincial Congress in 1774 he was made its president; also the chairman of the Committee of Safety. The successful result to the patriots of the affair at Lexington and Concord was mainly due to the energy and vigilance of Dr. Warren. He was commissioned major-general by the Massachusetts Congress, June 14, 1775. Warren opposed the project of fortifying Charlestown Heights—Bunker's (Breed's) Hill—because of the scarcity of powder, and to this cause the defeat of the provincials is chiefly chargeable. When a majority of a council of war and the Committee of Safety decided to fortify Bunker's Hill, he resolved to take part in the enterprise. "I beg you not to expose your person, Dr. Warren," said Elbridge Gerry, "for your life is too valuable to us." "I know that I may fall," replied Warren, "but where's the man who does not think it glorious and delightful to die for his country?" Just before the battle began he went to the redoubt on Breed's Hill with a musket in his hand, and was offered the command by Colonel Prescott and General Putnam, but declined, and fought as a volunteer in the ranks. He was one of the last to leave the redoubt. As he moved

away towards Bunker's Hill an officer of the British army who knew him called out to him by name to surrender, at the same time commanding his men to cease firing. As Warren turned, attracted by the voice, a bullet penetrated his brain and he fell dead. The Continental Congress voted him a monument, and resolved to educate his infant son at the public expense. The monument was never erected by the government, but the Bun-



WARREN'S MONUMENT.

ker's Hill Monument was unveiled on the famous hill, June 17, 1857. (See *Bunker's Hill Monument*.) A masonic lodge in Charlestown erected a monument in 1794 on the spot where he fell. It was composed of a brick pedestal eight feet square,

rising ten feet from the ground, and supporting a Tuscan column of wood eighteen feet in height. This was surmounted by a gilt cross, bearing the inscription "J. W., aged 35," entwined with masonic emblems. Upon the pedestal was an appropriate inscription. The monument stood thus forty years, when it gave way to the Bunker's Hill Monument. A beautiful model of Warren's monument stands within the base of the huge granite obelisk.

Warren, MERCY, historian, was born at Barnstable, Mass., Sept. 25, 1728; died at Plymouth, Oct. 19, 1814. Mrs. Warren was the wife of General James Warren and sister of James Otis. Her mind was as strong and active as that of her fiery brother, but she was restrained from taking public part in the politics of the day by her sex. She was a poet of much excellence, and corresponded with the leading statesmen of the day. She excelled in dramatic composition, and produced *The Group*, a political satire; *The Adulator*; and two tragedies of five acts each, called *The Sack of Rome* and *Ladies of Castile*.



MERCY WARREN.

The latter were written during the earlier years of the war for independence and published in 1778, and were full of patriotic sentiments. Her complete poetical works were published in 1790. In 1805 Mrs. Warren completed and published a *History of the Revolutionary War*, in three volumes.

Warren, SIR PETER, was born in 1702; died in Ireland, July 29, 1752. He entered the navy in 1727, and was commodore in 1745, when he commanded an expedition against Louisburg, joining the land-forces from Massachusetts under General Pepperell. He took possession of Louisburg on June 17. Afterwards he was made a rear-admiral, and, in 1747, defeated the French in an action off Cape Finisterre, capturing the greater part of their fleet. Admiral Warren married the eldest daughter of Stephen De Lancey, of New York, and became the owner of a large tract of land in the Mohawk region, in charge of which he placed his nephew, William Johnson, afterwards Sir William.

Warrington, LEWIS, was born at Williamsburg, Va., Nov. 3, 1782; died in Washington,

D. C., Oct. 12, 1851. He graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1798, and entered the navy in 1800. He was an officer of the *Chesapeake* at the time of her encounter with the *Leop-*



LEWIS WARRINGTON.

ard. (See *Chesapeake* and *Leopard*.) For his capture of the *Épervier* (see *Peacock* and *Épervier*) Congress gave him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal. In June, 1815, while cruising in the East India waters, he captured the *Nautilus* (which see), the last prize of the war.

Warwick, EARL OF, GOVERNOR OF NEW ENGLAND. In 1643 the British Parliament passed an ordinance appointing the Earl of Warwick Governor-in-chief and Lord High Admiral of the American Colonies, with a council of five peers and twelve commoners. It empowered him, in conjunction with his associates, to examine the state of their affairs; to send for persons and papers; to remove governors and officers and to appoint others in their places, and to assign over to these such part of the powers that were now granted as he should think proper.

Warwick River (Va.), SKIRMISH ON. On April 16, 1862, a division of the Fourth Corps, General Smith, attacked some Confederates between the mills of Lee and Wisner, on the Warwick River. They were from McClellan's army, then besieging the Confederate lines at Yorktown. The attempt to carry the intrenchments there failed, with a loss of one hundred men. The Confederates lost seventy-five.

Washburne, CADWALLADER COLDEN, was born at Livermore, Me., April 22, 1818, and was a land-surveyor in early life. He went "West" in 1839, and finally settled at La Crosse, Wis., in 1859. He was in Congress from 1856 to 1862; a delegate to the Peace Conference in 1861; soon after the attack on Fort Sumter he raised a regiment of cavalry, of which he became colonel, and, in December, 1861, conducted a successful expedition from Helena, Ark., into the interior of

Mississippi. He was exceedingly active and efficient in the command of divisions in operations around Vicksburg in 1863, and afterwards served with distinction under Banks in Louisiana. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in July, 1862, and major-general in November. From 1867 till 1871 he was a member of Congress, and in the latter year was chosen governor of Wisconsin. He died May 14, 1882.

Washburne, ELIHU BENJAMIN, diplomatist, was born at Livermore, Me., Sept. 23, 1816. He was first a printer and then a lawyer, and settled in the practice of law at Galena, Ill. He was in Congress from 1853 to 1869 continuously (excepting one term), where he was a Republican leader and chairman of the Committee on Commerce (1857-65). He was awarded the title of "Father of the House." He procured the appointment of Grant as brigadier-general, and when the latter became President he called Washburne to a seat in his cabinet as Secretary of State. He soon afterwards accepted the mission to France. He died in 1887.

Washington Abused. The leaders of the Anti-Federal or Republican party became more and more violent in their censure of their opponents, and finally they indulged in personal abuse of Washington, charging him with venality and even with immorality. The chief vehicle of this abuse was a newspaper called the *Aurora*, published by Benjamin Franklin Bache, a grandson of Dr. Franklin. When Washington was about to retire from the Presidency in 1797 a writer in that journal said: "If ever a nation has been debauched by a man, the American nation has been debauched by Washington. If ever a nation has been deceived by a man, the American nation has been deceived by Washington. Let his conduct, then, be an example to future ages. Let it serve to be a warning that no man may be an idol. Let the history of the Federal government instruct mankind that the mask of patriotism may be worn to conceal the foulest designs against the liberties of a people." On the day when he resigned the chair of state to John Adams (March 4, 1797), a writer in the *Aurora*, after declaring that he was no longer possessed of the "power to multiply evils upon the United States," said, "When a retrospect is taken of the Washingtonian administration for eight years, it is the subject of the greatest astonishment that a single individual should have cankered the principles of republicanism in an enlightened people, just emerged from the gulf of despotism, and should have carried his designs against the public liberty so far as to put in jeopardy its very existence. Such, however, are the facts, and with them staring us in the face, this day ought to be a *jubilee* in the United States." They also republished spurious letters of Washington (which see). These examples will suffice to show the malignity of party spirit in the early days of the Republic, when even Washington was not spared from the lash of public abuse. It fell with even more severity on others. Both parties were guilty of the offence.

Washington a Dictator the Second Time On Sept. 17, 1777, the Continental Congress, expecting to be obliged to fly from Philadelphia, again invested Washington with almost dictatorial powers, to last for sixty days. He was authorized to suspend misbehaving officers; to fill all vacancies; to take provisions and other necessities for the army, wherever he could find them within seventy miles of his headquarters, paying the owners therefor, or giving certificates for the redemption of which the public faith was pledged; and to remove and secure for the benefit of the owners all goods which might prove serviceable to the public. On the 30th of December these powers were extended to the 10th of April, 1778.

Washington, ADOPTED CHILDREN OF. John Parke Custis, an only son of Mrs. Washington by a former husband, was aid to the commander-in-chief at Yorktown, at the beginning of the siege. Seized with camp-fever, he retired to Eltham, the seat of Colonel Bassett, a kinsman, where he died. At the conclusion of the ceremonies at the surrender of Cornwallis, Washington hastened to the bedside of his dying step-son. He was met at the door by Dr. Craik, who told him that all was over. The chief bowed his head, and, giving vent to his sorrow by a flood of tears, he turned to the weeping widow—mother of four children—and said: "I adopt the two younger children as my own." These were Eleanor Parke Custis and George Washington Parke Custis, the former three years of age and the latter six months.

Washington a Lieutenant-general of France. Through the exertions of General Lafayette, who went to France in 1779, arrangements were made with Louis XVI. to send to the aid of the struggling Americans a French land and naval force. The French troops were to be placed under the command of Lieutenant-general the Count de Rochambeau. In order to prevent any clashing of military authority, General Washington, who was to be supreme commander of the allied armies, was created by the king a lieutenant-general of France, that he might be on an official equality with Rochambeau, who was commanded to serve under Washington. This was a wise arrangement. The commission granted to Washington by the French monarch was brought over by Lafayette on his return to America. The ships and troops speedily followed.

Washington and Mary Phillipsse. Disputes about rank caused a reference to General Shirley, then (1756) commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, and Colonel George Washington was chosen by his fellow-officers to present the matter to the general. He set out for Boston, a distance of five hundred miles, on horseback, Feb. 4, 1756, accompanied by two young officers, and stopped several days in the principal cities through which he passed. He was everywhere received with great respect, for the fame of his exploits on the field where Braddock fell (see *Braddock's Defeat*) had preceded him. In New York he was cordially en-

tertained by Beverly Robinson, son of the speaker of the Virginia Assembly. Mrs. Robinson's sister, Mary Phillipse, was then at his house, and Washington was smitten with her charms. On his return from Boston he was again entertained at the mansion of Mr. Robinson, and he lingered as long in the company of Miss Phillipse as duty would allow. He wished to take her with him to Virginia as his bride at some time in the near future, but his natural modesty did not allow him to ask the boon of a betrothal. He left the secret with a friend, who kept him informed of everything of importance concerning the rich heiress of Phillipse Manor, on the Hudson, but delayed to make the proposal of marriage. At length he was informed that he had a rival in Colonel Roger Morris, his companion-in-arms under Braddock, who won the fair lady, and the tardy lover married the pretty little Martha Custis three years afterwards.

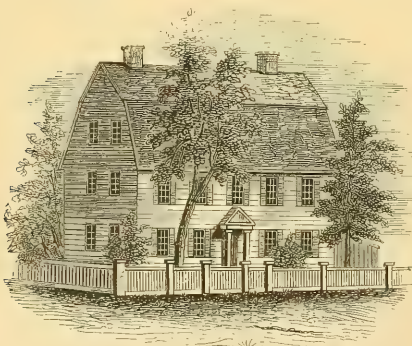
Washington and Rochambeau. In the summer of 1780 Washington contemplated the aspect of public affairs with great anxiety and even alarm. The French fleet and army were blockaded at Newport, and the commander-in-chief was doubtful whether his own army could be kept together for another campaign. He was, therefore, exceedingly anxious to strike a decisive blow. He proposed to Rochambeau an attack on New York, but that was thought too hazardous without a superior naval force. Letters were sent to the French admiral in the West Indies, entreating assistance, and, in September, Washington proceeded to Hartford to hold an appointed personal conference there with Rochambeau. They met on Sept. 21. Rochambeau was accompanied by Admiral Ternay, commander of the French fleet at Newport. The conclusion was that the season was too far advanced for the allies to perform anything of importance, and, after making some general arrangements for the next campaign, Washington returned to West Point, on the Hudson. It was during this absence from camp that the treason of Arnold was revealed. (See *Treason of Arnold*.) Washington met Rochambeau a second

freshments, the generals and suites rode to Wethersfield, a few miles below Hartford, escorted by a few private gentlemen, and, at the house of Joseph Webb, where Washington was lodged, a conference was held. An agreement was then made for the French army to march to the Hudson River as speedily as possible.

Washington Benevolent Societies. These were political organizations, which originated in Philadelphia soon after the declaration of war, in 1812. The first organization was fully completed on the 22d of February, 1813, under the title of the "Washington Benevolent Society of Pennsylvania." Each member was required to sign the constitution and the following declaration: "We, each of us, do hereby declare that we are firmly attached to the Constitution of the United States and to that of Pennsylvania; to the principles of a free republican government, and to those which regulated the public conduct of George Washington; that we will, each of us, to the best of our ability, aid, and, so far as may be consistent with our religious principles respectively, preserve the rights and liberties of our country against all foreign and domestic violence, fraud, and usurpation; and that, as members of the Washington Benevolent Society, we will in all things comply with its regulations, support its principles, and enforce its views." It was a Federal association, and had attractive social and benevolent features. The funds of the society were used for the purposes of charity among its members and their families, and for other purposes which might be prescribed. They had anniversary dinners on Washington's birthday, so simple that men of moderate means might participate in them, the dinner, with beer and choice spirits, costing only seventy-five cents. In Philadelphia, the society built Washington Hall, on Third Street, between Walnut and Spruce. Similar societies were organized elsewhere. They rapidly multiplied during the war, but with the demise of the Federal party, during Monroe's administration, they disappeared.

Washington, BUSHROD, LL.D., jurist, was born in Westmoreland County, Va., June 5, 1762; died in Philadelphia, Nov. 26, 1829. He was a nephew of President Washington. He graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1778, and studied law with James Wilson, in Philadelphia, becoming a successful practitioner. At Yorktown he served as a private soldier, and was a member of the Virginia Assembly in 1787; also a member of the Virginia convention that ratified the national Constitution. In December, 1798, he was appointed Associate-justice of the United States Supreme Court, which office he held until his death. He was the first president of the Colonization Society (which see).

Washington, CAPTURE OF (1814). When the battle of Bladensburg (which see) was ended in victory for the British, and the Americans were dispersed or in full retreat, President Madison, Secretary of State Monroe, and Secretary of War Armstrong, who had come out to see the fight, and, if possible, to give assistance, hastened back



THE WEBB HOUSE.

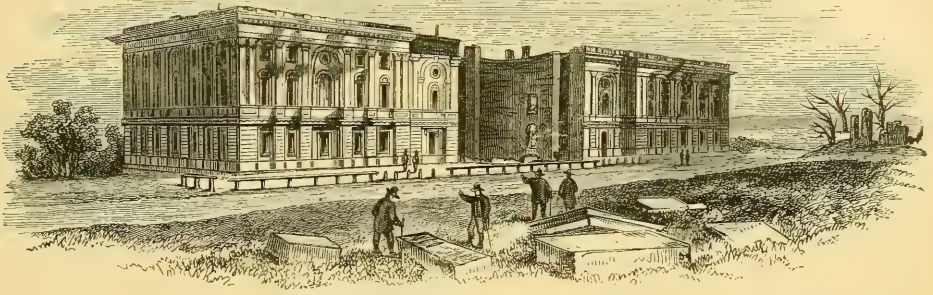
time at Hartford. It was on the 21st of May, 1781. Their meeting was celebrated by discharges of cannons. After partaking of re-

to Washington as fast as fleet horses could carry them. The race created much merriment at the time. A writer in a New York journal said: "Should some Walter Scott [his *Marmion* had recently appeared, and was then very popular], in the next century, write a poem, and call it "*Madison, or the Battle of Bladensburg*," we should suggest the following lines for the conclusion:

"Fly, Monroe, fly! run, Armstrong, run!
Were the last words of Madison."

The President and his fugitive party were the first to announce to the citizens the loss of the

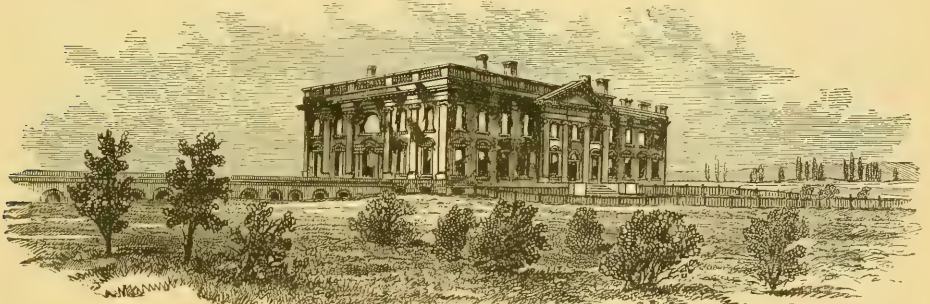
to the orders of his superior, but even that was repugnant to his humane nature. Fortunately for him, he was accompanied by one who delighted in such cruelties, and Admiral Cockburn became, literally, his torch-bearer. The unfinished Capitol, the President's house (a mile distant), the Treasury buildings, the arsenal, and barracks for about three thousand troops, were soon in flames, the light of which was seen in Baltimore, forty miles distant. In the course of a few hours nothing was left of these superb edifices but their blackened walls. Of the pub-



REMAINS OF THE CAPITOL AFTER THE FIRE.

battle and the march of the victors on the capital. Up to this time the conduct of the British had been in accordance with the rules of modern warfare. Now they abandoned them. Ross left the main body within a mile and a half of the town, then containing about nine hundred buildings. The commanding general, accompanied by Cockburn, the marauder, entered the city at eight o'clock in the evening, accompanied by a guard of two hundred men. From a house near the Capitol, they were fired upon by a single musket, and the ball killed the horse on which

public buildings, only the Patent Office was saved. The President, in a proclamation (Sept. 1, 1814), submitted the following indictment: "They wantonly destroyed the public edifices having no relation in their structure to operations of war, nor used at the time for military annoyance; some of these edifices being costly monuments of taste and of the arts, and others depositories of the public archives, not only precious to the nation as the memorials of its origin and its early transactions, but interesting to all nations as contributions to the general stock of



REMAINS OF THE PRESIDENT'S HOUSE AFTER THE FIRE

Ross rode. The house was immediately demolished by the exasperated soldiers. Then the same fate overtook the office of the *National Intelligencer*, whose strictures upon the brutality of Cockburn had excited his fiercest anger. These and some houses on Capitol Hill, a large ropewalk and a tavern, comprised the bulk of the private property destroyed. Ross had come to destroy the public property there, in obedience

historical instruction and political science." The people of Great Britain deplored this barbarity of their troops, and their best writers denounced the act. Ross was urged to it by Cockburn, who declared that it was the wish of Sir George Prevost, governor of Canada, that further retaliation for the burning of Newark (which see) should be inflicted, he not being satisfied with the retribution of desolating the entire Niagara

frontier and the massacre of the garrison at Fort Niagara (which see). The government of England (seldom in accord with the people) thanked the actors in the scenes, caused the Tower guns to be fired in honor of the event, and on the death of Ross, not long afterwards, ordered a monument to his memory to be erected in Westminster Abbey. While the public buildings in Washington were in flames, the national shipping, stores, and other property were blazing at the navy-yard; also Long Bridge that spanned the Potomac from Washington to the Virginia shore. Commodore Tingey, who was in command at the Navy-yard, had received instructions to set the public property on fire rather than let it fall into the hands of the invaders. He applied the torch at about the same moment when Ross and his guard entered the city. Property valued at about \$1,000,000 was destroyed. The value of the entire property destroyed at Washington, by the Americans and the British, was about \$2,000,000. For these calamities the public were disposed to hold the Secretary of War responsible. The clamor against him was so great that he resigned, Sept. 3, 1814.

Washington Commander-in-chief (1798).

Washington approved the war measures of the administration, and he was appointed (July 7, 1798) lieutenant-general and commander-in-chief of all the armies of the United States—raised and to be raised. The venerated patriot, then sixty-six years of age, responded with alacrity. "You may command me without reserve," he wrote to President Adams, qualifying the remark by the expressed desire that he should not be called into active service until the public need should demand it, and requesting the appointment of his friend, Alexander Hamilton, then forty-one years of age, acting commander-in-chief. Hamilton was appointed the first major-general, and in November (1798) Washington met his general officer in Philadelphia, and made arrangements for the complete organization of the regular forces on a war-footing. Washington believed from the beginning that the war-clouds would disperse, and not gather in a tempest, and events justified his faith. War was averted.

Washington, DEATH OF. On the 13th of December, 1799, Washington, at Mount Vernon, was exposed to a storm of sleet, took cold, and was seized with a violent attack of membranous croup, when, at three o'clock on the morning of the 14th, he awoke from a troubled sleep. At daybreak he and Mrs. Washington became alarmed, and sent for Dr. Craik, the family physician. In the course of the day two other physicians were summoned. The malady defied medical skill as then practised, and before midnight the spirit of the beloved patriot took its flight. It is believed his death was really caused by excessive blood-letting. His attendants at that hour were Mrs. Washington (with whom he had lived forty years), his secretary (Mr. Lear), the three physicians, his faithful body-servant, and the equally faithful old colored nurse of the

family. Intelligence of his death reached President Adams, at Philadelphia, by a special courier, on the morning of Dec. 18. Congress was in session, and John Marshall announced the event the same day, and that body immediately adjourned. The funeral took place on Wednesday, Dec. 18, the services being conducted by Rev. Mr. Davis, of Alexandria, according to the ritual of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America. A procession was formed, consisting of horse and foot, relatives and citizens; and at the old vault, in which the body was laid, there



WASHINGTON'S OLD FAMILY VAULT.

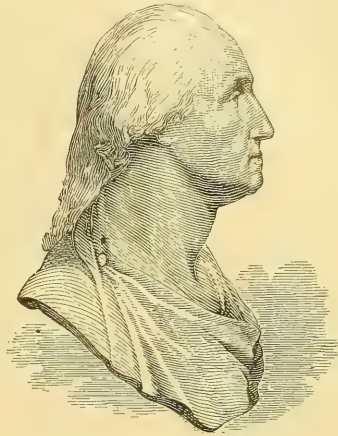
were ceremonies according to the order of Freemasons, of which Washington was a member.

Washington, DIPLOMATIC MISSION OF. Robert Dinwiddie, Lieutenant-governor of Virginia (see *Dinwiddie and the French*), observing with anxiety and alarm the movements of the French on the frontiers of Pennsylvania (see *Western Frontiers, The French on the*), held a treaty with the Indian bands on the Monongahela River (September, 1753), from whom he gained permission to build a fort at the junction of that river and the Alleghany, now Pittsburgh. He also resolved to send a competent messenger to the nearest French post, with a letter demanding explanations, and the release and indemnification of the English traders whom the French had robbed and imprisoned. He chose for this delicate and hazardous service George Washington, a native of Westmoreland, and then, though not twenty-two years of age, a major of militia, possessed of sound judgment, courage, and enterprise. With three attendants, Washington left Williamsburg Oct. 31, 1753, and after journeying more than four hundred miles (more than half the distance through a dark wilderness), encountering incredible hardships and dangers, amid snow and icy floods and hostile Indians, he reached the French post of Venango Dec. 4, where he was politely received, and his visit was made the occasion of great conviviality by the officers of the garrison. He had been joined at Cumberland (Md.) by five others. The free use of wine disarmed the French of their prudence, and they revealed to their sober guest their design to per-

manently occupy the region they then had possession of. Washington perceived the necessity of quickly despatching his business and returning to Williamsburg; and after spending a day at Venango, he pushed forward to Le Boeuf, the headquarters of St. Pierre, the chief commander, who entertained him politely four days, and then gave him a written answer to Dinwiddie's remonstrance, enveloped and sealed. Washington retraced his perilous journey through the wilderness, and after an absence of eleven weeks he again stood in the presence of the governor (Jan. 16, 1754), with his message fulfilled to the satisfaction of all. His peculiar qualities, which fitted him for the leadership of the armies of the patriots a quarter of a century afterwards, were nobly developed in this delicate mission. They were publicly acknowledged, and were never forgotten. Washington and his attendants had made such a minute examination of Fort Le Boeuf—its form, size, construction, cannons, and barracks, and the number of canoes in the stream—that he was enabled to construct a plan of it, which was sent to the British government. Major Washington kept a journal of his diplomatic expedition, and this, to arouse the enthusiasm of the people, was published, and was copied into every newspaper in the colonies. It was reprinted in London, and was regarded as a document of great importance, as unfolding the views of the French, and the first announcement of positive proof of their hostile acts in the disputed territory.

Washington, GEORGE, was born in Westmoreland County, Va., near the banks of the Potomac, Feb. 22 (11, O. S.), 1732; died at Mount Vernon, Dec. 14, 1799. He was descended from an old and titled English family, and was the

judicious was her training that Washington, through life, remembered her affectionate care with profound gratitude. He received a common English education, and upon that foundation his naturally thoughtful and right-conditioned



HOUDON'S BUST OF WASHINGTON.†

tioned mind, with the cardinal virtues of truth, integrity, and justice, was built the structure of his greatness. He was always beloved by his young companions, and was invariably chosen the leader in their military plays. He had a desire, at the age of fourteen years, to become a seaman, but was dissuaded from embarking by his mother. When he was seventeen years of age he had become one of the most accurate land-

† There were several different portraits of Washington painted from life. The first ever made was painted by Charles Wilson

Peale, and is a three-quarter length, representing Washington in the costume of a Virginia colonel—a blue coat faced with red, bright metal buttons, having the number of his regiment (Twenty-second Militia) cast upon them, and dark red waistcoat and breeches. Peale painted fourteen portraits of Washington at different times, half-lengths and full-lengths, the last in the fall of 1795. It is in the gallery of the New York Historical Society. Other artists had sittings by Washington, and produced portraits of various degrees of merit, the most famous and best known of whom was Gilbert

Stuart. Stuart painted three portraits from life. The first one he rubbed out, not being satisfied with it, and the last one, the head only finished, is the property of the Boston Athenæum. This is the head most often seen, and has been accepted as the standard portrait of the patriot; yet Stuart himself regarded his own portrait, as a likeness, inferior to that of the statue (see Houdon, *Jean Antoine*), and herewith is given a picture of the finished bust. (See *Richmond, Washington's Statue*, at.)



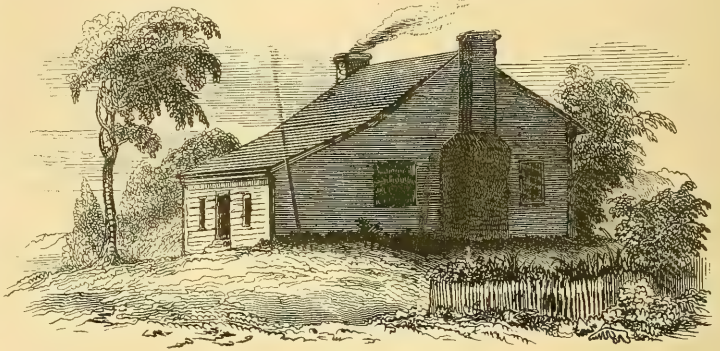
SITE OF WASHINGTON'S BIRTH-PLACE.*

eldest child of his father's second wife, Mary Ball. His father died when George was a small child, and the task of the education and guidance of the future leader through the dangers of youthhood devolved upon his mother. So

* This stone was placed on the site of Washington's birth-place, in 1815, by George Washington Parke Custis and two others. It was the first stone erected to the memory of Washington. They gathered bricks of the ancient chimney lying around, and formed with them a foundation for the inscribed slab.

surveyors in Virginia. He was appointed public surveyor at the age of eighteen. In pursuit of his profession, he learned much of wood craft and the topography of the country; also of the habits of the Indians in the camp and on the war-path. These were useful lessons, of great value to him in after-life. At the age of nineteen young Washington was appointed an adjutant-general of the militia of a district, with the rank of major, but soon afterwards resigned to accompany his invalid half-brother, Lawrence, to Barbadoes, where George had the small-pox. His brother soon afterwards died, and by his will George became heir to the fine estate of Mount Vernon. In 1753 he was sent on a delicate mission, by the Governor of Virginia, to the commander of the French forces making encroachments on the English domain, and performed the duties with

of the vanquished troops with great skill. At the age of twenty-seven he married the young widow Custis (see *Washington, Martha*), and they took up their abode at Mount Vernon, where he pursued the business of a farmer



RESIDENCE OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY. *

until 1774, when he was chosen to a seat in the Virginia Legislature. He was also chosen a delegate to the First Continental Congress (which see), and was a delegate the following year, when, in June, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Continental armies. For eight years Washington directed the feeble armies of the revolted colonies in their struggle for independence. At the return of peace he surrendered his commission into the hands of Congress, who gave it to him, and retired to private life at Mount Vernon, at the close of 1783. During all the national perplexities after the return of peace, incident to financial embarrassments and an imperfect system of government, Washington was still regarded as the public leader; and when the convention that formed the national Constitution assembled at Philadelphia, in 1787, he was there, a delegate from Virginia, and was chosen to preside over that body. When, under that Constitution, a President

of the Republic was to be chosen, all eyes were turned towards Washington as the fittest man



MANSION AT MOUNT VERNON.

great credit, for which he was thanked by the Virginia Legislature. So highly were his character and services valued, that when, in 1755, General Braddock came to make war on the French, Washington was chosen his principal aide-de-camp. After the defeat of Braddock (see *Braddock's Defeat*), he directed the retreat

of the Republic was to be chosen, all eyes were turned towards Washington as the fittest man

* Soon after Washington's birth, the family moved to an estate in Stafford County. The plain farm-house in which they lived overlooked the Rappahannock River. There Washington's father died, when the former was about ten years of age, leaving a plantation to each of his sons.

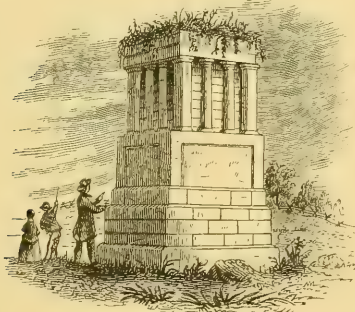
for the place, and he was elected by the unanimous voice of the people. He presided over the affairs of the new nation eight years with great wisdom and fidelity, and with great skill and sagacity assisted in laying the permanent foundations of the Republic. His administration embraced the most critical and eventful portion



ARMS OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY.

of our history before the late Civil War. A new government had to be organized, without any model to follow, and to guide the ship of state through dangerous seas required a loftiness of character in the pilot and commander seldom found, but Washington was equal to the requirements of his position, and he retired from public life without the least stain of merited reproach upon his intentions or his judgment. In the enjoyment of domestic happiness at Mount Vernon, for about three years, he was regarded more and more as the great and good man—the “Father of his Country.” Suddenly, late in the year 1799,

the nation was called upon to mourn his death, after an illness of about twenty-four hours. His last words were, “It is well.” The mother of Washington was Mary Ball—as we have observed—daughter of Colonel W. Ball, to whom his father was married in March, 1730. George was their first-born of six children. With these she was left a widow when her eldest child was little more than ten years of age. In the latter years of her life she lived in Fredericksburg, in a modest house, on the northwest corner of Charles and Lewis streets. There she died, and was buried a short distance from Fredericksburg, near a ledge of rocks, to which she often resorted for meditation, and which she had selected as her burial-



TOMB OF THE MOTHER OF WASHINGTON.

place years before her death. Over the grave stands an unfinished monument of white marble.

Washington in Supreme Command of the Army. The defeat of Gates near Camden (which see) opened the eyes of his partisans in conduct, and the real character of his pre-

tensions and those of Lee were made so apparent that there no longer existed a faction in his favor. Congress yielded to the opinions of Washington in all military matters, and appointed General Greene, on his recommendation, to the command of the Southern Department, subject to the control of the commander-in-chief. Thus Washington became supreme commander of all the forces.

Washington in the Virginia Assembly.

After the capture of Fort Duquesne (which see) Washington took leave of the army at Winchester with the intention of quitting military life. He had been chosen a member of the House of Burgesses of Virginia, and was affianced to the charming widow of Daniel Parke Custis, who was about his own age—twenty-six years. They were wedded at the “White House,” the residence of the bride, on Jan. 17 (N. S.), 1759, by Rev. David Mosson, for forty years rector of St. Peter’s Church, New Kent, near by. Then Washington took his seat in the Assembly at Williamsburg. At about the close of the honeymoon of Washington and his wife the Speaker of the Assembly (Mr. Robinson), rising from his chair, thanked Washington for his public services. The young colonel, surprised and agitated, rose to reply, but could not summon words. His face crimsoned with confusion, when the accomplished speaker adroitly relieved him by saying, “Sit down, Colonel Washington; your modesty is equal to your valor, and that surpasses the power of any language I possess.” The speaker was the father of Beverly Robinson, of New York, at whose house Washington had met and fell in love with his sister-in-law, Mary Phillipse. (See *Washington and Mary Phillipse*.)

Washington, LAWRENCE, was a half-brother of George Washington. His mother, who was



LAWRENCE WASHINGTON.

the first wife of Augustine Washington, father of George, was Jane Butler in her maidenhood.

Lawrence received by his father's will the noble estate of Hunting Creek, upon a bay and stream of that name, not far from Alexandria, and stretching for miles along the Potomac. He inherited the military spirit of his father, and engaged in an expedition against the Spaniards in South America, holding a captain's commission. He embarked for the West Indies in 1741, under General Wentworth. That officer and Admiral Vernon commanded a joint expedition against Carthage, which resulted in disaster, not less than twenty thousand British soldiers and seamen perishing, chiefly from a fatal sickness like yellow-fever. It was in the midst of that terrible pestilence that the seeds of a fatal disease were planted in the system of Lawrence Washington, against which he struggled for years. During the campaign he had gained the confidence of both Wentworth and Vernon. Lawrence intended to go to England and join the regular army, but, falling in love with the beautiful Anne Fairfax, they were married in July, 1743. He took possession of his fine estate, and named it Mount Vernon, in honor of the gallant admiral. Little George was a frequent and much-petted visitor at Mount Vernon. In 1751, when George was nineteen years of age, his brother felt compelled to go to Barbadoes in search of a renovation of his health. George went with him. But consumption was wasting the life of Lawrence, and he returned home in May, 1752, to die in July following, at the age of thirty-four years. By a provision of his will, under certain contingencies, his half-brother George became the owner of the Mount Vernon estate and other property, valued at \$200,000—a large estate at that time.

Washington, MARTHA, was born in New Kent County, Va., in May, 1732; died at Mount Vernon, Va., in May, 1802. Her maiden name was Dandridge, and at the age of seventeen years

une, and dwelt at his mansion, known as the White House, in New Kent County, until her marriage with Colonel Washington in January, 1759. Soon after their marriage they took up their abode at Mount Vernon, on the Potomac. She was a very beautiful woman, a little below the medium size, elegant in person, her eyes dark and expressive of the most kindly good-nature, her complexion fair, and her whole face beamed with intelligence. Her temper, though quick, was sweet and placable, and her manners were extremely winning. She loved the society of her friends, always dressed with scrupulous regard to the requirements of the best fashions of the day, and was in every respect a brilliant member of the social circles which, before the Revolution, composed the vice-regal court at the old Virginia capital. During the war for independence she usually spent the winter months at the headquarters of her husband; and after the war she received with grace and dignity, as the head of the household of the great patriot, the numerous distinguished guests who thronged to Mount Vernon. One of her two children died just as she was blossoming into womanhood; the other, a son, was aide-de-camp to Washington during the war. He died in October, 1781, leaving two children—a son and a daughter—whom Washington adopted as his own. Washington died childless.

Washington, Mrs., at Cambridge. On Dec. 11, 1775, Mrs. Washington arrived at Cambridge, accompanied by her son, John Parke Custis, and his wife. She was very hospitably received and welcomed by the most distinguished families in Massachusetts. The army hailed her presence on this, as on all other occasions, with enthusiasm. She was urged to make the visit and spend some time at headquarters by two motives—one, affection for her husband; and another, because of apprehensions of danger at Mount Vernon on account of the operations of Lord Dunmore. (See *Mount Vernon Threatened*.) The practice of spending the winters in camp with her husband was kept up by Mrs. Washington during the war. Whenever active operations were to commence in the spring, she would return to Mount Vernon. At the time now mentioned she remained at Cambridge until Howe evacuated Boston. Washington's headquarters at Cambridge were in the fine mansion now (1880) and for many years the residence of Longfellow, the poet. (See page 1485.)

Washington, Mrs., RECEPTION OF, AS WIFE OF THE PRESIDENT. The people showed affectionate regard for Mrs. Washington, as the wife of the first President, when she journeyed from Mount Vernon to New York to join her husband there after the inauguration. She left Mount Vernon in her chaise on May 19, 1789, with her two grandchildren, George Washington Parke and Eleanor Parke Custis. She was clothed tidily in American textile manufactures. She lodged at Baltimore on the first night of her journey. When she approached that city she was met by a cavalcade of gentlemen and escorted into the town. Fireworks were dis-



MARTHA WASHINGTON.

she married Daniel Parke Custis, son of one of the king's council for Virginia. At his death she was left with two children and a large fort-

played in her honor, and a band of music serenaded her in the evening. When she approached Philadelphia she was met, ten miles from the city, by the President of the state, the Speaker of the Assembly, a troop of dragoons, and a large cavalcade of citizens. Some distance from the city she was welcomed by a brilliant company of women in carriages. She was escorted by these gentlemen and ladies to Gray's Ferry, on the Schuylkill, where they all partook of a collation; and from that point to the city Mrs. Robert Morris occupied a seat by the side of Mrs. Washington.

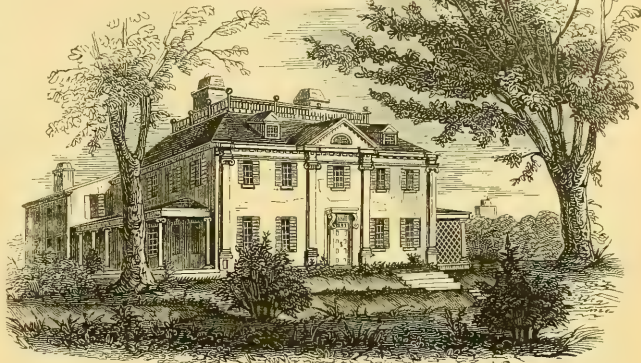
When the procession entered the city the wife of the President was greeted by thirteen discharges of cannons. She journeyed on to New York. At Elizabethtown Point she was received by her husband, Robert Morris, and several distinguished gentlemen, in the splendid barge in which Washington had been conveyed from the same place to New York a month before. It was manned by thirteen sailors. When the barge approached Whitehall, the landing-place in New York, crowds of citizens were there assembled, who greeted Mrs.

Washington with cheers, and from the grand battery near by the thunders of thirteen cannons gave her a welcome. In all this there was nothing very extravagant, considering the circumstances. Yet there were sturdy republicans who viewed the pageantry with suspicion, believing that they saw in this a foreshowing of monarchical ceremonies. (See *Presidential Etiquette* and *Presidential Titles*.)

Washington, MONUMENT IN HONOR OF. Congress having, on hearing of the death of Washington, decreed that a monument to his memory should be erected at the capital, the subject was discussed early in the session of 1800-1. Attention was called during the debate to the resolution of Congress at the close of the Revolution to procure an equestrian statue. The bill for a mausoleum finally passed, the House appropriating \$200,000. The Senate cut it down to \$150,000, and in the hurry at the closing of the session it was overlooked. There was an overwhelming majority of the political opponents of Washington in the next Congress, and the matter was not again brought up. The resolution of Congress in December, 1799, has not been acted upon.

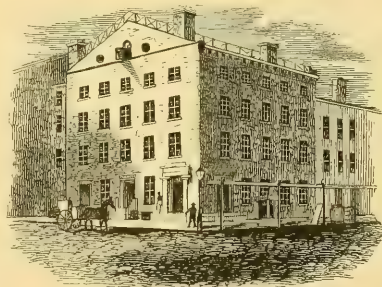
Washington, PARTING OF, WITH HIS OFFICERS. On Dec. 4, 1783, Washington assembled his officers who were near in the large public room of Fraunce's Tavern, corner of Broad and Pearl streets, New York, to exchange farewells with them. After the officers had assembled Washington entered the room, and, taking a glass of wine in his hand, said, "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter

days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." Having tasted the wine, he continued, "I cannot come to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged to you if each will come and take me by the hand." The scene was touching and impressive. While their cheeks were suffused with tears Washington kissed



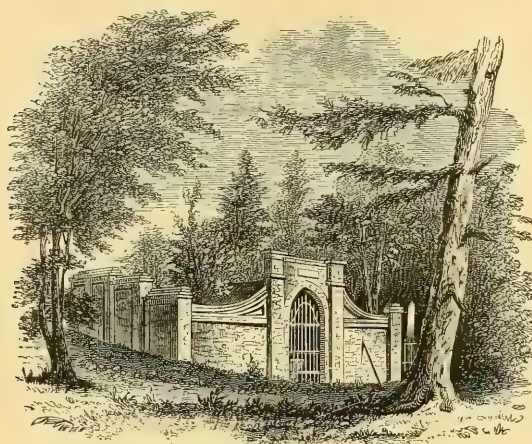
WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT CAMBRIDGE.

each of his beloved companions-in-arms on the forehead. Then the commander-in-chief left the room, and, passing through a corps of light infantry, walked to Whitehall (now Staten Island) Ferry, followed by a vast procession of citizens. At two o'clock in the afternoon he entered a barge and crossed the Hudson to Paulus's Hook (now Jersey City), on his way to the presence of the Congress at Annapolis.



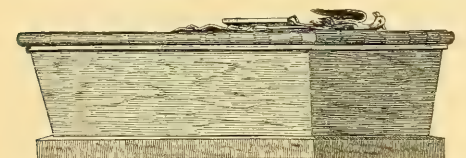
FRAUNCE'S TAVERN.

Washington, POSTHUMOUS HONORS TO. On the 29th of December, 1799, John Marshall arose in Congress (then in session in Philadelphia) and reiterated the announcement he had made the day before of the death of Washington, accompanied by a brief speech; whereupon the national Legislature, by resolutions, decreed—1. That a marble monument should be erected to his memory at the capital; 2. That there should be "a funeral procession from Congress Hall to the German Lutheran Church," in memory of the deceased, on Thursday, the 26th inst., and



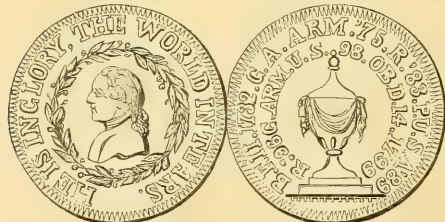
WASHINGTON'S NEW FAMILY VAULT.

that an oration be delivered on that day before both Houses; 3. That the people of the United States should be recommended to wear crape on their left arms as mourning for thirty days; 4. That the President of the United States should direct a copy of the resolutions to be transmitted to Mrs. Washington, with words of condolence, and a request that the remains of her



THE SARCOPHAGUS OF WASHINGTON.

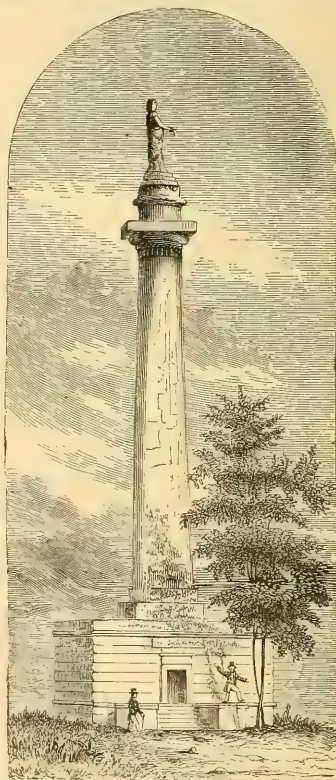
husband might be interred at the capital of the Republic. Seven days later Congress resolved that it should be recommended to the people of the Union to assemble on the succeeding 22d of February (Washington's birthday) to testify their grief by suitable eulogies, orations, and discourses, or by public prayers. General Henry Lee, of Virginia, then a member of Congress, was chosen to deliver the funeral discourse before that body in the Lutheran Church in Philadelphia. Legislative and other public bodies, as well as private associations, testified their reverence and affection for the deceased patriot. Manifestations of esteem came from beyond the sea. On hearing of Washington's death, Lord



WASHINGTON MEDAL.

Bridport, in command of a British fleet of about sixty sail at Torbay, ordered every ship

to lower her flag to half-mast; and Bouaparte, then First Consul of France, announced his death to the army, and ordered black crape to be suspended from all the flags and standards in the French service for ten days. A funeral oration was also pronounced before the First Consul and civil authorities. The monument has never been erected at the capital; nor have Washington's remains ever been removed from his beloved Mount Vernon. They rest there, by the side of those of his wife, in a new tomb, each inclosed in a marble coffin. That is well. In the city of Baltimore a Doric column of white marble was erected to his memory by the State of Maryland, the corner-stone of which was laid in 1815. It is composed of a base of marble fifty feet square and twenty feet in height, surmounted by a Doric column one hundred and sixty feet in height. Upon the top of the capital is a statue of Washington, by Causici, sixteen feet in height, which is reached by a winding stairway in the interior. Statues of the patriot have been erected in several cities.



WASHINGTON MONUMENT.

The Washington monument in Washington, D. C., was completed in 1884. It is 555 feet high above the foundations, being the loftiest piece of masonry in the world. Its cost was \$1,200,000.

Washington, PROPOSAL TO MAKE HIM KING. With returning peace, the prospects of the Continental army, about to be disbanded, appeared very gloomy. For a long time neither officers nor private soldiers had received any pay, for the Treasury was empty, and there appeared very little assurance that its condition would be improved. There was wide-spread discontent in the army, and also wide-spread distress throughout the country. Contemplating the inherent weakness of the new government, many were inclined to consider it a normal condition of the republican form, and wished for a stronger one, like that of Great Britain. This feeling became so manifest in the army that Colonel Nicola, a foreigner by birth, and of weighty character, commanding a Pennsylvania regiment, wrote a reprehensible letter to Washington in May, 1782, in which, professing to speak for the army, he urged the necessity of a monarchy to secure an efficient government and the rights of the people for the Americans. He proposed to Washington to accept the headship of such a government, with the title of king, and assured him that the army would support him. Nicola received from the patriot a stern rebuke. "If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself," he wrote, "you could not have found a person to whom your schemes are more disagreeable." If there was then a budding conspiracy to overthrow the inchoate Republic, it was effectually crushed in the germ.

Washington, RECEPTION OF, AT NEW YORK. From Alexandria to New York, Washington's journey exhibited a continual ovation. After his reception by the ladies of Trenton, he crossed New Jersey, and at Elizabethtown Point he was met early in the morning (April 23, 1789) by a committee of both Houses of Congress, with whom were Jay, the Secretary of State; General Knox, Secretary of War; Samuel Osgood, Arthur Lee, and Walter Livingston, Commissioners of the Treasury; and Ebenezer Hazard, Postmaster-general. A splendid barge, manned by thirteen pilots in white uniform, had been fitted up for the occasion, to convey the President-elect to New York. As the barge approached the city a large procession of boats filled with gayly dressed ladies accompanied by gentlemen, which had been swarming on the bosom of the harbor, followed. Washington was welcomed by a salute of great guns on the battery and the shipping, and was received at the ferry stairs, Whitehall (which were appropriately decked), by Governor George Clinton, with the civil officers of the state and city and a vast concourse of citizens. A large detachment of city militia formed under a salute of cannons and escorted the President-elect to a house on Franklin Square which had been fitted up for him. Washington was entertained at dinner by Governor Clinton, and the evening was closed by a brilliant display of fireworks. Even this modest display of regard for the elected chief-magistrate of the nation was regarded with suspicion by radical anti-federalists, who were jealous of every appearance of aristocracy or of hero-worship, and they appeared like ravens among white

doves on the joyous occasion, croaking their displeasure and disturbing the harmony. On the day after Washington's arrival a caricature appeared, charged with bitter feeling, in which the President was seen mounted on an ass, in the arms of Billy, his body-servant, Colonel David Humphreys, who accompanied him from Mount Vernon, leading the jack and chanting hosannahs and birthday odes. The picture was full of disloyal and profane allusions. The devil appeared prominent, and from his mouth issued the words:

"The glorious time has come at last
When David shall conduct an ass."

The public reception of Mrs. Washington, who arrived about a month after the advent of her husband, and was met by the President and other officials at Elizabethtown Point, and received, as she passed the Battery, a salute of thirteen guns, and was welcomed by a crowd at the landing-place, was ill-naturedly commented upon in the opposition press.

Washington, RECEPTION OF, AT TRENTON. Twelve years after he won the victory at Trenton (which see), Washington crossed the Delaware at that place, on his way to be inaugurated President of the United States. At the bridge spanning the Assanpink at that town (the same bridge crossed by him when pursued by Cornwallis on the eve of the battle at Princeton) he met a touching reception. A triumphal arch had been erected by the citizens, bearing the words, "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters." Beneath it was assembled a party of matrons, with little girls dressed in white, and holding baskets of flowers in their hands, standing on one side, and on the other were young ladies similarly arranged. As Washington and his suite approached the arch to pass between these matrons and maids, the little girls began to strew flowers in his way, and the whole company sang the following ode, written by Governor Howell for the occasion:

"Welcome, mighty chief, once more
Welcome to this grateful shore.
Now no mercenary foe
Aims again the fatal blow—
Aims at THEE the fatal blow.

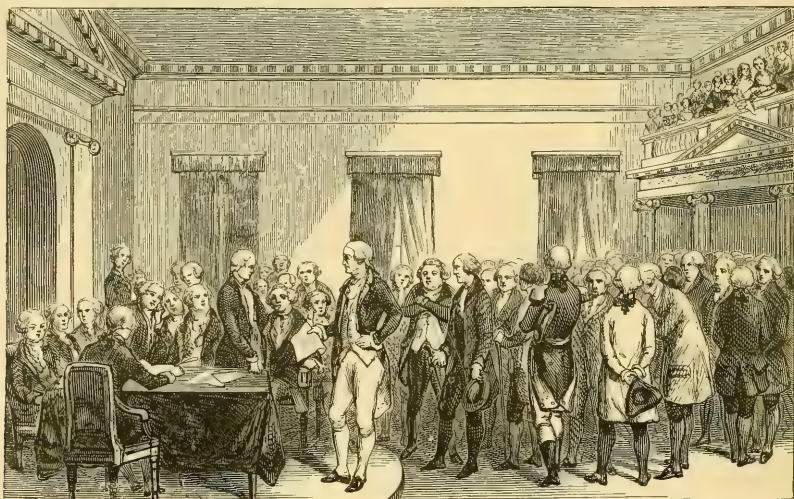
"Virgins fair and matrons grave,
Those thy conquering arm did save,
Build for THEE triumphal bowers.
Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers—
Strew your HERO'S way with flowers!"

After passing the arch the general turned his horse's head towards the choir and listened to the singing with great emotion. Then he sent a note of thanks to the ladies.

Washington, RESIGNATION OF COMMISSION OF. After parting with his officers at New York (which see), Washington proceeded to Philadelphia, where he deposited in the office of the comptroller an account of his expenses during the war, amounting to (including that spent for secret service) \$64,315. Then he went on to Annapolis, where the Congress was in session, and, at noon, Dec. 23, 1783, he entered the Senate-chamber of the Maryland State-house, accord-

ing to previous arrangements, and delivered to General Mifflin, President of that body, his commission, which he had received from it in June, 1775. In so doing, the commander-in-chief delivered a brief speech, with much feeling. Mifflin made an eloquent reply, and closed by say-

illustrious, and that he will give you that reward which the world cannot give." Washington and his wife set out for Mount Vernon on the day before Christmas, where he was welcomed back to private life by the greetings of his family and flocks of colored servants.

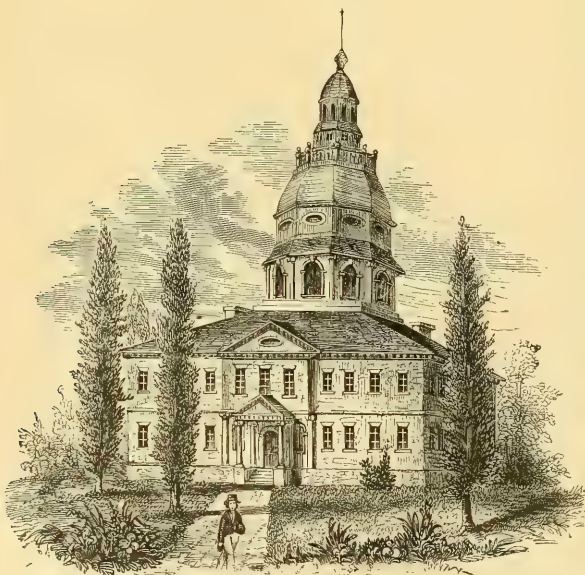


WASHINGTON RESIGNING HIS COMMISSION.

ing: "We join you in commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching him to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for you, we address to him our earnest prayers that a life so beloved may be fostered with all his care; that your days may be as happy as they have been

Washington Takes Command of the Army.

The commander-in-chief of the Continental army left Philadelphia on the 21st of June, and arrived at Cambridge on the 2d of July. He was everywhere greeted with enthusiasm on the way. His arrival in New York was on the same day that Governor Tryon arrived from England, and the same escort received both. On the morning of the 3d of July, at about nine o'clock, the troops were drawn up in order upon the Common, at Cambridge, to receive the commander-in-chief. Accompanied by the general officers of the army who were present, Washington walked from his headquarters to a great elm-tree, yet (1880) standing, at the north side of the Common, and, under its shadow, stepped forward a few paces, made some remarks, drew his sword, and formally took command of the Continental army.



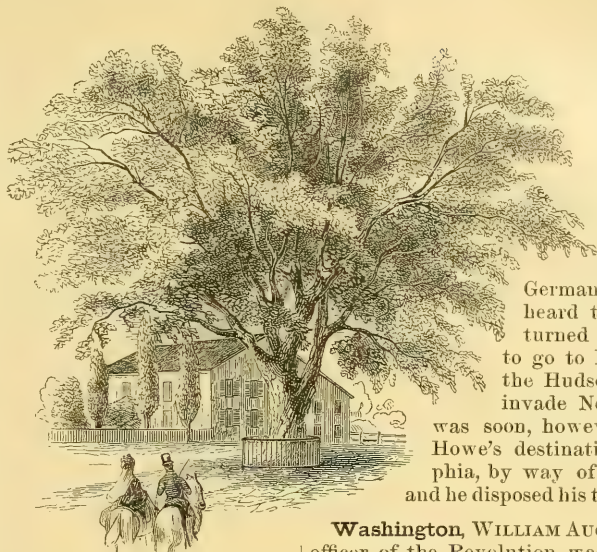
THE STATE-HOUSE AT ANNAPOLIS.

Washington, THE STATE OF.

Washington Territory was originally a part of Oregon, and was the most Northwestern portion of the Republic until Alaska was purchased. It is bounded on the north by Canada. The first American settlement in the limits of the State was at Tumwater, in 1845, by a few families who had crossed the plains. Before that the only white dwellers were employes of the Hudson's Bay Company. Washington Territory was set apart from Oregon by act of Congress, March 2, 1853. When Or

regon became a State, Feb. 14, 1859 (see *Oregon*), Congress added to Washington Territory the region between the eastern boundary of that state and the Rocky Mountains, embracing the present state of Idaho and parts of Montana and Wyoming. The San Juan Islands, formerly claimed by Great Britain, were decided, in 1872, by the arbitration of the Emperor of Germany, to belong to the United States. Washington was admitted as a state in 1889. Olympia is the capital. The population in 1890 was 349,390.

Washington Watching the British. The American commander learned from spies in New York of the embarkation of Howe's army, but could not tell whether its destination was the Hudson or the Delaware River. Informed that Burgoyne was at the foot of Lake Champlain, he thought it possible Howe might go to



THE WASHINGTON ELM. (See p. 1483.)



WILLIAM AUGUSTINE WASHINGTON.

Boston, and so, keeping New England troops from reinforcing Schuyler, might assist Burgoyne in his invasion of the Hudson valley. With these impressions, Washington moved his forces slowly towards the Hudson, exercising the utmost vigilance at all points. But when he found that the British fleet had gone to sea, he fell back towards the Delaware, on which

Arnold, in command of Philadelphia, was busy, with General Mifflin, in casting up defences. Presently news came (June 30) that the fleet had been seen off Cape May, when Washington advanced to Germantown. There he heard that the fleet had turned eastward, perhaps to go to New York and up the Hudson, or, perhaps, to invade New England. He was soon, however, certified that Howe's destination was Philadelphia, by way of Chesapeake Bay, and he disposed his troops accordingly.

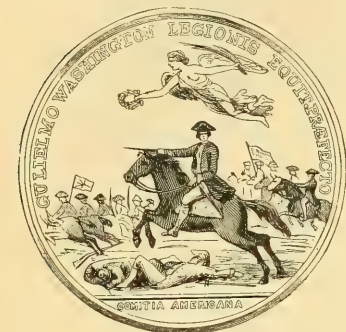
Washington, WILLIAM AUGUSTINE, a cavalry officer of the Revolution, was born in Stafford County, Va., Feb. 28, 1752; died in Charleston, S. C., March 6, 1810. His father was Bailly Washington, a kinsman of the general, and he designed William for the church. He entered the military service early in the war for independence, becoming a captain in the Virginia line under Mercer. He was in the battle on Long Island, and was badly wounded at Trenton, but engaged in the battle at Princeton. Lieutenant-colonel of Baylor's dragoons (which see), he was with them when surprised at Tappan. In 1779-80 he was very active in South Carolina, in connection with General Morgan, and for his valor at the Cowpens Congress gave him thanks and a silver medal (see p. 1490). In Greene's famous retreat (which see) Colonel Washington was very efficient; so, also, was he at the battles of Hobkirk's Hill and Eutaw Springs. At the latter place he was made prisoner and remained so until the close of the war, when he married and settled in Charleston. He was tall, strong, and active in person, quiet and taciturn in deportment, and was remarkable for his generosity and benevolence.

Washington's Acceptance of the Chief Command. On June 15, 1775, George Washington, a member of Congress from Virginia, was nominated by Thomas Johnson, a member from Maryland, as commander-in-chief of the Continental army, and was chosen, unanimously, by ballot. On the opening of the Senate the next day, the President officially communicated to him a notice of his appointment. Washington immediately arose in his place and made the following reply: "Mr. President, though I am truly sensible of the high honor done me in this appointment, yet I feel great distress from a consciousness that my abilities and military experience may not be equal to the extensive and important trust. However, as the Congress desires it, I will enter upon the momentous duty, and exert every power I possess in their service and for the support of the glorious cause. I

beg they will accept my most cordial thanks for this distinguished testimony of their approbation. But, lest some unlucky event should happen, unfavorable to my reputation, I beg it may be remembered by every gentleman in the room that I this day declare, with the utmost sincerity, I do not think myself equal to the

not fail to implore the divine benediction upon it."

Washington's Birthday (1861). The Virginians were dictatorial in their intercourse with the government at Washington at the beginning of 1861. They had seen preparations made by General Scott for the security of the capital, and complained of it as an insulting distrust of the good faith of the people of that commonwealth and Maryland. Ex-President Tyler went so far as to give President Buchanan to understand that the appearance of National troops, as usual, as participants in the celebration of Washington's birthday, at that time, would be offensive to the Virginians and unfavorable to the harmony of



SILVER MEDAL AWARDED TO WILLIAM WASHINGTON. (See p. 1489.)

command I am honored with. As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the Congress that, as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept the arduous employment, at the expense of domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. These, I doubt not, they will discharge, and that is all I desire." The Congress, by unanimous vote, resolved that they would maintain and assist the commander-in-chief, and adhere to him, with their lives and fortunes, in the cause of American liberty.

Washington's Address to the Governors of States. On June 8, 1783, Washington addressed a circular letter to the governors of each of the United States, which was (like his Farewell Address, issued thirteen years afterwards), an earnest plea for union. In this paternal and affectionate address, the commander-in-chief of the armies stated four things which he deemed to be essential to their well-being, and even to their very existence—namely, "An indissoluble union of the states under one general head; a sacred regard to public justice; the adoption of a proper peace establishment, and the prevalence of that pacific policy and friendly disposition among the people of the United States which would induce them to forget their local prejudices and politics, to make those mutual concessions which are requisite to the general prosperity, and, in some instances, to sacrifice their individual advantages to the interests of the community." "These," he said, "are the pillars on which the glorious fabric of our independence and national character must be supported." The commander-in-chief requested each governor to whom the address was sent to lay it before his legislature at its next session, that the sentiments might be considered as "the legacy of one who ardently wished, on all occasions, to be useful to his country, and who, even in the shade of retirement, would

the Peace Congress, then in session. They did participate, and for this offence the President, under date of Feb. 22, 1861, wrote an apologetic letter to Tyler, saying: "I found it impossible to prevent two or three companies of the Federal troops from joining in the procession to-day, with the volunteers of the district, without giving serious offence to the tens of thousands of people who have assembled to witness the parade. . . . The troops everywhere else join such processions in honor of the birthday of the Father of his Country, and it would be hard to assign a good reason why they should be excluded from the privilege in the capital founded by himself. They are here simply as a *posse comitatus*, to aid the civil authorities in case of need. Besides, the programme was published in the *National Intelligencer* of this morning, without my personal knowledge."

Washington's Birthday, FIRST CELEBRATIONS OF. The earliest celebration of Washington's birthday found on record occurred in Richmond, Va., Feb. 11 (O. S.), 1782. The *Virginia Gazette*, or the *American Advertiser* made the following record, four days after the event: "Tuesday last, being the birthday of his Excellency, General Washington, our illustrious commander-in-chief, the same was commemorated here with the utmost demonstrations of joy." The event was celebrated at Talbot Courthouse, Md., the next year. Leading citizens assembled at Cambridge, where a public dinner was provided, at which the following regular toasts were drunk: "1. General Washington—long may he live!—the boasted hero of liberty; 2. Congress; 3. Governor and State of Maryland; 4. Louis XVI.—the protector of the rights of mankind; 5. Continental army; 6. Maryland Line; 7. May trade and navigation flourish; 8. The seven United Provinces [Holland], our allies; 9. The Count de Rochambeau and French army; 10. May the union between the powers in alliance ever continue on the basis of justice

and equality; 11. May the friends of freedom prove the sons of virtue; 12. Conversion to the unnatural sons of America; 13. May the Union of the American states be perpetual." The day was celebrated in New York in 1784. It was celebrated there and in other places on the 11th of February, each year, until 1793, when the day was changed to the 22d of February, to adapt it to the new style. (See *Style, Old and New*.) During the first term of the Presidency of Washington, his birthday began to be celebrated by visits of congratulation, and by balls, parties, and other festivities, not only in Philadelphia, but in many of the principal cities and towns in the Union. The Republican party professed to be alarmed by this "step in the direction of monarchy."

Washington's Farewell to Congress. Just before Washington's departure from Philadelphia to take command of the army at Cambridge, the members of Congress gave a farewell supper at the City Tavern in his honor, at which several distinguished citizens of Philadelphia "assisted." Members of Congress and their guests all rose, as they drank a health "to the commander-in-chief of the American army," to which Washington modestly replied. The next day (June 23) he was escorted out of the city of Philadelphia by the Massachusetts delegation and others, with music, a cavalcade of citizens, a troop of light horse in uniform, and officers of the militia.

Washington's Farewells. On the 12th of June, 1783, the commander-in-chief addressed a farewell letter to the governors of the states, in which he urged oblivion of local prejudices and policies, indissoluble union, a proper peace establishment, and a sacred regard to public justice—that is to say, provision for the payment of the public debt. In October (1783) the Congress published a proclamation for the disbanding of the Continental troops yet in the field and on furlough. On the day previous to that appointed for the disbandment (Nov. 2) Washington issued farewell orders to the army. In September, 1796, when he had determined not to accept a nomination for the Presidency of the United States for the third time, he issued that notable Farewell Address to the people of the Union, which is universally regarded as a most precious legacy for the nation.

Washington's Flight across New Jersey (1776). After the battle at White Plains (which see) New Jersey seemed to be threatened, and all the troops from states south of the Hudson were ordered to the west of that river, whither the headquarters of Washington were also transferred. To avoid the British ships in the Hudson, the Americans marched up its eastern shore to King's Ferry (now Stony Point), making a circuit of sixty miles, much of it over a broken country. General Heath's division was left in the Hudson Highlands to guard their passes and to cast up additional fortifications there, while General Lee, with the remainder of the New England regiments, was left to guard the east side of the Hudson. The term of the New

England militia—was about to expire. Washington encamped his troops at Hackensack, N. J., whence, after the fall of Fort Mifflin (Nov. 16, 1776), and the passage of the Hudson by a large British force under Lord Cornwallis, he marched towards the Delaware, having first covered the retreat of the garrison of two thousand men from Fort Mifflin (see *Fort Mifflin, Capture of*), for the destination of the British was believed to be Philadelphia, the seat of the Continental government. Before his march he ordered General Lee to cross the Hudson immediately and join him, but that officer, traitorously inclined, refused to obey, and loitered so far behind as to give the commander-in-chief no strength. The "protections" held by New-Jersey men were so numerous that he could not recruit them for his army, and his march was a most fatiguing and anxious one. During the twelve days that Washington was making his way to the Delaware, he was so closely pursued by Cornwallis that often the rear-guard of the Americans could hear the music of the vanguard of the British. At New Brunswick Washington destroyed a part of the bridge over the Raritan, cannonaded the pursuers, and, pushing on towards the Delaware, left Lord Stirling at Princeton with twelve hundred troops. On reaching the Delaware, at Trenton, he sent his baggage, stores, and sick across the river into Pennsylvania, and turned back. But meeting Stirling flying before Cornwallis, who had just been reinforced, he fell back to the Delaware and crossed it with his whole force Dec. 8. His army had decreased at almost every step of the way across New Jersey. The patriotism of that state seemed to be paralyzed by the effects of the British proclamation of protection. When the British troops reached Trenton, Washington's little army had destroyed all the boats on the Delaware and its tributaries along a line of seventy miles.

Washington's Immunity from Personal Injury. During his whole military career Washington never received the slightest personal injury. In the desperate battle on the Monongahela (which see) where Braddock was mortally wounded, Washington was the only officer unhurt. To his mother he wrote: "I luckily escaped without a wound, though I had four bullets through my coat and two horses shot under me." To his brother John he wrote: "By the all-powerful dispensation of Providence I have been protected beyond all human probability or expectation. Death was levelling my companions on every side." In that battle an Indian chief singled Washington out for death by his rifle, but could not hit him. Fifteen years afterwards, when Washington was in the Ohio country, this chief travelled many miles to see the man who he and his followers, who tried to shoot him, were satisfied was under the protection of the Great Spirit. He said he had a dozen fair shots at him, but could not hit him.

Washington's Order on Swearing. In an order-book in the handwriting of Washington, which came into the possession of Professor R.

W. Weir, instructor of drawing in the West Point Military Academy, and which he deposited in the archives of the War Department at the national capital in 1873, may be found the following order, closely written by the commander-in-chief's own hand:

confederation. Washington had taken the broad ground, from the moment of the Declaration of Independence, that the thirteen states composed a common country under the title of the United States of America; but Congress and the people were not prepared to accept this broad national

Many and pointed orders have been issued against that unbecoming and abominable custom of swearing - notwithstanding, as I think, with much regret the General observes that it prevails if possible, more than ever. His feelings are continually wounded by the oaths and imprecations of the soldiers whenever he is in hearing of them. The name of that Being from whose bountiful goodness we are permitted to exist and enjoy the comforts of life is ineptantly imprecated and profaned in a manner as wanton as it is shocking. For the sake therefore of religion, decency, and order, the General hopes and trusts that officers of every rank will use their influence and authority to check a vice which is as unprofitable as it is wicked and shameful. If officers would make it an invariable rule to reprimand and, if that does not do, punish soldiers for offences of this kind, it could not fail of having the desired effect.

WASHINGTON'S ORDER AGAINST PROFANITY

Washington's Proclamation and State Supremacy. Under the latest proclamation of the brothers Howe, 2703 persons in New Jersey, 851 in Rhode Island, and 1282 in the city of New York and the rural districts subscribed a declaration of fidelity to the British king. Just before the limited time for the operation of this proclamation expired, Lord George Germain issued orders to the Howes not to let "the undeserving escape that punishment which is due to their crimes, and which it will be expedient to inflict for the sake of example to futurity." At about the same time Washington issued a proclamation from Morristown, N. J. (Jan. 25, 1777), in the name of the United States, that those who had accepted British protection "should withdraw within the enemy's lines, or take the oath of allegiance to the United States of America." There immediately arose "a conflict of sovereignties." Clark, a representative in Congress from New Jersey, declared that an oath of allegiance to the United States was absurd before

view. Each state assumed the right only to outlaw those of its inhabitants who refused allegiance to its single self, as if the Virginian owed fealty only to Virginia, or the Marylander to Maryland.

Washington's Second Term. President Washington strongly desired to retire to private life at the close of his first term as President of the United States. The public more strongly desired his continuance in office. It was a critical time in the life of the Republic, and he patriotically yielded to what seemed to be the demands of public interests, and became a candidate for re-election. The lines between the two political parties in the nation were now (1792) distinctly drawn. Opposition to the funding system was substituted for opposition to the Constitution. Both parties were in favor of the re-election of Washington, but divided on the question of who should be Vice-President. The opposition (Republicans) concentrated their votes on George Clinton; the Federalists sup-

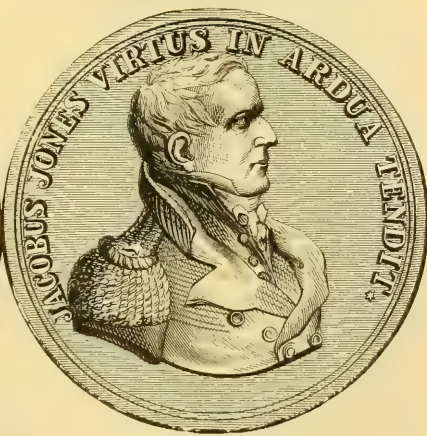
ported John Adams. Washington received the unanimous vote of the Electoral College, the members of that body then numbering one hundred and thirty. Adams received seventy-seven votes and Clinton fifty. The Kentucky electors voted for Jefferson for Vice-President, and one of the South Carolina votes was given to Aaron Burr.

Washington's Southern Tour. Soon after the adjournment of Congress, March, 1791, Washington started on a three months' tour through the Southern States to make himself better acquainted with the people and their wants, and to observe the workings of the new system of government. He found that the opposition to the national Constitution so strongly shown in that region had assumed the character of opposition to the administration, and his reception was not so warm as it had been during his tour in New England. He stopped a few days on the Potomac, and selected the site for the national capital. His course lay through Virginia by way of Richmond into North Carolina, and by a curved route to Charleston, S. C. He extended it to Savannah, Ga., whence he ascended the right bank of the Savannah River to Augusta; and, turning his face homeward, passed through Columbia and the interior of North Carolina and Virginia. The journey of one thousand eight hundred and eighty-seven miles was made with the same pair of horses.

Washington's Tour in New England. Soon after the adjournment of Congress, Sept. 29, 1789, Washington, who had been very ill in the summer, made a tour in New England, setting out from New York Oct. 15. Rhode Island, not having adopted the new Constitution, was not a member of the Union, and the President did not set foot on its soil, but reached Boston by way of Hartford, Springfield, and Worcester, ar-

tion to Washington, before the arrival of the latter, to lodge at his house. It was declined. After the arrival of the President, the governor sent him an invitation to dine with him and his family that day informally at the conclusion of the reception ceremonies. Washington accepted it, with a full persuasion that the governor would call upon him before the dinner-hour. The governor stood upon his dignity, and did not call. He had taken this method of asserting his superiority by having the President visit him first. The dinner-hour approached and Washington did not appear. Evidently beginning to be doubtful whether his course was correct, Hancock sent his secretary to the President with the excuse that he was too ill to call upon the President in person. The latter, divining the cause of the indisposition, dined at his own lodgings. That evening the lieutenant-governor and two of the Council called to express the governor's regret that his illness had not allowed him to call upon the President. The latter informed them that he should not see the governor except at his lodgings. The next day (Sunday) Hancock, leaving his gout at home, called on Washington, and in person gave his insufficient excuse for his foolish exhibition of personal pride. Washington extended his visit eastward as far as Portsmouth, N. H., where he sat for his portrait to a painter named Gulligher, who had followed him from Boston. From that town he took a more northerly route through New England back to Hartford, where he procured cloth, manufactured there, for a suit of clothes, and arrived at New York Nov. 13.

Wasp and Frolic, THE. The sloop-of-war *Wasp*, 18 guns, Captain Jacob Jones, thoroughly manned and equipped, carrying sixteen 32-pound carronades and two long 12-pounders, with two small brass cannons in her tops, left



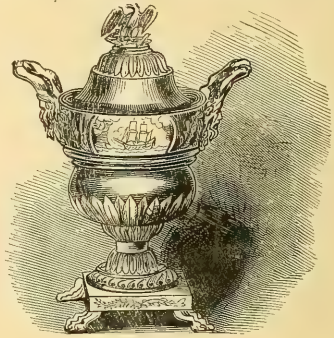
GOLD MEDAL AWARDED BY CONGRESS TO CAPTAIN JONES.

iving there on Saturday, Oct. 24. John Hancock was then governor of Massachusetts, and regarded himself, in his own state at least, as the peer of the President of the United States, if not his official superior. Hancock sent an invita-

tion to Washington, before the arrival of the latter, to lodge at his house. It was declined. After the arrival of the President, the governor sent him an invitation to dine with him and his family that day informally at the conclusion of the reception ceremonies. Washington accepted it, with a full persuasion that the governor would call upon him before the dinner-hour. The governor stood upon his dignity, and did not call. He had taken this method of asserting his superiority by having the President visit him first. The dinner-hour approached and Washington did not appear. Evidently beginning to be doubtful whether his course was correct, Hancock sent his secretary to the President with the excuse that he was too ill to call upon the President in person. The latter, divining the cause of the indisposition, dined at his own lodgings. That evening the lieutenant-governor and two of the Council called to express the governor's regret that his illness had not allowed him to call upon the President. The latter informed them that he should not see the governor except at his lodgings. The next day (Sunday) Hancock, leaving his gout at home, called on Washington, and in person gave his insufficient excuse for his foolish exhibition of personal pride. Washington extended his visit eastward as far as Portsmouth, N. H., where he sat for his portrait to a painter named Gulligher, who had followed him from Boston. From that town he took a more northerly route through New England back to Hartford, where he procured cloth, manufactured there, for a suit of clothes, and arrived at New York Nov. 13.

Jones saw several sail of vessels, and ran parallel with them until the dawn, when he discovered that it was a fleet of armed merchant-vessels convoyed by the British sloop-of-war *Frolic*, Captain T. Whinyates, mounting sixteen 32-pound carronades, two long 6-pounders, and two 12-pounder carronades on her fore-castle. She was manned by a crew of one hundred and eight persons. It was Sunday morning, Oct. 18, in latitude 37° N., and longitude 65° W. The *Frolic* took a position for battle so as to allow the merchantmen to escape during the fight. A severe engagement began at half-past ten in the morning. Within five minutes the main top-gallant-mast of the *Wasp* was shot away and fell among the rigging, rendering a portion of it unmanageable during the remainder of the action. Three minutes afterwards her gaff and main topmast were shot away, and at twenty minutes from the opening of the engagement every brace and most of the rigging were disabled. Her condition was forlorn. But while the *Wasp* was thus suffering, she had inflicted more serious injury to the hull of the *Frolic*. The two vessels gradually approached each other, fell foul, the bowsprit of the *Frolic* passing in over the quarter-deck of the *Wasp*, and forcing her bows up in the wind. This enabled the latter to give the *Frolic* a raking broadside with terrible effect. With wild shouts the crew of the *Wasp* now leaped into the entangled rigging, and made their way to the deck of the *Frolic*. But there was no one to oppose them. The last broadside had carried death and dismay into the *Frolic*, and almost cleared the deck of effective men. All who were able had escaped below to avoid the raking fire of the *Wasp*. The English officers on deck, nearly all of them bleeding from wounds, cast their swords in submission before Lieutenant Biddle, who led the boarding-party. He sprang into the rigging, and with his own hand struck the colors of the *Frolic*. The contest lasted forty-five minutes, and the aggregate loss of the *Frolic* in killed and wounded was ninety men. The *Wasp* had only five men killed and five wounded. Jones placed Lieutenant Biddle in command of the *Frolic*, with orders to take her into Charleston, S. C., and when they were about to part company the British ship-of-war *Poictiers*, 74 guns, Captain J. P. Beresford, bore down upon them. The *Wasp* and her prize were not in a condition to flee or fight, and within two hours after he had gained his victory Jones was compelled to surrender both vessels. They were taken to Bermuda, where the American prisoners were exchanged. The victory of the *Wasp* over the *Frolic* caused much exultation in the United States. Jones was lauded in speeches and songs. The authorities of New York voted him a sword and the "freedom of the city." Congress voted him thanks and a gold medal, and appropriated \$25,000 to Jones and his company as compensation for their loss of prize-money. A silver medal was given to each of his officers. The captain was promoted to the command of the frigate *Macedonian*, captured from the British by Decatur. The Legislature of Pennsylvania voted

Lieutenant Biddle thanks and a sword; and leading men of Philadelphia gave him a silver urn. He was soon afterwards appointed to the



THE BIDDLE URN.

command of the *Hornet* sloop-of-war. This victory was celebrated by songs, and also by caricatures. One of the songs became very popular, and was sung at all public gatherings. In it occurred the following lines:

"The foe bravely fought, but his arms were all broken,
And he fled from his death-wound aghast and affrighted;
But the *Wasp* darted forward her death doing sting,
And full on his bosom, like lightning, alighted.
She pierced through his entrails, she maddened his brain,
And he writhed and he groaned as if torn with the colic;
And long shall John Bull rue the terrible day
He met the American *Wasp* on a *Frolic*."

Among the caricatures was one by Charles, of Philadelphia, of which a reduced copy is here given. Under it were the following words:

"A *Wasp* took a *Frolic* and met Johnny Bull,
Who always fights best when his belly is full.
The *Wasp* thought him hungry by his mouth open wide,
So, his belly to fill, put a sting in his side."



A WASP ON A FROLIC.

Wasp, CRUISE OF THE (1814). On the 1st of May, 1814, the American sloop-of-war *Wasp*, 18 guns, Captain Johnston Blakeley, left the harbor of Portsmouth, N. H., and soon appeared in the chops of the British Channel, where she

spread terror among the British merchant-ships and the people of the seaport towns. Painful recollections of the ravages of the *Argus* were revived. On the morning of June 28, while some distance at sea, the *Wasp* was chased by two vessels. They were soon joined by a third, which displayed English colors. In the afternoon, after much manœuvring, this vessel and the *Wasp* came to an engagement, which soon became very severe. The men of the stranger several times attempted to board the *Wasp*, but were repulsed. Finally the crew of the *Wasp* boarded her antagonist, and in less than thirty minutes the latter was a prize to the American vessel. She proved to be the sloop-of-war *Reindeer*, Captain William Manners, and was terribly shattered. Her captain and twenty-four others were killed and forty-two wounded. The *Wasp* was hulled six times, and her loss was five men killed and twenty-two wounded. Blakeley put his prisoners on board a neutral vessel and burned the *Reindeer*. For this capture Congress voted him a gold medal. He arrived at L'Ori-

in command of Midshipman (late Commodore) D. Geisinger. On the 9th of October the *Wasp* was spoken by a Swedish bark making her way towards the Spanish main. She was never heard of afterwards, nor those who were then on board of her. She and all her people perished in some unknown solitude of the sea.

Watch and Clock Making. Until a very recent period Americans were supplied with watches from the workshops of England, France, and Switzerland. In 1848 Aaron Dennison, of Boston, an expert watch repairer, suggested to Edward Howard, an expert clock-maker, that watches might be made by machinery, and that thus the Americans, competing with the low wages in Europe, might establish a new industry. They joined in the undertaking, first in a small way at Roxbury, near Boston, in 1850, and, after they had made the first thousand watches, they assumed the name of the "Boston Watch Company," and removed their establishment to Waltham, Mass. There, after vicissitudes, the property passed into the possession



BLAKELEY'S MEDAL.



ent July 8, and on the 27th of August departed for another cruise in the *Wasp*. On Sept. 1 she had a sharp engagement with the *Avon*, 18 guns, Captain Arbuthnot, in intense darkness. At the end of thirty minutes the antagonist of the *Wasp* ceased firing. "Have you surrendered?" inquired Blakeley. He was answered by a few shots, when he gave the *Avon* another broadside, followed by the same question, which was answered in the affirmative, and an officer was about to leave the *Wasp* to take possession of the prize. Just then another vessel was seen astern, rapidly approaching; then another and another, and Blakeley was compelled to abandon the prize so nearly in his possession. The vessel that first came to the assistance of the *Avon* was the *Castilian*, 18 guns. The *Avon* was so much shattered in the conflict that she sank almost immediately. Her people were rescued by their friends on the other vessels. The *Wasp* continued her course, capturing several prizes. Near the Azores she captured (Sept. 21) the *Atlanta*, a prize so valuable that he sent her home

of the "Waltham Improvement Company," and by act of the Legislature the "American Watch Company" was incorporated, with a capital of \$200,000, soon increased to \$300,000, and in 1891 to more than \$3,000,000. In the year just named the company employed 1600 men and 1200 women, all but 120 of whom were native Americans. The total product of the company exceeded 5,000,000 watches, the daily product being over 2000 watches. One of the earliest clock-makers in the United States was William Terry, who made brass clocks at the "Nine Partners," Duchess Co., N. Y., at about the close of the last century. Eli Terry began the manufacture of wooden clocks at about the same time, and in 1802 he began making them by machinery, propelled by water-power, at Plymouth, Conn. By the use of machinery brass and wooden clocks are now made with great facility. In their manufacture three men can take a sheet of brass for the wheels, press and level it under a drop and cut the teeth, and make all the wheels for 500 clocks in a day.

The cases may be made for twenty cents each. Since 1840 millions of these clocks have been sold; some as low as one dollar each, and good time-keepers. The number of clocks annually made in the United States reached in 1892 a total of about 2,500,000.

Watson, ELKANAH, was born at Plymouth, Mass., Jan. 22, 1758; died at Port Kent, N. Y., Dec. 5, 1842. He was apprenticed in 1773 to John Brown, a merchant in Providence, R. I., who in 1775 sent him with a large quantity of powder to Washington for use in the siege of Boston. So trustworthy was he that, when he was only nineteen years of age, Brown sent him to Charleston and other Southern ports with more than \$50,000 to be invested in cargoes for European markets. Of this journey he wrote and published an account from his diary, the best we have of the places he visited at that time. At the age of twenty-one (1777) he was made bearer of despatches by Congress to Dr. Franklin, in Paris; and, in connection with Mr. Brown, he opened a commission-house at Nantes, France. He returned to America in 1784, having by reverses lost much of his property. Before his return he visited England, Holland, and Flanders. He published an account of his tour in Holland. After spending four years in business in North Carolina he went to Albany (1789) with a competence, and for eighteen years was an active promoter of every public enterprise, notably inland navigation by canals, of which General Schuyler was the pioneer, and the advancement of education. He travelled some years in Europe, and published while in London an account of his pioneer journey in western New York. In 1807 Mr. Watson settled at Pittsfield, Mass., and devoted himself to agriculture and its improvement. He was the founder of the Berkshire Agricultural Society, and did much for the promotion of domestic manufactures. In 1816 he returned to Albany, and founded the first agricultural society in the State of New York. He visited Michigan and explored the Lake region, and also a route to Montreal, with a view to opening some improved way for its commercial connection with New York and Boston. In 1828 Mr. Watson settled at Port Kent, on the west side of Lake Champlain, where he spent the remainder of his days. His contributions to the press on various subjects were numerous. His unfinished autobiography, completed by his son (Winslow Cossoul Watson), was published in 1855 under the title of *Men and Times of the Revolution*. That son (born in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 22, 1803) is also a careful and industrious writer. He has published a *General View of Essex County, a Treatise on Practical Husbandry, a Pioneer History of the Champlain Valley, and a History of Essex County*, besides numerous valuable essays in newspapers and magazines.

Watson, FORT, CAPTURE OF. Upon an ancient tumulus, almost fifty feet high, on the borders of Scott's Lake (an expansion of the Santee River), a few miles below the junction of the Congaree and Wateree (which form the Santee), the British had built Fort Watson, so

called in compliment to Colonel Watson, who built it. In April, 1781, it was garrisoned by eighty regulars and forty loyalists, under the command of Lieutenant McKay, when Marion and Lee appeared before it and demanded its surrender. Colonel Watson was on his way from Georgetown with a large force to assist McKay, and the latter promptly defied Marion and Lee. The latter had no cannons, and the stockade was too high to be seriously affected by small-arms. Lieutenant Maham, of Marion's brigade, planned and built a tower of logs sufficiently high to overlook the stockade, with a parapet at the top for the defence of sharpshooters placed therein. This work was accomplished during a dark night, and at dawn the garrison was awakened by a shower of bullets from a company of riflemen on the top of the tower. Another party ascended the mound and attacked the *abatis* with vigor. Resistance was vain. The fort, untenable, was surrendered (April 23, 1781), and, with the garrison as prisoners, Marion pushed northward to the High Hills of Santee (which see).

Watson, JOHN FANNING, annalist, was born in Burlington County, N. J., June 13, 1779; died at Germantown, Penn., Dec. 23, 1860. He was a clerk in the War Department in 1798, and afterwards went to New Orleans, where, in 1804, he was purveyor of subsistence for the United States troops stationed there. Returning to Philadelphia, he was a bookseller there for many years. From 1814 until 1847 he was cashier of a bank in Germantown, and afterwards was treasurer of a railroad company. He was an industrious delver in antiquarian lore, and in 1830 he published *Annals of Philadelphia*, in one volume, which was afterwards enlarged to two volumes. In 1846 he published *Annals of New York City and State*. He had already published *Historic Tales of the Olden Times in New York* (1832) and *Historic Tales of the Olden Times in Philadelphia* (1833). He also left MS. annals in the Philadelphia Library.

Watson, SIR BROOK, was born in Plymouth, England, Feb. 7, 1735; died Oct. 2, 1807. He entered the naval service early in life, but while bathing in the sea at Havana in 1749 a shark bit off his right leg below the knee, and he abandoned the sea and entered upon mercantile business. He was with Colonel Monckton in Nova Scotia in 1755, and was at the siege of Louisburg in 1758, having in charge Wolfe's division, as commissary. In 1759 he settled as a merchant in London, and afterwards in Montreal. Just before the war for independence he visited several of the colonies, with false professions of political friendship for them, as a Whig. A friend of Sir Guy Carleton, he was made his commissary-general in America in 1782, and from 1784 to 1793 he was member of Parliament for London. He was Sheriff of London and Middlesex, and in 1796 was Lord Mayor. For his services in America, Parliament voted his wife an annuity of \$2000 for life. From 1798 to 1806 he was commissary-general of England.

Watts, JOHN, was born in New York city,

April 5, 1715; died in Wales in August, 1789. He married a daughter of Stephen De Lancey in July, 1742. For many years he represented New York city in the Provincial Assembly, and was a member of the Council eighteen years (1757-75), when, taking sides with the crown, he went to England. His property was confiscated; but the most valuable part of it was afterwards reconveyed to his sons, Robert and John, in July, 1784.

Wauhatchie, BATTLE OF. When General Grant arrived at Chattanooga and took chief command (Oct. 23, 1863), he saw the necessity of opening a more direct way to that post for its supplies. (See *National Troops at Chattanooga*.) General Hooker, who had been sent with a large force under Howard and Slocum from Virginia, was then at Bridgeport, on the Tennessee, and Grant ordered him to cross that stream and advance to the Lookout valley and menace Bragg's left. He did so, and reached Wauhatchie, in that valley, on the 28th, after some sharp skirmishing. Being anxious to hold the road leading from Lookout valley to Kelly's Ferry, Hooker sent General Geary to encamp at Wauhatchie. Hooker's movements had been keenly watched by McLaws's division of Longstreet's corps, then holding Lookout Mountain. McLaws swept down the rugged hills and struck Geary's small force at one o'clock on the morning of Oct. 29, hoping to crush it and capture Hooker's whole army. The attack was made with great fury on three sides of the camp, while batteries on the mountain-sides sent down screaming shells. Geary was not surprised. He met the assailants with a steady, deadly fire. Hearing the noise of battle, Hooker sent General Schurz's division of Howard's corps to Geary's assistance. The Confederates were repulsed after a sharp battle for three hours. They fled, leaving one hundred and fifty of their number dead on Geary's front; also one hundred prisoners and several hundred small-arms. The National loss was four hundred and sixteen killed and wounded. This result secured a safe communication for supplies for the Nationals between Bridgeport and Chattanooga. (See *Brown's Ferry, Seizure of*.) An amusing incident occurred during the battle. When it began about two hundred mules, frightened by the noise, dashed into the ranks of Wade Hampton's Legion and produced a great panic. The Confederates supposed it to be a charge of Hooker's cavalry, and fell back at first in some confusion. The incident inspired a mock-heroic poem, in six stanzas, in imitation of Tennyson's *Charge of the Six Hundred* at Balaklava, one verse of which was as follows:

"Mules to the right of them—
Mules to the left of them—
Mules all behind them—
Pawed, neighed, and thundered;
Breaking their own confines—
Breaking through Longstreet's lines,
Testing chivalric spines,
Into the Georgia lines
Stormed the two hundred."

Wayne, ANTHONY, was born in Chester Co., Penn., Jan. 1, 1745; died at Presque Isle (Erie),

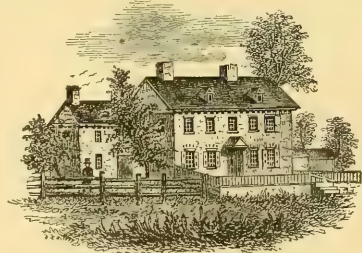
II.—23

Penn., Dec. 15, 1796. His grandfather, who came to America in 1722, was commander of a squadron of dragoons under William III. at the battle of the Boyne, in Ireland. Anthony, after re-



ANTHONY WAYNE.

ceiving a good English education in Philadelphia, was appointed a land-agent in Nova Scotia, where he remained a year. Returning, he married, and until 1774 was a farmer and surveyor in Pennsylvania. He was a member of the Pennsylvania Legislature in 1774-75; and in September of the latter year he raised a regiment, and was appointed colonel in January, 1776. He went with his regiment to Canada; was wounded in the battle at Three Rivers (which see); and in February, 1777, was made brigadier-general. In the battle of Brandywine, in September, he was distinguished; and nine days afterwards he was surprised in the night near the Paoli Tavern, on the Lancaster



WAYNE'S RESIDENCE.

Road, in Pennsylvania, when his command was much cut up, but the remainder retreated in safety. He led the right wing of the army in the attack at Germantown, and was slightly wounded. In the battle of Monmouth he was very distinguished; and his capture of Stony Point (which see), on the Hudson, in July, 1779, was one of the most brilliant achievements of the war. In that attack he was wounded in

the head, and Congress gave him a vote of thanks and a gold medal. In June, 1781, Wayne joined Lafayette in Virginia, where he performed excellent service until the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. He was afterwards stationed in Georgia, when he confined the British troops in Savannah until their evacuation in 1782. (See *Savannah, Evacuation of.*) In 1784-85 he served in the Pennsylvania Assembly, and in the convention that ratified the national Constitution.

surrender of Cornwallis the Pennsylvania line, under General Wayne, marched to South Carolina, and their commander, with a part of them, was sent by General Greene to Georgia. On May 21, 1782, Colonel Brown marched out of Savannah in strong force to confront rapidly-advancing Wayne. The latter got between Brown and Savannah, attacked him at midnight, and routed the whole party. This event occurred on the Ogeechee road, about four miles



GOLD MEDAL AWARDED BY CONGRESS TO GENERAL WAYNE.



In April, 1792, he was made general-in-chief of the army; and in 1795 he was engaged in hostilities with the Indians in the Northwest. He effected a peace at Greenville (which see) in August, 1795. Brave to the verge of rashness, Wayne received the name of "Mad Anthony." Yet he was discreet and cautious, fruitful in resources, and prompt in the execution of plans. After his successful campaign against the Indians, he returned to Fort Presque Isle in 1796, where he died. His body was afterwards removed by his son and buried in Radnor churchyard, in his native county. Over his remains the Pennsylvania Society of the Cincinnati

southwest of Savannah. The vanguard of the Americans was composed of sixty horsemen and twenty infantry, led by Colonel Anthony Walton White. These made a spirited charge, killing or wounding forty of the British and making twenty of them prisoners. The sword and bayonet did the work. The Americans lost five killed and two wounded. On June 24 a part of Wayne's army, lying about five miles from Savannah, was fiercely attacked by a body of Creek Indians, who first drove the troops and took two pieces of artillery; but they were soon utterly routed by a spirited charge. The brief battle was fought hand-to-hand with swords, bayonets, and tomahawks, and fourteen Indians and two white men were killed. Guristersigo, a famous Creek chief, was killed. The royalists coming out of Savannah to assist the Indians were driven back, with the loss of a standard and one hundred and twenty-seven horses with packs. The men fled back to the city, and soon afterwards evacuated it. (See *Savannah, Evacuation of.*) Wayne took possession of the city, and of the province of Georgia, which had been held by the British military commanders about four years. It was estimated that Georgia lost in the war one thousand of its citizens and four thousand of its slaves.



WAYNE'S MONUMENT.

caused a neat marble monument to be erected in 1809. (See *Cincinnati, Society of the.*)

Wayne (GENERAL) in Georgia. After the

Wayne Surprised in Georgia. After the surrender of Cornwallis General Wayne was sent with a considerable force to strengthen the army of Greene in the Carolinas. He was sent to recover Georgia, and was successful. On the night of June 23 and 24, 1782, he was surprised by a numerous body of Creek warriors in the service of the British at Sharon, five miles from Savannah, headed by an able chief and a British officer. For a few moments they

held possession of his artillery, but, mustering his forces, they attacked the assailants so furiously, in front and flank, with sword and bayonet alone, that they soon broke and fled. With his own hand, Wayne cut down a fierce Creek chieftain; and in the morning the dead body of Guristersigo, the principal warrior of the Creeks, and the bitterest enemy of the Americans among them, was found on the battle-field.

Wayne's Indian Campaign. The defeat of St. Clair (which see) spread alarm along the frontiers and indignation throughout the country. General Anthony Wayne was appointed his successor. Apprehending that pending negotiations with the Indians, if they failed, would be followed by immediate hostilities against the frontiers, Wayne marched into the Northwestern Territory in the autumn of 1793 with a competent force. He spent the winter at Greenville, not far from the place of St. Clair's disaster, and built a stockade, which he named Fort Recovery. The following summer he pushed on through the wilderness towards the Maumee, and at its junction with the Anglaize he built Fort Defiance. On the St. Mary's he built Fort Adams as an intermediate post; and in August he went down the Maumee with one thousand men and encamped near a British post at the foot of the Maumee Rapids, called Fort Miami, or Maumee. Wayne, with a force ample to destroy the barbarians in spite of British influence, willing to spare bloodshed, offered them peace and tranquillity if they would lay down their weapons. They refused. Wayne then advanced to the head of the rapids, and at a place called "Fallen Timbers," not far above (present) Maumee City, he attacked and defeated the Indians on Aug. 20. Almost all the dead warriors were found with British arms. Wayne laid waste their country, and at the middle of September moved up to the junction of the St. Mary's and St. Joseph's rivers, near the (present) city of Fort Wayne, Ind., and built a strong fortification, which he named Fort Wayne. The little army wintered at Greenville. The barbarians perceived their own weakness and sued for peace. The following summer about eleven hundred sachems and warriors, representing twelve cantons, met (Aug. 3, 1795) commissioners of the United States, at Greenville, and made a treaty of peace. (See *Greenville, Treaty at.*)

Ways and Means, COMMITTEE OF. Trouble with the Barbary States brought the question before the House of Representatives whether a squadron should be sent to the Mediterranean to awe the North African pirates; and if so, how much money should be appropriated for the purpose. The latter question had hitherto been referred to the Secretary of the Treasury; now a committee was appointed (Jan. 2, 1794) to report the amount required, and also the ways and means for its support. This was the first Committee of Ways and Means ever appointed, and that committee thenceforth became one of the standing ones of the House.

Weather Signals. General Albert G. Myer,

the originator of the present Signal Service of the United States (see *Signals*), also invented and organized a weather signal service, which has been the means of conferring great benefits upon agriculture and commerce, especially. The system, as arranged by General Myer, was established by Congress in 1870, and for twenty years was a part of the Signal Service of the United States Army. The Fifty-first Congress passed an act providing that while the Signal Service should remain as a branch of the army, the forecasting of the weather should become one of the duties of the Agricultural Department and be conducted by a special Bureau. This law went into effect on the 1st of July, 1891, and all the duties connected with the system of weather signals were transferred to the new Bureau. The first chief of the Bureau was Professor Mark W. Harrington, of Michigan. Simultaneous weather reports from simultaneous observations, taken at different places, are transmitted to the Bureau at Washington. Three of these simultaneous reports are made in each twenty-four hours, at intervals of eight hours; and warnings are given by signals, maps, bulletins, and official despatches, furnished by the Bureau, three times a day, to nearly all the newspapers in the land. So thoroughly is this work done, by means of the telegraph, the perfect organization of the system, and the discipline of the operators, that it is estimated one third of all the families in our country are in possession, each day, of the information issued from the Weather Bureau. Fully ninety per cent. of the predictions are verified by actual results.

Weathersford and General Jackson. It was made a condition of peace with the Creeks by Jackson that they should bring to him Weathersford, their great leader, for he could not pardon him. He then knew neither the great Creek chief nor his own plasticity. Weathersford did not wait to be caught and dragged like a felon to the feet of the leader of the pale-faces. He saw in the events at the Horseshoe Bend that all hope for his nation was gone. He mounted his fine gray horse, which had saved his life (see *Econochaca, or Holy Ground, Battle at*), and rode to Jackson's camp, where he arrived at sunset. He entered Jackson's tent and found the general alone. Drawing himself up to his full height and folding his arms, he said, "I am Weathersford, the chief who commanded at Fort Mims. I have nothing to request for myself. You can kill me if you desire. I have come to beg you to send for the women and children of the war-party, who are now starving in the woods. Their fields and cribs have been destroyed by your people, who have driven them to the woods without an ear of corn. I hope that you will send out parties who will conduct them safely here, in order that they may be fed. I exerted myself in vain to save the women and children at Fort Mims. I have come now to ask peace for my people, but not for myself." Jackson expressed astonishment that one so guilty should dare to appear in his presence and ask for peace.

and protection. "I am in your power; do with me as you please," the chief haughtily replied. "I am a soldier. I have done the white people all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely; and if I had an army I would yet fight and contend to the last. But I have none. My people are all gone. I can now do no more than to weep over the misfortunes of my nation." Here was a man after Jackson's own heart—a patriot who fought bravely for his people and his land, and fearlessly expressed his patriotism in the presence of one who had power over his life. He was told that absolute submission and the acceptance of a home beyond the Mississippi for his nation was the only wise policy for him to pursue. "If, however," said Jackson, "you desire to continue the war, and feel prepared to meet the consequences, you may depart in peace and unite yourself with the war-party if you choose." Half scornfully, half sorrowfully, Weathersford replied, "I may well be addressed in such language now. There was a time when I had a choice and could have answered you; I have none now—even hope is ended. Once I could animate my warriors to battle; but I cannot animate the dead. My warriors can no longer hear my voice. Their bones are at Talladega, Tallushatchee, Emucfan, and Tohopeka. I have not surrendered myself thoughtlessly. While there was a chance for success I never left my post nor supplicated peace. But my people are gone, and I ask it for my nation, not for myself. On the miseries and misfortunes brought upon my country I look back with deepest sorrow, and wish to avert still greater calamities. If I had been left to contend with the Georgia army [Floyd's] I would have raised my corn on one bank of the river and fought them on the other. But *your* people have destroyed my nation. You are a brave man; I rely upon your generosity. You will exact no terms of a conquered people but such as they should agree to. Whatever they may be, it would now be folly and madness to oppose. If they are opposed, you will find me among the sternest supporters of obedience. Those who would still hold out can be influenced only by a mean spirit of revenge, and to this they must not and shall not sacrifice the last remnant of their country. You have told our nation where we might go and be safe. This is good talk, and they ought to listen to it. They *shall* listen to it." Thus spoke Weathersford for his nation. Words of honor responded to words of honor, and Weathersford was allowed to go freely to the forest to search for his scattered followers and counsel peace.

Weathersford, WILLIAM, was born on the Hickory Ground, in the Creek nation; died in 1826. His father was an itinerant peddler, sordid, treacherous, and revengeful. His mother was a full-blooded Creek, of the tribe of the Seminoles. Weathersford inherited the bad qualities of each, but honor and humanity predominated in his character. He was possessed of rare eloquence and courage, and these, with his good judgment, procured for him the respect of the old among his countrymen; while his

vices made him the idol of the young and unprincipled. He was of a commanding person—tall, straight, and well-proportioned; his eyes black, lively, and penetrating in their glance; his nose prominent and thin, but elegant in formation. Passionately devoted to wealth, he had appropriated a fine tract of land, improved and settled it, and had embellished it from the profits of his father's pack. He entered fully into the views of Tecumtha, the eminent Shawnoese; and if there had been no delay in perfecting the confederacy and opening war he might have overrun the whole Mississippi valley. (See *Tecumtha and the Prophet*.) He led in the attack upon Fort Mims (which see), and used all his power and persuasion to prevent the massacre of the women and children, but without success. That massacre aroused all the white people of the great valley against the Creek nation, and the sons of all Tennessee marched to their country and in the course of a few months destroyed the nation. Weathersford voluntarily surrendered himself to General Jackson; and in a speech of peculiar pathos he displayed such patriotism and courage that he was dismissed to perform freely the promised task of gathering up the remnant of his people and removing beyond the Mississippi River. But he was not safe in Alabama. The families of the murdered ones at Fort Mims sought his life. He fled, and remained away until the end of the War of 1812–15, when he returned and became a respected citizen of Alabama. He settled on a farm in Monroe County, well supplied with negro slaves, where he maintained the character of an honest man. Soon after his return he married, and General Sam. Dale, with whom he had several encounters, was his groomsmen. He said he could not live there, for his old comrades, the hostile Creeks, ate his cattle from starvation, the Peace party ate them for revenge, and the white squatters because he was a "damned red-skin;" so he said, "I have come to live among gentlemen." Weathersford died from the effects of fatigue caused by a desperate bear-hunt.

Webb, ALEXANDER S., was born in New York city in 1834, and graduated at West Point in 1855. He is a son of James Watson Webb, the veteran journalist. Entering the artillery, he served against the Seminoles in Florida in 1856, and, from 1857 to 1861, was assistant professor of mathematics at West Point. In May, 1861, he was made captain of infantry, and, in June, 1863, brigadier-general of volunteers. He was one of the defenders of Fort Pickens (which see); fought at Bull's Run and through the campaign on the Peninsula; was chief-of-staff of the Fifth Corps at Antietam and Chancellorsville; served with distinction at Gettysburg, and commanded a brigade in the Second Corps, in Virginia, from October, 1863, to April, 1864. He commanded a brigade in the campaign against Richmond in 1864–65, and in January, 1865, was General Meade's chief-of-staff. In March he was breveted major-general United States Army, and was discharged in 1870. In 1869 he was chosen president of the College of the City of New York.

Webb, JAMES WATSON, journalist and diplomatist, was born at Claverack, N. Y., Feb. 8, 1802. He entered the army in 1819, was first-lieutenant in 1823, and resigned in 1827, when he became a journalist, soon taking a leading position in that profession as editor and proprietor of the *New York Courier and Enquirer*. In 1850 he was appointed chargé d'affaires at the court of Vienna, but the Senate did not confirm the nomination. In 1861 he was appointed minister to Brazil, where he settled long-pending claims against that government; and he was chiefly instrumental, through his personal intimacy with Napoleon III., in procuring the withdrawal of the French troops from Mexico. For many years Mr. Webb exerted a powerful influence in the politics of the United States.

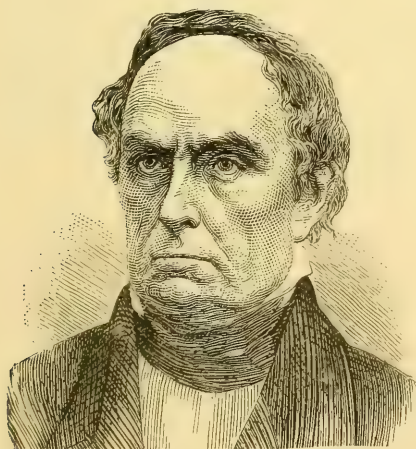
Webb, SAMUEL B., father of the preceding and step-son of Silas Deane, was born at Wethersfield, Conn., in 1753; died at Claverack, N. Y., Dec. 3, 1807. He was thanked for his gallantry in the battle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, where he was wounded, and in June, 1776, was appointed aide-de-camp to Washington. In the battle of White Plains he was wounded; also at Trenton. He was in the battle of Brandywine, and in 1778 raised and took command of the Third Connecticut Regiment. In 1779, he, with most of his men, were captured by the British fleet while crossing to Long Island with General Parsons, and was not released until 1780, when he took command of the light infantry, with the brevet rank of brigadier-general. He lived in New York city after the war, until 1789, when he removed to Claverack, Columbia Co., N. Y.

Webster, DANIEL, LL.D., statesman, was born at Salisbury, N. H., Jan. 18, 1782; died at Marshfield, Mass., Oct. 24, 1852. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1801, defraying a portion of his college expenses by teaching school. After teaching school in Maine a while, he stud-

foremost rank in debate. In 1816 he settled in Boston, and, by his services in the Dartmouth College case, which was carried to the Supreme Court (1817), he was placed in the front rank in his profession. In that court he ably argued many important cases, in which he exhibited transcendent skill and ability. In 1820 he was a member of the Massachusetts Constitutional Convention. He again entered Congress in 1823, when he made a famous speech on the Greek Revolution, and, as chairman of the Judiciary Committee, effected measures for a complete revision of the criminal law of the United States. While John Quincy Adams was President of the United States, he was the leader of the friends of the administration, first in the House and afterwards in the Senate, of which he was a member from 1827 to 1839. His celebrated speech in reply to Hayne, of South Carolina, delivered in the Senate in 1832, is considered the most correct and complete exposition ever given of the true powers and functions of the national government. In 1839 he visited Europe, and in March, 1841, President Harrison appointed him Secretary of State, which office he held until May, 1843, when he retired from President Tyler's cabinet. Again in the United States Senate in 1845, he strongly opposed the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico, and in 1850 he supported the Compromise measure. (See *Omnibus Bill, The*.) By his concessions to the demands of the slaveholders, in a speech, March 7, 1850, he greatly weakened his influence in the free-labor states. He was called to the cabinet of Mr. Fillmore the same year as Secretary of State, which post he filled, with great distinction, until his death. Mr. Webster delivered many remarkable orations on occasions, notably on laying the corner-stone of the Bunker's Hill monument (June 17, 1825), and on the completion of the monument (June 17, 1843). He paid much attention to agriculture at Marshfield, and was fond of hunting and fishing. His last great effort in the courts was in January, 1852, when he argued an important India-rubber patent case at Trenton, N. J.

Webster, JOSEPH DANA, was born at old Hampton, N. H., Aug. 25, 1811. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1832, and was made lieutenant of topographical engineers in July, 1838. He served with distinction through the war with Mexico, and resigned in 1854 and settled at Chicago. In April, 1861, he was placed in charge of the construction of fortifications at Cairo and Paducah, and in February, 1862, became colonel of artillery, assisting in the capture of forts Henry and Donelson (which see). He had charge of all the artillery at the battle of Shiloh, and was chief of General Grant's staff until October, 1862, when he was made a brigadier-general of volunteers. Grant sent him to make a survey of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, and afterwards he became General Sherman's chief-of-staff. General Webster was with General Thomas at the battle of Nashville (which see), and was breveted major-general 1865. Died 1876.

Webster, NOAH, LL.D., philologist, was born



DANIEL WEBSTER.

ied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1805. He soon rose to eminence in his profession at Portsmouth, N. H., and was a member of Congress from 1813 to 1817, where he soon took a

in West Hartford, Conn., Oct. 16, 1758; died in New Haven, Conn., May 28, 1843. He graduated at Yale College in 1778, and was admitted to the bar in 1781. The next year he opened a classical school at Goshen, N. Y., and in 1783 published at Hartford his *First Part of a Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, which was soon followed by the second and third parts. His *American Spelling-book* was published in 1783. In 1785 he visited the Southern States



NOAH WEBSTER.

to find aid in procuring the enactment of state copyright laws; and in 1789 he published *Dissertations on the English Language*, a series of lectures which he had delivered in various American cities in 1786. Webster was at the head of an academy at Philadelphia in 1787, and took great interest in the proceedings of the convention there that framed the national Constitution. In 1788 he published the *American Magazine* in New York, and returned to Hartford in 1789 and practised law. In 1793 he edited and published in New York a daily paper called the *Minerva*, and a semi-weekly, called the *Herald*, in support of Washington's administration. These were afterwards known as the *Commercial Advertiser* and the *New York Spectator*. In 1798 he removed to New Haven, and, in 1806, published a *Compendious Dictionary*. In 1807 he published a *Philosophical and Practical Grammar of the English Language*, and, the same year, began the great work of his life, a *Dictionary of the English Language*. The first edition appeared in 1828, in two volumes, and the second in 1840, in two volumes. While this work was in preparation he removed to Amherst, and was one of the most active founders of Amherst College. He returned to New Haven in 1828, and resided there until his death. Dr. Webster's *Elementary Spelling-book* has had an enormous sale, amounting, in 1876, to about fifty million copies. So large and steady was its sale, that the proceeds of his copyright supported himself and family while he was preparing his great Dictionary. He was a very prolific writer, and published a large number of essays in newspapers, pamphlets, and books, on political, economical, literary, and moral subjects, as well as on history, natural history, and education. It has been said of him,

"He taught millions to read, but not one to sin." Since his death his Dictionary has been revised by his son-in-law, Professor Goodrich, and others.

Weed, STEPHEN H., was born in New York in 1834; killed at Gettysburg, July 2, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1854; served against the Indians from 1857 to 1860; became captain of artillery in 1861, and served throughout the war on the Peninsula, at Manassas, South Mountain, and Antietam, and behaved gallantly at Chancellorsville, for which he was made brigadier-general, Jan. 6, 1863. He commanded the third brigade of regulars at the time of his death.

Weed, Thurlow, an eminent journalist, was born at Cairo, N. Y., Nov. 15, 1797; died in New York city, Nov. 22, 1882. He became an orphan in early childhood, with a very scant school education; learned the printer's trade, and at the age of twenty-one began the publication of a newspaper. He was unsuccessful, and worked as a journeyman printer until 1825, when he was engaged to edit a daily paper at Rochester, N. Y., at eight dollars a week. He had served as a drummer-boy in the War of 1812. In Rochester he edited an anti-Masonic paper, and was twice elected to the legislature. In 1830 he became editor of the *Albany Evening Journal*, and conducted it with great ability more than thirty years. In 1861 he went to Europe on a semi-diplomatic mission. On his return he settled in New York city, where he edited the *Commercial Advertiser* for a time. He published *Letters from Europe and the West Indies*. His *Autobiography* was published in Boston in 1883.

Weeden, GEORGE, was postmaster and tavern-keeper at Fredericksburg, Va., before the Revolution; was an active politician and patriot, and entered the military service early in the strife, becoming colonel of Virginia troops in the summer of 1776. He was made brigadier-general in February, 1777, leading a brigade in the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. Dissatisfaction about rank caused him to leave the service at Valley Forge, but he resumed the command of his brigade in 1780, and commanded the militia near Gloucester during the siege of Yorktown (1781).

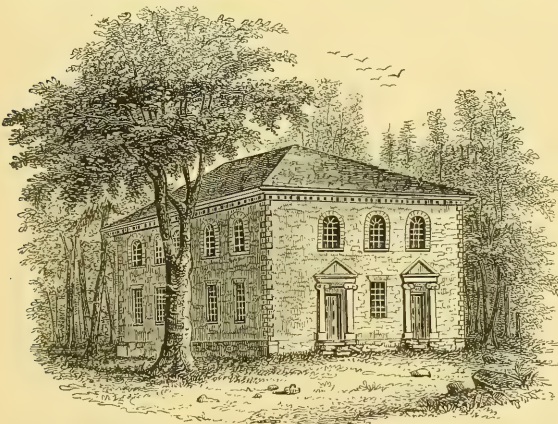
Weems, MASON L., was born at Dumfries, Va.; died at Beaufort, S. C., May 23, 1825. He studied theology in London; was rector several years of Mount Vernon Parish (Pohick Church) at the time Washington attended there, and was for a long while a successful travelling agent for the sale of books for Matthew Cary, of Philadelphia, travelling extensively in the Southern States. He was eccentric, and, at public gatherings, would address crowds upon the merits of his books, interspersing his remarks with stories and anecdotes. He would also play the violin at dances, and preach when occasion offered. Weems wrote a pamphlet entitled "The Drunkard's Looking-glass," illustrated with rude wood-cuts. This pamphlet he sold wherever he travelled. He entered taverns, addressed the company usually assembled

in such places, imitated the foolish acts of an intoxicated person, and then offered his pamphlets for sale. His mimicry of a drunken man



MASON L. WEEMS.

was generally taken as good-natured fun. He wrote lives of Washington, William Penn, Dr. Franklin, and General Marion, and was also the author of several tracts. His *Life of Washington* has passed through nearly forty editions.



POHICK CHURCH.

Weeping Willow, INTRODUCTION OF THE, INTO THE UNITED STATES. After the South Sea bubble in England had collapsed, one of the speculators who had been ruined went to Smyrna to mend his fortunes. He was a friend of Pope, the poet, and sent him a box of figs. In the box Pope found the twig of a tree. He had just established his villa at Twickenham. He planted the twig (fortunately) by the shore of the Thames, not knowing of what tree it was. It grew, and was a weeping willow, such as the captive Jews wept under on the banks of the rivers of Babylon. That twig was planted in 1722. In 1775 one of the young British officers who came to Boston with the British army

brought a twig from Pope's then huge willow, expecting, when the "rebellion" should be crushed, in a few weeks, to settle in America on some confiscated lands of the "rebels," where he would plant his willow. The "rebellion" was not crushed. John Parke Custis, son of Mrs. Washington, and aid to General Washington, at Cambridge, going on errands to the British camp, under a flag of truce, became acquainted with the owner of the willow twig (which was wrapped in oiled silk). The disappointed subaltern gave the twig to Custis, who planted it near his home on his estate at Abingdon, Va., where it became the progenitor of all the weeping willows in America.

Weir, ROBERT WALTER, painter, was born in New Rochelle, N. Y., June 18, 1803. He studied art in Italy three years, and, returning home in 1827, opened a studio in New York city. He was then twenty-four years of age. From 1830 to 1834 he was professor of perspective in the National Academy of Design. In the latter year he was appointed instructor in drawing in the United States Military Academy at West Point, as the successor of C. R. Leslie. He held that position and performed its duties with success for a little more than forty years. Mr. Weir's paintings are not numerous, but are highly valued for the truthfulness and the delicacy of sentiment which they all exhibit. Among the most noted of his pictures are the "Embarka-

tion of the Pilgrims," painted for the rotunda of the Capitol at Washington; "The Antiquary Introducing Lovel to his Womankind;" "Red Jacket;" "Columbus before the Council at Salamanca;" "The Landing of Hendrick Hudson;" "The Greek Girl;" "Rebecca;" "Pæstum by Moonlight;" "The Presentation in the Temple;" "The Dying Greek;" "The Taking of the Veil," and "The Journey of the Disciples to Emmaus." Mr. Weir died in the city of New York, May 1, 1889. His son, JOHN FERGUSON, also an accomplished artist, is Art Professor at Yale College.

Weitzel, GODFREY, was born in Cincinnati, O., Nov. 1, 1835, and graduated at West Point in 1855. Early in the Civil War he was attached to the staff of General Butler in the Department of the Gulf, and became acting mayor of New Orleans after its capture. In August, 1862, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and did good service in Louisiana, commanding the advance of General Banks's army in operations there in 1863. He was at the capture of Port Hudson. In 1864 he commanded a division in the Army of the James, and was Butler's chief-engineer at Bermuda Hundred. He was made commander of the Twenty-fifth Corps, composed of colored troops, and was the leader of the land attack on Fort Fisher in December, 1864, in which he was second in command. Weitzel was made major-general of volunteers in November,

1864. During the spring of 1865 he was very active in operations against Richmond on the left bank of the James River, and led the troops (colored) that first entered Richmond after the flight of the Confederates from it. He was breveted major-general of the United States Army in March, 1865.

Weldon Road. On Aug. 18, 1864, there was a severe battle a few miles below Petersburg, Va., for the possession of the Weldon Railroad, which connected Richmond with the South. Warren, with the Fifth Corps, reached the railroad without opposition. Leaving Griffin to hold the point seized, Warren started for Petersburg, and soon fell in with a strong Confederate force, which captured 200 of a Maryland brigade. A sharp fight ensued. Warren held the ground he had gained, but at the cost of 1000 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. Lee then sent a heavy force under Hill to drive Warren from the road. Hill fell upon Warren's flank and rear, held by Crawford's division, and in the fierce struggle that ensued the Confederates captured 2500 of the Nationals, among them General J. Hayes. Yet the Nationals clung to the railroad; and, reinforcements coming up, Hill fled. Warren recovered the ground he had lost and intrenched. On the 21st the Confederates returned and assailed the Nationals with a cross-fire of thirty guns, and also by columns of infantry. The assailants were soon defeated, with a loss of 500 prisoners. The whole Confederate loss was full 1200 men. One of Lee's most important lines of communication was now permanently wrested from him.

Welles, GIDEON, was born at Glastonbury, Conn., in July, 1802. He studied law under Judges Williams and Ellsworth, and in 1826 became editor and a proprietor of the *Hartford Times*, advocating the election of General Jack-

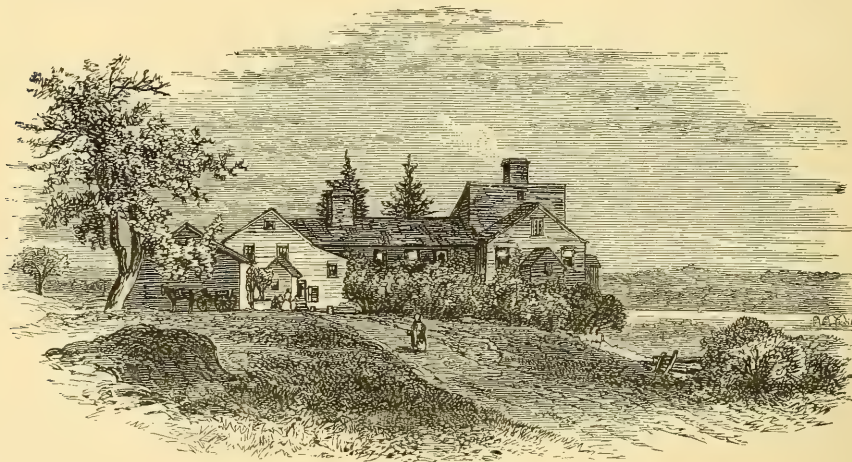
in the Navy Department, having given up his editorial duties. He became identified with the new Republican party in 1857, and was chairman of the Connecticut delegation in the convention



GIDEON WELLES.

at Chicago that nominated Mr. Lincoln for the Presidency, who in 1861 called Mr. Welles to his cabinet as Secretary of the Navy, in which capacity he served until 1869. Died Feb. 11, 1878.

Wentworth, BENNING, governor of New Hampshire from 1741 to 1767, was born at Portsmouth, in that state, July 24, 1696; died there, Oct. 14, 1770. He graduated at Harvard University in 1715; became a merchant, a representative in the Assembly, and in 1734 a councillor. He began making grants of land in the region of Lake Champlain in 1747, and this was the origin of the "New Hampshire Grants" (which see). Bennington, Vt., was named in his honor. The land on which the buildings of Dartmouth



WENTWORTH MANSION.

son to the Presidency. He served in the Connecticut Legislature from 1827 to 1835; was comptroller, and from 1836 to 1841 postmaster, at Hartford. In 1846 he was chief of a bureau

College were erected (five hundred acres) was given by Governor Wentworth. The ancient seat of the Wentworths is yet well preserved at Little Harbor, not far from Portsmouth.

Wentworth, GOVERNOR, FLIGHT OF. On the assumption of all political power by the Provincial Congress of New Hampshire, Sir John Wentworth, the last royal governor, seeing his power depart, and fearing popular indignation, shut himself up in the fort at Portsmouth, and his house was pillaged by a mob. He prorogued the Assembly (July, 1775), retired to Boston, and soon afterwards sailed to England. He was a nephew of Governor Benning Wentworth, who was chief magistrate of the province from 1741 until 1767.

Wentworth, SIR JOHN, LL.D., nephew of Benning, was governor of New Hampshire from 1767 to 1775. He was born at Portsmouth, in that state, Aug. 9, 1737; died at Halifax, N. S., April 8, 1820. He graduated at Harvard University in 1755. In 1766 he was sent to England as agent of the province, when the Marquis of Rockingham procured his appointment as governor of New Hampshire. He was also appointed surveyor of the king's woods, which was a lucrative office. When the war for independence began he went to England, and remained there until 1792, when he was made lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia.

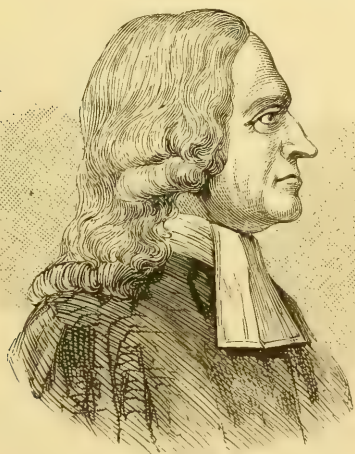
Werden, REED, was born in Pennsylvania, Feb. 28, 1817. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1834 and the Naval School at Philadelphia in 1840, and served in the war against Mexico. At the capture of Roanoke Island (which see) he commanded the steamer *Stars and Stripes*; was fleet-captain in the East Gulf Squadron from 1864 to 1865; and was commissioned commodore in 1871, and rear-admiral in 1875. He died at Newport, R. I., July 11, 1886.

Wesley, JOHN, founder of the Methodist Church, was born at Epworth, Lincolnshire, June 17, 1703; died March 2, 1791. He was educated at Oxford University, and ordained dea-

usterity and methodical religious life than then prevailed in the university. They obtained the name of Methodists, and Wesley became the leader of the association. In 1735 the celebrated Whitefield (which see) joined the society, and he and Wesley accompanied Oglethorpe to Georgia to preach the Gospel to the Indians. He stayed six months in Georgia, where his asceticism and eccentricities created a strong prejudice against him, and on his return to England he began itinerant preaching, often in the open air, and attracted many followers. The churches of the Establishment were closed against him, and he had large chapels built in London, Bristol, and other places; and he and Whitefield labored in unison in building up Methodism. Differences in doctrine finally separated them, and they labored separately for the same great end. Wesley travelled almost continually over the United Kingdom in promoting his mission, and was the most successful preacher of modern times.

Wesleys, THE, IN GEORGIA. With a company of Scotch Highlanders, who settled New Inverness, Ga., John and Charles Wesley went to that colony in 1736. Through the arts and falsehoods of two women Charles fell into temporary disgrace. Oglethorpe, satisfied with his explanation, sent Charles to England as bearer of despatches to the trustees. John (afterwards the founder of Methodism), then thirty-three years of age, remained, and became pastor of the church at Savannah. He was a strict constructionist of the rubrics of the Prayer-book, for he had not then begun his labors as the founder of a new sect. His zeal and exactions at length gave offence, and he soon got into other trouble by becoming the lover of a young woman, who, as he suggests in his journal, made pretensions to great piety to entrap him. By the advice of friends he broke the engagement. She immediately married another. Becoming less attentive to her religious duties, Wesley, according to the strict rule he had laid down, after several public reproofs, which she resented, refused to admit her to the Lord's Supper. Her husband, regarding this as an attack upon her religious character, claimed damages to the amount of \$5000. The grand-jury found two bills against Wesley, charging him with this and eight other abuses of his ecclesiastical authority, and also of speaking and writing to the woman without her husband's consent. The quarrel grew hot, and finally, by advice of the Moravians, he gave notice of his intention to go to England and lay the matter before the trustees. The magistrates demanded a bond for his appearance to answer to the suit against him. He refused to give it, and they forbade his departure. As soon as evening prayer was over he fled to Charleston, whence he returned to England, and never came back to Georgia.

Wessels, HENRY WALTON, was born at Litchfield, Conn., Feb. 20, 1809, and graduated at West Point in 1833. He was engaged in the Seminole War and in the war with Mexico, and became brigadier of volunteers in the spring of 1862,

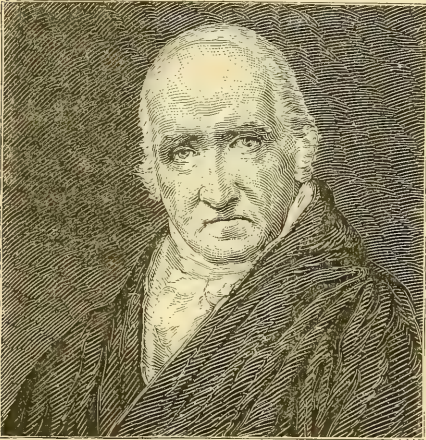


JOHN WESLEY.

con in 1725. In 1730 he and his brother Charles (a poet and clergyman), with a few other students, formed a society on principles of greater

serving in the campaign on the Peninsula, and was wounded at Fair Oaks. He was distinguished in services on the coast of North Carolina, and was in command of Plymouth in 1863-64, where he was made a prisoner in April, 1864. He was breveted brigadier-general of the United States Army. He died in 1889.

West, BENJAMIN, painter, was born near Springfield, Penn., Oct. 10, 1738; died in London, March 10, 1820. His parents were Friends, or Quakers. He served as a private soldier under General Forbes a short time, when, having



BENJAMIN WEST.

displayed a decided talent for art, he went to Philadelphia and engaged in portrait-painting. In 1760 he visited Italy, and afterwards remained some time in France. In 1763 he went to England, and there, meeting with much encouragement in the practice of painting, made his permanent residence. He became a favorite of King George III., was a member of the Royal Academy at its foundation in 1768, and in 1792 succeeded Sir Joshua Reynolds as its president. In his picture of the "Death of General Wolfe" he first departed from custom, and depicted the characters in proper costume; and from that time forward there was more realism in historical painting. West received large prices for his paintings. For his "Christ Healing the Sick" the British Institution gave him \$15,000. One of his latest works—"Death on the Pale Horse"—is in the Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia.

West Florida Taken by the Spaniards. On May 9, 1781, Don Galvez, Spanish Governor of Louisiana, with a competent force, took possession of Pensacola, capturing or driving away the British there, and soon afterwards he completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida.

West Indies. It being the prevailing opinion that the lands discovered by Columbus were a part of India, Ferdinand and Isabella, by the advice of the navigator, called them West Indies.

West Point Military Academy. The necessity of a military academy was felt and expressed at the beginning of the war for inde-

pendence. Early in the autumn of 1776 a committee was appointed by the Continental Congress to inquire into the condition and wants of the army. Among other resolutions, the committee in their report submitted the following: "*Resolved*, That the Board of War be directed to prepare a Continental laboratory and a military academy, and provide the same with proper officers." Colonel Henry Knox, then in command of the artillery, submitted "Hints for the Improvement of the Artillery of the United States." These were submitted to the Congress, and on Oct. 1, 1776, that body appointed a committee of five to prepare and bring in a plan for a military academy. This committee never reported, and nothing more was done concerning such an institution until the close of the contest. On the return of peace (1783), plans for a peace establishment for the army were laid before Congress. General Huntington, of Connecticut, suggested West Point, in the Hudson Highlands, as an eligible spot for a safe deposit of military articles, and where, "with a small additional expense, an academy might be instituted for instruction in all the branches of the military art." Timothy Pickering, then quartermaster-general, made some elaborate suggestions, at the request of Washington, concerning the organization of a military academy at West Point. The matter slumbered until 1793, when President Washington, in his annual message (Dec. 3), suggested the propriety of establishing an institution for military education. The subject had been discussed in the cabinet. Jefferson alone opposed the measure as unconstitutional. Congress, by act (May 7, 1794), provided for a corps of artillerists and engineers, to consist of four battalions, to each of which eight cadets were to be attached; and made it the duty of the Secretary of War to procure, at the public expense, the necessary books, instruments, and apparatus for the use and benefit of the corps. In his last annual message (December, 1796), Washington again recommended the establishment of a military academy. "However pacific," he said, "the general policy of a nation may be, it ought never to be without an adequate stock of military knowledge for emergencies." In 1798 Congress authorized the raising of an additional regiment of artillerists and engineers, and increased the number of cadets from forty-eight to fifty-six. Provision was made for books and instruments, and the President was empowered to appoint four teachers of the arts and sciences necessary for the instruction of the corps; but no provision had yet been made for the collection of the corps at any one point, or for the erection of buildings suitable for the purpose. It was soon perceived that something more must be done for imparting systematic military instruction. Mr. McHenry, Secretary of War, reported (January, 1800) in favor of some permanent location for such an academy. Finally an act was passed (March 16, 1801) making the artillerists and engineers distinct corps. To the former forty cadets were attached, and to the latter ten cadets. Provision was made for their being stationed at West

Point, and that the corps should "constitute a military academy." The senior engineer officer present was constituted superintendent of the academy. In February, 1803, the President was empowered to employ one teacher of the French language and one teacher of drawing. The scale on which the Academy at West Point was established becoming too limited, President Jefferson called the attention of Congress to the matter. Early in 1808 Madison also called the attention of Congress to the subject, and an act was passed (April 27, 1812) for the reorganization of the Military Academy at West Point. By that act it was provided that, in addition to the teachers of French and drawing, there should be a professor of natural and experimental philosophy, of mathematics, and of engineering, with an assistant for each. Provision was also made for a chaplain, who was required to officiate as professor of geography, ethics, and history. The number of cadets was limited to two hundred and sixty. Thus the broad basis of the Military Academy as it exists to-day was laid. After the second war for independence (1812-15) the President recommended an enlargement of the institution and the establishment of "others in sections of the Union." Some measures were proposed looking to the founding of other military academies in the United States, but nothing of that kind was done. The first commander, or superintendent, of the academy was Major Jonathan Williams (April, 1802), assisted by Captain W. A. Barron. A general order, Sept. 4, 1816, prescribed the uniform of the cadets—the same as now worn, excepting the displacement of the hat and cockade by a fatigue-cap. It was not until 1818 that the academy was placed upon a system of regularity and efficiency. This was brought about, in a great degree, by Major Sylvanus Thayer, who had served with distinction in the late war and was made superintendent July 28, 1817.

West Point Military Academy, BOARD OF VISITORS AT. This board is appointed every year to review the studies of the cadets; pronounce upon their standing in the institution; observe the condition of the academy; recommend improvements in the methods of study and in the material condition of the institution, etc. In a word, it is essentially a board of inspection, which reports the results of its labors to the government. This board is composed of twelve members, of whom seven are appointed by the President, two by the President of the Senate, and three by the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

West Virginia. In the Virginia Secession Convention the members from the western or mountainous districts were nearly all Unionists. Before the adjournment of that convention the inhabitants of the mountain region had met at various places to consult upon public affairs. At the first of these, at Clarksburg, April 22, 1861, John S. Carlile, a member of the convention, offered a series of resolutions calling an assembly of delegates of the people at Wheeling, on May 13. They were adopted. Meetings

were held elsewhere. At a meeting at Kingwood, in Preston County (May 4), it was declared that the separation of western from eastern Virginia was essential to the maintenance of their liberties. They also resolved to so far defy the insurgent rulers of the state as to elect a representative in the national Congress. Similar sentiments were expressed at other meetings. The convention of delegates met at Wheeling on the appointed day. A large number of counties were represented by almost four hundred delegates. The chief topic discussed in the convention was the division of the state and the formation of a new one, composed of the forty or fifty counties of the mountain region, the inhabitants of which owned very few slaves, and were enterprising and thrifty. These counties were controlled by, and for the interests of, the great slaveholding region in eastern Virginia. There was remarkable unanimity of sentiment in the convention against longer submitting to this control, and in love for the Union. The convention was too informal to take action on the momentous question of the dismemberment of the state. By resolution, it condemned the Ordinance of Secession and called a provisional convention to assemble at the same place on the 11th of June following, if the obnoxious Ordinance of Secession should be ratified by the people. A central committee was appointed, who issued (May 22) an address to the people of northwestern Virginia. The Secessionists were thoroughly alarmed by these proceedings. Expecting an armed revolt in that section, the governor (Letcher) sent orders to a military commander of state troops at Grafton to seize arms at Wheeling, arm such men as might rally to his camp, and cut off telegraphic communication between Wheeling and Washington. He was ordered to destroy the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad if troops from Ohio or Pennsylvania should attempt to pass over it. The convention met June 11, with Arthur J. Boreman president. A committee was appointed to draw up a Bill of Rights. All allegiance to the Southern Confederacy was totally denied, and it was declared that all officers in Virginia who adhered to it were suspended and their offices vacated. They condemned the Ordinance of Secession, and called upon all citizens who had taken up arms for the Confederacy to lay them down. Measures were adopted for a provisional government and for the election of officers for a period of six months. This was not secession from Virginia, but purely revolutionary. On June 17 a declaration of independence of the old government of Virginia was adopted, and was signed by the fifty-six members present. On the 20th there was a unanimous vote in favor of the separation of western from eastern Virginia, and on that day the provisional government was organized by the appointment of Francis H. Pierpont, of Marion County, governor; Daniel Polsley, of Mason County, lieutenant-governor; and an executive council of five members. The governor immediately notified the President of the United States of insur-

rection in western Virginia, and asked aid to suppress it. He raised \$12,000 for the public use, pledging his own private fortune for the amount. A Legislature was elected and met at Wheeling on the 1st of July, and John S. Carlile and Waitman G. Willie were chosen to represent the "restored commonwealth" in the Senate of the United States. The convention reassembled on Aug. 20, and passed an ordinance for a new state, which was submitted to the people, and by them ratified. At a session of the convention on Nov. 27, the name of West Virginia was given to the new state. A new constitution was framed, which the people ratified on

May 3, 1862. On the same day the Legislature approved all of the proceedings in the matter, and established a new commonwealth. On July 20, 1863, West Virginia was admitted into the Union as a state, by act of Congress, which had been approved by the President, Dec.



STATE SEAL OF WEST VIRGINIA.

31, 1862. A state seal, with an appropriate device, was adopted, inscribed, "STATE OF WEST VIRGINIA. MONTANI SEMPER LIBERI" (Mountaineers are always free), and the new commonwealth took its place as the thirty-fifth state of the Union, covering an area of 23,000 square miles. Population in 1890, 762,794.

Western Boundaries of the English-American Colonies. The narrow-minded Hillsborough, Secretary of State for the Colonies, wishing, if possible, to blot out the settlements west of the Appalachian chain of mountains, and to extend an unbroken line of Indian frontier from Georgia to Canada, had issued repeated instructions to that effect, in order to make an impassable obstruction to emigration westward. These instructions were renewed with emphasis in 1763, when John Stuart, an agent faithful to his trust, had already carried the frontier line to the northern limit of North Carolina. He was now ordered to continue it to the Ohio, at the mouth of the Kanawha. By such a line all Kentucky, as well as the entire territory northwest of the Ohio, would be severed from the jurisdiction of Virginia and confirmed to the barbarians by treaties. Virginia strenuously opposed this measure; and, to thwart the negotiations of Stuart with the Indians, sent Thomas Walker as her commissioner to the congress of the Six Nations held at Fort Stanwix (which see) late in the autumn of 1763. There about three thousand Indians were present, who were loaded with generous gifts. They complied with the wishes of the several agents present, and the western boundary-line was established at the mouth of the Kanawha to meet Stuart's line on the south. From the Kanawha northward it followed the Ohio and Alleghany rivers, a branch of the Susquehanna, and so on to the junction of Canada and Wood creeks, tributaries of the Mohawk

River. Thus the Indian frontier was defined all the way from Florida almost to Lake Ontario; but Sir William Johnson, pretending to recognize a right of the Six Nations to a larger part of Kentucky, caused the line to be continued down the Ohio to the mouth of the Tennessee River, which stream was made to constitute the western boundary of Virginia.

Western Company, THE. John Law was the successor of Crozat in a commercial scheme in Louisiana. (See *Crozat and Louisiana*.) He formed a company under the sanction of the Regent of France (August, 1717), and it was called the Western Company. The grants made to it were for twenty-five years, and the sovereignty of all Louisiana—an undefined region—was given to the company. The sole conditions were homage to the French monarch and a gold crown at the beginning of every reign. With a capital of 40,000,000 livres, Law and his associates entered upon a great scheme of commerce and colonization. Armed vessels bearing troops and colonists were soon seen upon the ocean. Law appointed Bienville governor of the domain, and he selected the site of New Orleans for its capital, where, in February, 1718, he left fifty persons to clear the ground and to build. Great prosperity was promised. The shares of the company rose in value, and in May, 1719, Law obtained from the regent power to join with it the French East India Company, having the exclusive right of trading beyond the Cape of Good Hope. Then the name of the association was changed to "The Indian Company," and it was authorized to issue 50,000 new shares. It made concessions of land to private adventurers under the control of the company, and these sent out settlers. New establishments for trade were opened on the Mississippi, the Red, and the Missouri rivers, and these plantations proved to be permanent ones. Success caused Law to venture upon the gigantic scheme of paying off a large portion of the public debt of France through the operations of the company. It was proposed to take up, by the issue of company stock, government stock to the amount of 1,500,000,000 livres, in exchange for the privilege of collecting the revenues of the kingdom. The new shares were sought for by the French people with such avidity that 300,000 new shares were applied for when there were but 50,000 to distribute. The enlargement of currency and universal confidence in Law made every form of industry prosperous. But the attempt of a company of directors in Paris to manage a colony in America, the dishonesty of agents, the reliance for profit on mines that were never found and upon tobacco that was never cultivated, together with the wild spirit of speculation that convulsed all France and made it a nation of lunatics, soon brought the operations of the company to an end. Shares had risen from the par value of 500 livres to 5000 livres. When the purchasers at the latter rate began to buy something else besides shares the bonds quickly fell. Depreciation was rapid, and widespread ruin was the consequence. (See *Law's Bubble*.)

Western Department, THE, was created July 6, 1861, and General John C. Frémont was appointed the commander of it. It comprised the state of Illinois and the states and territories west of the Mississippi River and east of the Rocky Mountains, including New Mexico. Headquarters, St. Louis.

Western Frontiers, THE FRENCH ON THE. The movements of the English towards the waters of the Ohio (see *Ohio Land Company*) determined the French to strengthen their power in that region. They enlarged and made stronger their trading-post on the Niagara; obtained leave to build a fort in the Mohawk country; built strong vessels for Lake Ontario at Frontenac (now Kingston); established friendly relations with the Delawares and Shawnoese, who had been driven from Pennsylvania by the pressure of advancing settlements; and, under the instructions of the Marquis Duquesne, the successor of Joncaire (or Jonquiere), as governor of Canada, made vigorous preparations for the defence of French dominion west of the Alleghany Mountains. They burned the Miami village at Sandusky because they would trade with the English, and seized the persons and property of the white traders. Early the next year (1753) twelve hundred men from Montreal built a fort at Presque Isle (now Erie), on the southern shores of Lake Erie, whence they crossed the tributaries of the Ohio and established military posts at Le Boëuf, on the Venango (French Creek), now the village of Waterford, and another at Venango, at the junction of French Creek and the Alleghany River, now the village of Franklin. These facts having been reported to the Board of Trade, that body implored the king to cause orders to be issued to the governors of Pennsylvania and Virginia to repel force by force whenever the French were found within the undoubted limits of their provinces.

Western Lands, DISPOSITION OF. There was a "lion in the way" of the ratification of the Articles of Confederation (which see)—namely, the vexed question of the Western lands, within vague or undefined boundaries of states. The boundaries of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland—six of the thirteen—had boundaries exactly defined. These were "non-claimant states," Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, and the Carolinas extended, under their charters, to the Pacific Ocean, or to the Mississippi River since that had been established (1763) as the western boundary of British possessions in America. Georgia also claimed jurisdiction to the Mississippi; so, also, did New York, under color of certain alleged acknowledgments of her jurisdiction made during colonial times by the Six Nations, the conquerors, it was pretended, of the whole Western country between and including the Great Lakes and the Cumberland Mountains below the Ohio River. These were "claimant states." As all that vast territory was to be wrested from Great Britain by joint efforts, it was claimed that it ought to be joint property. The "claimant states" expected great revenues

from these Western lands that would pay their debts, and they strenuously adhered to their rights; while the landless, or "non-claimant, states" regarded with jealousy the prospect of the overflowing treasuries of their neighbors. The claimant states secured the insertion of a provision in the Articles of Confederation (which see) that no state should be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States. All the non-claimant states excepting Maryland reluctantly consented to this provision; the latter steadily refused to sign the articles while that provision was retained. New York led the way towards reconciliation by giving a discretionary power to her delegates in Congress (February, 1780) to cede to the Union that portion of her claim west of a north and south line drawn through the western extremity of Lake Ontario. The other claimant states were urged by the Congress to follow this example, under a guarantee (Sept. 6, 1780) that the lands so ceded should be disposed of for the common benefit, and, as they became peopled, should be formed into republican states to be admitted into the Union as peers of the others. Connecticut offered (Oct. 10, 1780) to cede her claims to the region west of Pennsylvania, excepting a broad tract south of Lake Erie, immediately adjoining Pennsylvania. This was afterwards known as the Connecticut Reserve. Virginia ceded to the United States (Dec. 31, 1780) all claim to the territory northwest of the Ohio, provided that state should be guaranteed the right to the remaining territory east of the Mississippi and north of 30° 30' north latitude. The New York delegates executed a deed to the United States (March 1, 1781) of the territory west of the line before mentioned; and on the same day the delegates from Maryland, authorized by the Assembly immediately after the Virginia cession, signed the Articles of Confederation. This completed the ratification of that fundamental law of the Union, and henceforth it was the supreme constitution until superseded by another and a better one.

Western Reserve (CONNECTICUT), OHIO. Connecticut claimed, by the terms of its royal charter, its title to lands west of it to the Pacific Ocean; but on Dec. 31, 1781, that state ceded to the United States all soil so claimed, excepting a large tract now containing several counties in northwestern Ohio. This became known as the Connecticut Western Reserve. It was ceded to the United States May 30, 1801, but its title is perpetuated in the names of institutions in that region. The fine city of Cleveland, on Lake Erie, is within its domain. The tract contained 3,666,921 acres.

Western Reserve, TROOPS FROM THE. During the autumn of 1812, while Harrison was making his way northward, northwestern Ohio, and especially the Western Reserve (which see), was alive with excitement. General Wadsworth, part owner of the reserve, and commander of the four divisions of the Ohio militia, was active and efficient in promoting measures for the defence of the frontier. He had

been an active soldier of the Revolution, and he entered upon his new duties with great energy, although sixty-five years of age, having for his aides-de-camp the late Elisha Whittlesey, of Canfield, O., and the late Benjamin Tappen, of Steubenville, O. When intelligence of the surrender of Hull reached General Wadsworth at Canfield, and the alarm concerning the imminence of invasion stirred the people, he issued orders to the brigadiers of his division to muster the militia. They gathered with great alacrity, and marched in large numbers towards the frontier. At Cleveland they met some of Hull's paroled soldiers, who had just landed, and whose stories increased the panic, and families along the lake fled eastward or towards the Ohio River. From Cleveland Wadsworth sent word to the War Department that he had called out three thousand men of his division; but they were destitute of equipments, and he asked for a supply. Without waiting for a reply (the exigency was great), he appointed commissioners of supply, and gave receipts in the name of the government. His course was sanctioned by the department. He was joined, Aug. 26, by a large body of troops under General Simon Perkins. He sent Perkins forward, and very soon these hardy men of the Reserve and its vicinity opened a road, with great labor, to the rapids of the Maumee for the facile transportation of troops and supplies to Harrison's Army of the Northwest. This was a great public service.

Western States, MOVEMENTS IN THE (1861). Ohio took measures for the defence of the Union very early. The Legislature pledged (Jan. 14, 1861) the entire resources of the state for that purpose. That pledge was reiterated two months later, when, on the day Fort Sumter was attacked (April 12), an act for the enrolment of the militia of the state was passed and provision made for mustering troops into the service of the United States. At the end of the twenty days allowed by the President (see *President Lincoln's First Call for Troops*) a stirring order was sent forth by the adjutant-general of the state (H. B. Carrington) for the organization of 100,000 men as a reserve force. The people contributed freely of their means for fitting-out troops and providing for their families. Captain George B. McClellan (then in the Civil Service) was commissioned a major-general and made commander of all the Ohio forces, and camps for rendezvous and military instruction were formed. So Ohio prepared for a great war.—*Indiana* moved as promptly and vigorously. The vigilant governor, Morton, perceived a heavy storm approaching. All the means at command for arming his state militia when the President called for troops were five thousand second-class muskets which he had procured from Washington. The militia were unorganized, and there was no adjutant-general. There was at that time an energetic young lawyer (Lewis Wallace) residing at Crawfordsville who had served in the army in Mexico at the age of nineteen years and possessed military spirit and genius. The govern-

or called him to his aid. He promptly responded in person (April 16). "I want to appoint you adjutant-general of the state," said the governor. "The President has called for six regiments to put down a rising rebellion, and I want you to assist me." Wallace inquired for the office of the adjutant-general, for the books, and the law defining the duties. "There are none," replied the governor. "Your immediate business is the raising of six regiments." "Have you objections to giving me one of them after they are raised?" asked Wallace. "You shall have one of them," was the answer. Such was the unprepared condition for the exigency of a state which afterwards sent 200,000 troops to the field. Three days after the above conversation Wallace reported the sixty companies for the six regiments complete and in Camp Morton, adjoining Indianapolis. He reported, in addition, more than eighty companies organized and ready to move. Within the next twenty-four hours Wallace had organized his own regiment—Eleventh Regiment Indiana Volunteers (Zouaves)—ready for marching orders. Within four days after the President's call for 75,000 troops, more than 10,000 Indians were in camp.—*Illinois*, under the vigorous leadership of Governor Yates, was early upon the war-path. On receiving the President's call for troops, the governor issued a stirring appeal to the people; and in less than twenty-four hours afterwards 4000 men reported themselves ready and anxious for service. By the 20th the quota of the state (six regiments) was more than filled. Of these, 2000 were sent to Cairo, at the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, a place of great strategic importance during the war that ensued. The state lost an able representative and advocate for suppressing the rising rebellion by the death of Senator Douglas (June 3), whose last coherent utterances were exhortations to his children and his countrymen to stand by the Constitution and the government. The Legislature of Illinois appropriated \$3,000,000 for war purposes, organized its militia, and sent thousands to the field.—*Michigan* was equally aroused by the call of the President, who asked for only one regiment from that state. Within ten days five regiments were ready for the field and more were forming. Governor Blair called the Legislature together (May 7), when liberal appropriations were made for war purposes. The Legislature of Wisconsin, under the lead of Governor Randall, was equally liberal. And these patriotic examples in furnishing men and money for the war were followed by Minnesota and Iowa. Before the close of 1861 Minnesota sent more soldiers to the field than its entire population numbered eleven years before.

Western Virginia, EARLY MILITARY EVENTS IN (1861). Governor Letcher had concentrated troops at Grafton, on the Baltimore and Ohio Railway, under Colonel Porterfield. A camp of Ohio volunteers had assembled opposite Wheeling. George B. McClellan was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers and assigned to the Department of the Ohio, which included

western Virginia and Indiana. A regiment of loyal Virginians had been formed at Wheeling, and B. F. Kelley, a native of New Hampshire, and once a resident of Wheeling, was invited to be its leader. It rendezvoused at the camp of the volunteers. Having visited Indianapolis and assured the assembled troops there that they would soon be called upon to fight for their country, McClellan issued an address (May 26, 1861) to the Union citizens of western Virginia; and then, in obedience to orders, he proceeded with volunteers—Kelley's regiment and other Virginians—to attempt to drive the Confederate forces out of that region and advance on Harper's Ferry. He assured the people that the Ohio and Indiana troops under him should respect their rights. To his soldiers he said, "Your mission is to cross the frontier, to protect the majesty of the law, and secure our brethren from the grasp of armed traitors." Immediately afterwards Kelley and his regiment crossed over to Wheeling and marched on Grafton. Porterfield fled in alarm, with about fifteen hundred followers (one third cavalry), and took post at Philippi, about sixteen miles distant. The Ohio and Indiana troops followed Kelley, and were nearly all near Grafton on June 2. There the whole Union force was divided into two columns—one under Kelley, the other under Colonel E. Dumont, of Indiana. These marched upon Philippi by different routes, over rugged hills. Kelley and Porterfield had a severe skirmish at Philippi. The insurgents, attacked by the other column, were already flying in confusion. The Union troops captured Porterfield's official papers, baggage, and arms. Colonel Kelley was severely wounded, and Colonel Dumont assumed the command of the combined columns. They retired to Grafton, where for a while the headquarters of the National troops in northwestern Virginia were established. So the Civil War was begun in western Virginia.

Western Virginia, SERVICES OF NATIONAL TROOPS IN. After the dispersion of Garnett's forces in western Virginia (see *Rich Mountain, Battle of, and Carricksford, Battle at*), events seemed to prophesy that the war was ended in that region. General Cox had been successful in driving ex-Governor Wise and his followers out of the Kanawha region. He had crossed the Ohio at the mouth of the Guyandotte River, captured Barboursville, and pushed on to the Kanawha valley. Wise was there, below Charlestown. His outpost below was driven to his camp by fifteen hundred Ohio troops under Colonel Lowe. The fugitives gave such an account of Cox's numbers that the general and all the insurgents fled (July 20, 1861), and did not halt until they reached Lewisburg, the capital of Greenbrier County. The news of Garnett's disaster and Wise's incompetence so dispirited his troops that large numbers left him. He was reinforced and outranked by John B. Floyd (late United States Secretary of War), who took the chief command. McClellan regarded the war as over in western Virginia. "We have completely annihilated the enemy in western Virginia," he said in an address to

his troops. "Our loss is about thirteen killed, and not more than forty wounded; while the enemy's loss is not far from two hundred killed, and the number of prisoners we have taken will amount to at least one thousand. We have captured seven of the enemy's guns." Rosecrans succeeded McClellan in the chief command in that region, the former having been called to the command of the Army of the Potomac. But the Confederates were not willing to surrender to the Nationals the granaries that would be needful to supply the troops in eastern Virginia without a struggle, and General Robert E. Lee was placed in the chief command of the Confederate forces there, superseding the incompetents.

Weston's Colony. Mr. Weston, an active member of the Plymouth Company, sold out his interest in the affair and entered upon speculation on his own account. Sixty men, chiefly indentured servants, without women, were sent to the Plymouth colony to make a new and independent settlement not far away. They subsisted for two or three months on the bounty of the Plymouth people, and committed thefts and other crimes. Late in the year (1622) they established themselves at Wissagasset (now Weymouth), on the south shore of Massachusetts Bay, where they wasted their provisions and were reduced to great distress. They dispersed in small parties, begging or stealing from the Indians, who finally resolved to destroy the unwelcome intruders. At about that time Edward Winslow visited and healed the sick Massasoit, who, in gratitude, gave his healer warning of the plot. (See *Massasoit*.) Winslow hastened back and laid the matter before the governor, when Captain Standish was sent with eight men, under the pretext of trade, to ascertain the truth and warn the Wissagasset men of their danger. He was ordered, if the natives were hostile, to bring back the head of Wituwamut, a noted warrior, mentioned as the leader of the conspirators. Standish found the Indians full of defiance. Taking this as an evidence of their guilt, Standish, being with the obnoxious chief and three of his followers in a cabin, and having his men with him, closed the door, and at a given signal seized the knife of one of the warriors and stabbed Wituwamut to the heart. Two of the others were slain, and the third—a boy—was hanged. The Indians, alarmed, fled to the swamps, and several more of them were killed. Then the ill-favored plantation at Wissagasset was abandoned. Wituwamut's head was carried to Plymouth upon a pole and set up as a warning to the other Indians. This savage work distressed the good Robinson, who wrote to the Plymouth colonists, "Oh, how happy a thing would it have been that you had converted some before you killed any."

Weymouth, CAPTAIN GEORGE, VOYAGE OF. On March 5, 1605, Weymouth sailed from England for the coast of Maine. He came to anchor, May 17, near the Island of Monhegan, twelve miles south of Pemaquid. Then he en-

tered some of the bays and rivers of Maine, and saw (possibly) the White Mountains of New Hampshire. There was mutual distrust between Weymouth and the Indians, and the former decided to keep no faith with the latter. Five of the Indians who ventured on board the vessel were carried off to England, three of whom were given to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, at Plymouth; the other two were sent to Sir John Popham, of London. The curiosity excited by these Indians in London doubtless gave the idea expressed by Shakespeare in *The Tempest*, in which Trinculo says of the London people: "Any strange beast there makes a man: when they will not give a doit to relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out ten to see a dead Indian." Weymouth's kidnapping spread distrust and anger wide among the Indians on the Eastern coast. One of the Indians carried away came, in May, 1607, as guide and interpreter for a colony of one hundred and twenty persons, sent out in two vessels, commanded by Sir George Popham, to plant a colony in eastern New England. (See *Popham Colony*.)

Wheaton, FRANK, was born in Providence, R. I., May 8, 1833. A civil-engineer, he was employed in the Mexican boundary surveys (1850-55), and, in the latter year, became a lieutenant of United States cavalry, and was employed against the Indians. He was made captain of the First Cavalry early in 1861, and was lieutenant-colonel of the Second Rhode Island Volunteers at the battle of Bull's Run. He served through the campaign on the Peninsula, and fought in the battles of Manassas, Antietam, and Fredericksburg (which see); commanded a brigade at Gettysburg; was active in the campaign against Richmond in 1864, and commanded a division of the Sixth Corps in the Shenandoah valley under Sheridan. He went with Sheridan to the siege of Petersburg, and was at the surrender of Lee. He was breveted brigadier and major general of volunteers, and, in March, 1865, received the brevet of major-general United States Army, for "meritorious services during the rebellion." He was made lieutenant-colonel of infantry United States Army, in July, 1866. He held (1893) the rank of brigadier-general in the regular army.

Wheaton, HENRY, LL.D., diplomatist, was born in Providence, R. I., Nov. 27, 1785; died at Dorchester, Mass., March 11, 1848. He graduated at Brown University in 1802; studied law abroad, and began its practice at Providence. In 1812 he removed to New York, where he edited the *National Advocate*, in which the subject of neutral rights was discussed. From 1816 until 1827 he was reporter of the Supreme Court of the United States, and published twelve volumes of its decisions. In the New York Constitutional Convention of 1821, he was a prominent member, and was one of the commissioners to revise the statutes of the State of New York. From 1827 to 1835 he was chargé d'affaires to Denmark; resident minister at Berlin from 1835 to 1837, and, from 1837 to 1846, minister-plenipotentiary. He returned to New York in 1847,

and was made a professor of international law in Harvard University, but died before the time appointed for his installation. Mr. Wheaton was a voluminous writer upon various subjects, and as a reporter he was unrivalled. In 1843 he became a corresponding member of the French Institute, and the next year a foreign member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin. He wrote biography, history, and essays upon law. He is most widely known for his *History of the Laws of Nations in Europe and America from the Earliest Times to the Treaty of Washington* (a prize essay, written for the French Institute).

Wheeler's Raid in Tennessee. General Wheeler, Bragg's chief of cavalry, crossed the Tennessee River at Bridgeport with about 4000 mounted men, pushed up the Sequatchie valley (see *National Troops at Chattanooga*), and burned a National supply-train of nearly 1000 wagons (Oct. 2, 1863), on its way to Chattanooga. Just as he had finished his destructive work, Colonel E. M. McCook attacked him. The battle continued until night, when Wheeler, discomfited, moved off in the darkness and attacked another supply-train at McMinnville. This was captured and destroyed, and 600 men were made prisoners. Then, after the mischief was done, he was attacked (Oct. 4) by General George Crook, with 2000 cavalry. There was another sharp fight until dark, when Wheeler withdrew and pushed on towards Murfreesborough. He could do nothing, and turned southward, with his relentless pursuers at his heels, doing all the mischief in his power. At Farmington, below the Duck River, Crook struck him, cut his force in two, captured four of his guns and 1000 small-arms, with 200 of his men, besides his wounded, and drove him in confusion into northern Alabama. Wheeler made his way back to Bragg's army, with a loss of 2000 men, but had captured nearly as many and destroyed National property of the value, probably, of \$3,000,000.

Wheeler's Raid near Atlanta. Towards the close of July, 1864, Hood, commanding the Confederates at Atlanta, sent Wheeler, with the greater part of his cavalry, to capture National supplies, burn bridges, and break up railways in Sherman's rear. He moved swiftly, with about 8000 horsemen. He struck and broke the railway at Calhoun, captured 900 horses in that vicinity, and seriously menaced Sherman's depot of supplies at Allatoona, at the middle of August. This was at the time when Sherman was about to make his movement to flank Hood out of Atlanta. This movement brought Wheeler back. After the evacuation of Atlanta, Hood having crossed to the north side of the Chattahoochee, Wheeler swept around Allatoona, and, appearing before Dalton, demanded its surrender. The little garrison held out until Wheeler was driven away by General Steedman, who came down from Chattanooga. Then he pushed into East Tennessee, made a circuit around Knoxville, by way of Strawberry Plains, crossed the Clinch River, went over the Cumberland

Mountains, and appeared before McMinnsville, Murfreesborough, and Lebanon. National cavalry, under Rousseau, Steedman, and Granger, was on the alert, and soon drove the raiders into northern Alabama, by way of Florence. Although Wheeler had destroyed much property, his damage to Sherman's communications was very slight.

Wheelock, ELEAZAR, D.D., founder and first president of Dartmouth College, was born at Windham, Conn., April 22, 1711; died at Hanover, N. H., April 24, 1779. He graduated at Yale College in 1733; was pastor of a Congregational Church at Lebanon, Conn., in 1735, and remained there thirty-five years. He opened a school there in 1754, in which was a bright Indian pupil, Samson Occum. His proficiency led to the establishment of "Moore's Indian School," which eventually became Dartmouth College (which see).

Wheelwright, JOHN, was born in Lincolnshire, Eng., about 1592; died at Salisbury, Mass., Nov. 15, 1679. He was a graduate of Cambridge University, Eng., and a classmate of Cromwell. Being driven from his church by Archbishop Laud, in 1636, for nonconformity, he came to Boston and was chosen pastor of a church in (present) Braintree. Mr. Wheelwright seconded the theological views of Anne Hutchinson (which see), and publicly defended them, for which offence he was banished from the Massachusetts Bay Colony. He founded Exeter (which see), on a branch of the Piscataqua River; and when, five years later, that town was declared to be within the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, he removed, with his family, to Wells, Me. In 1646 he returned to Massachusetts, a reconciliation having been effected; and in 1657 he went to England. He returned in 1660, and became pastor of a church at Salisbury, Mass., in May, 1662.

Whigs and Tories. The word "Whig," in politics, is derived from "whig," or "whey," which the country people in the interior of England drank at their religious meetings. As these people were nonconformists, in Church and State, in the reign of Charles II. and James II., the term Whig came to be applied to all opposers of the throne and of the hierarchy. "Tory" seems to have been first applied to the wild Irish insurgents at the time of a massacre of Protestants in Ireland in 1640-41. The origin of the word is unknown. The name was applied to all High-Churchmen and royalists, and hence the name of Whig was given to all opposers of the royal government, and Tory to its supporters. This is the commonly received statement as truth concerning these political names. Another account says that the drivers of horses in certain parts of Scotland used the word "whiggamore" in driving, and were called "Whiggamores," and, shorter, "Whigs." An insurrectionary movement from that region, when about 6000 rude people marched on Edinburgh, was called the "Whiggamore inroad," and ever afterwards those who opposed the court were called Whigs. These distinctions were first

used in the English-American colonies about the year 1770.

Whipping in the Colonies was a very frequent method of punishment, especially in New England, for many of the minor offences against the good order of society. The stocks, the pillory, and the whipping-post were inherited by the colonists from England. In Massachusetts whipping was used almost daily, somewhere, as a theological argument against heretics, as well as a correction of social vices in which fines and imprisonments were inoperative. Whipping was the common punishment for Quakers in New England, without distinction of age or sex, especially after King Charles frowned upon the infliction of the death-penalty upon the Friends in Massachusetts. Whenever they found a Quaker preaching to the people the offender was lashed (often with a triple-knotted cord). Men and women were tied to the cart's tail and scourged from town to town. Three women preached in Dover, N. H., late in December, 1662, and were driven, from constable to constable, through several towns, receiving ten lashes from each, on their bared backs, though the weather was bitter cold and the snow deep. At one place, two bystanders, expressing sympathy for the poor women, were put into the stocks to suppress their humanity. In Cambridge, Mass., a woman, sixty-five years of age, was cast into jail, without food, and nothing to lie upon. A Friend brought her some milk, when he was fined £5 and put into the same jail. This old woman was whipped through three towns. She returned to Boston several times, and was whipped each time. She was last whipped there on the day when the active persecutor, John Endicott, was buried, in 1665. She attended the funeral, and was imprisoned immediately afterwards. Persecutions, in various forms—fines, stripes, imprisonments, personal mutilations, and injuries by mobs—were visited upon the Quakers everywhere; but only among the rigid Puritans of Massachusetts was the penalty of death ever inflicted upon them.

Whipple, ABRAHAM, was born at Providence, R. I., Sept. 26, 1733; died at Marietta, O., May



ABRAHAM WHIPPLE.

26, 1819. He went to sea in early life, commanded a ship in the West India trade, and in

1759-60 was captain of a privateer, capturing in a single cruise twenty-six French vessels. His vessel was called the *Game Cock*. In June, 1772, Whipple commanded the volunteers who burned the *Gaspee* (which see) in Narraganset Bay. In 1775 he was put in command of two armed vessels fitted out by Rhode Island, and was given the title of commodore. With these he drove Sir James Wallace, in command of the frigate *Rose*, out of Narraganset Bay. (See *Wallace, Sir James*.) He was in command of a flo-tilia in the harbor of Charleston at the time of the siege and capture of that city in 1780, when he lost his vessels, was made a prisoner, and so continued during the remainder of the war. On the formation of the Ohio Company he took his family and settled at Marietta.

Whipple, AMIEL W., was born at Greenwich, Mass., in 1817; died at Washington, D. C., May 7, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1841. Before the Civil War he was engaged, as topographical engineer, in ascertaining the northern boundary between New York and Vermont, and was an assistant of the Mexican Boundary Commission in 1849. Early in 1861 he was made chief-engineer on the staff of General McDowell, and was in the first battle of Bull's Run. In April, 1862, he was on General McClellan's staff, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He was assigned to duty at Washington as commander of the defences of that city. Having asked to be sent to the field, his division was assigned to the Ninth Corps. He fought gallantly at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, and was mortally wounded in battle at the latter place, dying four days afterwards.

Whiskey Insurrection, THE. Resistance to the excise on domestic spirits appeared in various places with more or less strength. In the region of the Regulators (which see) and Tory stronghold in North Carolina during the Revolution there was very strong opposition, but resistance far more formidable was made in the four counties of Pennsylvania west of the Alleghany Mountains. These counties had been chiefly settled by the Scotch-Irish, who were mostly Presbyterians, men of great energy, decision, and restive under the restraints of law and order. A lawless spirit prevailed among them. They converted their rye crops into whiskey, and when the excise laws imposed duties on domestic distilled liquors the people disregarded them. A new excise act, passed in the spring of 1794, was specially unpopular; and when, soon after the adjournment of Congress, officers were sent to enforce the act in the western districts of Pennsylvania they were resisted by the people in arms. The insurrection became general throughout all that region, stimulated by leading men in the community. In the vicinity of Pittsburgh many outrages were committed. Buildings were burned, mails were robbed, and government officers were insulted and abused. One officer was stripped of all his clothing, smeared with warm tar, and the contents of a feather bolster emptied upon him. The local militia formed a part of the armed

mob, at one time numbering between six and seven thousand men. The insurgent spirit spread into the neighboring counties of Virginia, and Washington and his cabinet perceived with alarm this imitation of the lawlessness of French politics. The situation was alarming and needed immediate attention. (See *Excise Law, Violent Opposition to the*.) He observed that the leaders in the insurrection were connected with the Democratic secret societies under the influence of the French Revolutionists. How widespread and insidious was this conspiracy against the laws of the country he knew not, but he was satisfied that only the leaders of these societies were aware of a traitorous plan; for he believed, with justice, that the great body of the insurgents were patriotic citizens. He took prompt measures to suppress the insurrection. Governor Mifflin refused to call out the militia of Pennsylvania, and Washington resolved to act with vigor. He issued a proclamation requiring the insurgents to desist; and under his authority as President of the United States (see *Militia, Organization of the*) he called upon the governors of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and Virginia for a body of thirteen thousand men, afterwards raised to fifteen thousand. The insurgent counties could bring sixteen thousand fighting men into the field. The troops were placed under the command of General Henry Lee, of Virginia, and their movement was fixed for Sept. 1. Meanwhile three commissioners were sent to the insurgent counties with discretionary authority to arrange for a submission to the laws. Two other commissioners were appointed by the State of Pennsylvania. The two boards crossed the mountains, and found the leading insurgents in convention at Parkinson's Ferry. Near by stood a liberty-pole, with the legend "Liberty, and no Excise! No asylum for cowards and traitors!" A committee of sixty was appointed, and a committee of fifteen met the commissioners at Pittsburgh. Among them were the leaders—Bradford, Marshall, Cook, Gallatin, and Brackenridge, a lawyer of Pittsburgh. Terms of submission were agreed to; to be ratified, however, by the votes of the people. There was still opposition, but the alacrity with which the President's call for militia was responded to settled the matter. The troops were moving, and complete submission was the result. A final convention at Parkinson's Ferry (Oct. 24, 1794) passed resolutions of submission to authority, that excise officers might safely proceed to their business, and that all excise duties would be paid. Gallatin, in the Assembly of Pennsylvania, in an able speech (December, 1794), admitted his "political sin" in the course he had taken in the insurrectionary movements. The government was strengthened by it. The cost of the insurrection to the national government was full \$1,500,000.

Whistler, GEORGE W., engineer, was born at Fort Wayne, Ind., May 19, 1800; died at St. Petersburg, April 7, 1849. He graduated at West Point in 1819, and resigned in 1833. He engaged in the construction of railroads in this country, and in 1842 became chief-engineer of the St. Pe-

tersburg and Moscow (Russia) Railroad, which he was engaged in constructing and equipping as sole superintendent. He was also employed in constructing extensive dock-yards at St. Petersburg.

White, ANTHONY WALTON, was born in Virginia in 1751; died in New Brunswick, N. J., Feb. 10, 1803. In February, 1776, he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the Third New Jersey Regiment, and was in command of cavalry in South Carolina in 1780. He and most of his command were captured at Lanneau's Ferry in May of that year. Colonel White was greatly esteemed by Washington, who in 1798 chose him as one of his brigadiers of the Provisional Army.

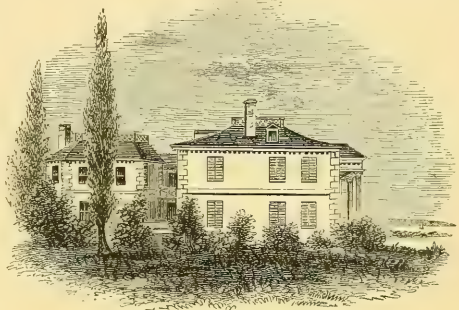
White House, THE. The official residence of the President of the United States at the national capital is built of freestone and painted white, and is usually designated, particularly in political language, as "The White House." It is in the west part of the city of Washington, a mile and a half from the Capitol. It is two stories in height, one hundred and seventy feet in length, and eighty-six feet in depth. The corner-stone was laid in 1792, and it was first occupied by President Adams in the year 1800. It was burned by the British in 1814, and was restored and reoccupied in 1817.

White House, THE, IN VIRGINIA. Before the battle at Williamsburg (which see) General Franklin had been ordered, with a force from Yorktown, to flank the Confederates, but it was detained so long that it failed to effect its purpose. On the day of the battle (May 5, 1862) it moved, and arrived at the head of the York River that night, and the next day some Nationals encountered Johnston's rear-guard in the woods. After a conflict of three or four hours the Confederates were defeated. In this affair the Nationals lost one hundred and ninety-four men, mostly New-Yorkers; the loss of the Confederates was small. Near the White House—the estate that belonged to Mrs. Washington, on the Pamunkey, one of the streams that form the York River—Franklin was enabled to establish a permanent and important base of supplies for McClellan's army. The main army, meanwhile, moved up the Peninsula, and the general-in-chief and the advance of the main army arrived at the White House, about eighteen miles from Richmond, on May 16. The wife of General Robert E. Lee was a granddaughter of Mrs. Washington and owner of the White House estate. She was there, with a part of her family, when the Nationals approached, and fled towards Richmond, but was brought back. Under the impression that this was the house in which Washington resided a while after his marriage, it was carefully guarded as a pious relic of the Father of his Country; but when it was found that the white house sanctified by the presence of Washington had been burned more than thirty years before, all reverence for it was dismissed.

White, PEREGRINE, the first child of English parents born in New England, was a son of Will-

iam and Susanna White, born in the *Mayflower* while she lay in Cape Cod Bay, about Nov. 20, 1620. He died at Marshfield, Mass., July 22, 1704. He had borne civil and military offices in the colony.

White Plains, BATTLE AT. General Howe durst not attack the intrenched American camp on Harlem Heights, so he attempted to gain the rear of Washington's army, and hem them in on the upper part of Manhattan Island. To do this he landed a considerable force at Throgg's Point, Westchester County, and sent armed ships up the Hudson to cut off supplies for the Americans by water from the north and west. Perceiving the gathering of danger, Washington called a council of war at his headquarters on Harlem Heights, which was the deserted mansion of Roger Morris (yet standing in 1880), who



MORRIS'S HOUSE.

married Mary Phillipse. (See *Washington and Mary Phillipse*.) Morris espoused the cause of the crown, and had fled from his mansion with his family. At that council, held Oct. 16, 1776, it was determined to extend the army beyond the King's Bridge into Westchester County, abandoning the island, excepting the strong work known as Fort Washington, on the highest point of the island. Arranged in four divisions, under Generals Lee, Heath, Sullivan, and Lincoln, the army concentrated at the village of White Plains, and formed an intrenched camp. The two armies were each about thirteen thousand strong. On the morning of the 28th of October, after a series of skirmishes, one thousand six hundred men from Delaware and Maryland had taken post on Chatterton's Hill, a lofty eminence west of the Bronx River (a small stream), and to these General McDougall led reinforcements, with two pieces of cannon under Captain Alexander Hamilton, and took the chief command there. Washington, with the rest of the army, was on the lower ground just north of the village. The British army advanced to the attack in two divisions, the right led by Sir Henry Clinton and the left by Generals De Heister and Erskine. Howe was with the latter. He had moved with great caution since his landing. Inclining his army to the left, he planted almost twenty field-pieces on the slope south of the village, and under cover of these a bridge was constructed, and British and German troops

passed the Bronx and attacked the Americans on Chatterton's Hill. Hamilton's little battery made them recoil at first, but, being reinforced, they drove the Americans from their position. McDougall led his troops to Washington's camp, leaving the British in possession of the hill. Washington's breastworks were composed of corn-stalks covered rather hastily and lightly by earth; but they appeared so formidable that Howe durst not attack them, but waited for reinforcements. Just as they appeared a severe storm of wind and rain set in. Washington, perceiving Howe's advantage, withdrew under

orders in England in April, 1772. Returning to Philadelphia, he became assistant minister of Christ Church and St. Peter's, and in April, 1779, was chosen rector of those churches. He was elected chaplain to Congress at York, Penn., in 1778. Dr. White presided at the first convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America in 1785, and the constitution of that Church was written by him. The diocese of Pennsylvania elected him bishop in 1786, and he was consecrated by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Feb. 4, 1787, returning to Philadelphia on Easter-day. Bishop White was very active in the Church and

in society. He was president of the Philadelphia Bible Society, of the Dispensary, of the Prison Society, and of the societies for the benefit of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind. He wrote, and published in 1820, *Memoirs of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States*.

Whitefield, GEORGE, was an exceedingly earnest worker for the good of souls. He was born in Gloucester, Eng., Dec. 16,



CHATTERTON'S HILL, FROM THE RAILWAY STATION, 1850.

cover of darkness, in the night of Oct. 31, behind intrenchments on the hills of North Castle, towards the Croton River. Howe did not follow; but, falling back, encamped on the heights of Fordham. The loss of the Americans in the skirmishes on the 26th of October and the battle on the 28th did not exceed, probably, three hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners; that of the British was about the same. Washington occupied as his headquarters while at White Plains a house on the east side of the road about two miles above the village. It was then in the deep solitude of the forest.

White, WILLIAM, D.D., Protestant bishop of the diocese of Pennsylvania, was born in Philadelphia, April 4, 1748; died there, July 17, 1836.



WILLIAM WHITE.

1714; died at Newburyport, Mass., Sept. 30, 1770. He was a religious enthusiast in very early life, fasting twice a week for thirty-six hours, and at the age of eighteen became a member of the club in which the denomination of Methodists took its rise. He became intimately associated in religious matters with John and Charles Wesley. In 1736 he was ordained deacon, and preached with such extraordinary effect the next Sunday that a complaint was made that he had driven fifteen persons mad. The same year the Wesleys accompanied Oglethorpe to Georgia, and in 1737 John Wesley invited Whitefield to join him in his work in America. He came in May, 1738; and after laboring four months, and perfecting plans for founding an orphan-house at Savannah, he returned to England to receive priest's orders and to collect funds for the carrying-out of his benevolent plans. With more than \$5000 collected he returned to Savannah, and there founded an orphan-house and school, laying the first brick himself for the building, March 25, 1740. He named it "Bethesda"—a house of mercy. It afterwards became eminently useful. Mr. Whitefield was early accustomed to preach to large congregations assembled in the open air. He travelled and preached much in America. On Boston Common he addressed twenty thousand people at one time, and was distinctly heard by all. Independent in his theology, he did not entirely agree with anybody. Although he was active in the establishment of the Methodist denomination, he disagreed with Wesley on points of doctrine, and was finally an evangelist without the discipline of any denomination. Whitefield crossed the Atlantic many times, and made tours in America from Georgia to New Hampshire. In September, 1769, he

He graduated at Philadelphia College in 1765, studied theology, and was admitted to priest's

started on his seventh tour there, and the day before his death he preached two hours at Exeter, N. H., and the same evening addressed a crowd in the open air at Newburyport. He died of asthma the next day, and was buried under the pulpit of the Federal Street Church in that town. In 1741 Mr. Whitefield married a widow, whose death in 1768, his friends said, "Set his mind much at rest."

Whitefield's Orphan-house. The heart of Whitefield was touched by the condition of children in Georgia who had lost their parents, and he resolved to found an orphan-asylum near Savannah. (See *Whitefield, George*.) To collect money for that purpose he took a religious tour through England and the colonies, preaching with fervid eloquence to crowds of attentive listeners. Having collected funds, the orphan-house was established (1740) about nine miles from Savannah, and was called "Bethesda"—house of mercy. The project was first proposed to Whitefield by his friend Charles Wesley, who, with his brother John, had been in Georgia for a season. While the house was being built, Whitefield, in a large house he had hired in Savannah, began the good work among the orphan children and deserving poor, opening a school for them. At one time his family consisted of between sixty and seventy. He also erected an infirmary, in which many sick people were taken care of without cost. The great orphan-house finished, the orphan children were gathered there, and in due time were installed in comfortable homes. Attached to the house was a considerable plantation, which was managed with prudence. The place was a healthy one—"Not above one," wrote the founder in 1746, "and that a little child, has died out of our family [of twenty-six] since it removed to Bethesda." "The house," he wrote, "is a noble, commodious building, and everything sweetly adapted for bringing up youth."

Whiting, WILLIAM HENRY CHASE, was born in Massachusetts in 1825; died on Governor's Island, harbor of New York, March 10, 1865. He graduated at West Point in 1845, entered the Engineer Corps, and in February, 1861, left the army and entered the Confederate service, where in he was made chief-engineer, with the rank of major, in the Army of the Shenandoah, under General Joseph E. Johnston. He was a brigadier-general in the battle of Bull's Run. In 1863 he was made a major-general. He built Fort Fisher, at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, and was in command during both attacks upon it. (See *Fort Fisher, Capture of*.) He was severely wounded, and was made prisoner by General Terry. Of these wounds he died.

Whitney, ELI, was born at Westborough, Mass., Dec. 8, 1765; died at New Haven, Conn., Jan. 8, 1825. He graduated at Yale College in 1792. Largely by the earnings of his own hands he obtained a collegiate education. In the year of his graduation he went to Georgia, became an inmate of the family of Mrs. General Greene, and there invented his cotton-gin, which gave a wonderful impulse to the cultivation of the cot-

ton-plant, rendering it an enormous item in the foreign and domestic commerce of the United States. (See *Whitney's Cotton-gin*.) By theft and injustice he was long deprived of the fruits of his labor. The Legislature of South Carolina voted him \$50,000, which, after vexatious delays and lawsuits, was finally paid. North Carolina allowed him a percentage for the use of the gin for five years. Congress, through the influence of the representatives of cotton-growing communities, having refused to renew his patent, he engaged in the manufacture of fire-arms for the government during the War of 1812-15, and finally gained a fortune. He applied his inventions to other manufactures of iron and steel. His factory was at Whitneyville, near New Haven.

Whitney's Cotton-gin. The seeds of the cotton raised in the United States adhered so firmly to the fibre that it was difficult to separate them from it. The seeds were separated from the cotton-wool by the slow process of picking by human fingers, which was chiefly performed by negro women and children. The separation of one pound of the wool from the seeds was regarded as a good day's work for one woman. So limited was the production on account of the labor that even high prices did not stimulate its cultivation, and the entire cotton crop in the United States in 1791 was only about 2,000,000 pounds. The following year Eli Whitney, a young schoolmaster of Massachusetts, accepted an invitation to teach the children of a Georgia planter. He arrived there too late, and the widow of General Greene, living near, gave the young stranger a home in her house. He displayed much inventive genius, which Mrs. Greene encouraged. One day some gentlemen at her table expressed a regret that there was no machine wherewith the cotton-wool could be readily separated from the seed. "Apply to my young friend here," said Mrs. Greene; "he can make anything." Whitney had then never seen a cotton-seed with wool adhering. He was furnished with some. With rude plantation tools, he constructed a machine that performed the work. This was the origin of the saw-gin, which, with some improvements, is universally used on American plantations. Some of Mrs. Greene's neighbors were called in to see the working of it. They were astonished and delighted. Phineas Miller, a college-mate of Whitney, had come to Georgia, and soon became the second husband of Mrs. Greene. Having some money, he formed a copartnership with Whitney in the manufacture of gins. The machine was locked from public view until a patent could be procured. Planters came from all parts of South Carolina and Georgia to see the wondrous machine which could do the work in a day of one thousand women. The workshop of the inventor was broken into and the model was carried off. Imperfect machines were made by common mechanics, which injured the fibre and defamed the machine for a while. The gin was patented (1793) before any were made. The violators of the patent were prosecuted, but packed juries gave sweeping verdicts against the owners.

Even state legislatures broke their bargains with them, or, like South Carolina, long delayed to fulfil them; and when, in 1812, Whitney asked Congress for an extension of his patent, the members from the cotton-growing states, whose constituents had been enriched by the invention, vehemently opposed the prayer of the petitioner, and it was denied. Thenceforth those who had wronged Whitney, in defiance of law and justice, were permitted to continue the wrong under the protection of law. The immediate influence of Whitney's cotton-gin upon the dying institution of slavery was most remarkable. It played an important part in the social, commercial, and political history of our country for seventy years. The increased production of cotton made an enormous demand for slave-labor in the preparation of the soil, the ingathering of the harvest, and the preparation of it for market. Its effects upon the industrial pursuits of nearly one half the nation were marvellous. Such, also, were its effects upon the moral and intellectual condition of the people in the cotton-growing states. Before 1808 (after which time the national Constitution prohibited the prosecution of the African slave-trade) enormous numbers of slaves were brought to the country. The institution had been unprofitable, and was dying. The cotton-gin revived it, made it strong and powerful, and cotton, its representative, assumed to be king of the nation, and for fifty years swayed an imperial sceptre almost unchallenged. Eli Whitney, a Yankee schoolmaster, built the throne of King Cotton, but was denied his just wages by the subjects of the monarch.

Whittaker, REV. ALEXANDER, accompanied Sir Thomas Dale to Virginia in 1611. He was comfortably settled in England, but the zeal of a missionary spirit impelled him to enter the field in Virginia. Sir Thomas had been active in planting a settlement at Henrico (see *Henrico College*), composed largely of Hollanders, and Mr. Whittaker, who was a decidedly Low Churchman, it was thought would be in sympathy with them. And so he seems to have been. He was puritanical in his proclivities. "The surplice," says Purchas, "was not even spoken of in his parish." He organized a congregation at Henrico, and there he preached until 1617, when he was drowned.

Whittemore, AMOS, inventor, was born at Cambridge, Mass., April 19, 1759; died at West Cambridge, March 27, 1828. Reared a farmer, he became a gunsmith, and then, with his brother, a manufacturer of cotton- and wool-cards, or card-cloth. He claimed to have invented a machine for puncturing the leather and setting the wires, which was patented in 1797. But there is evidence which shows that he undoubtedly used the invention of a poor man named Eleazar Smith, to whom Whittemore loaned money to enable him to perfect his invention. (For fuller information, compare *The American Centenary*, pp. 227, 228.) Before that time the work had been performed slowly by hand. The establishment of spinning machinery in New England (see *Slater, Samuel*) had made the business

of card-making profitable, and so useful was Whittemore's machine that the patent was sold for \$150,000. His brother Samuel afterwards repurchased it and carried on the business of making card-cloth.

Whittier, JOHN GREENLEAF, was born at Haverhill, Mass., Dec. 17, 1807. His parents were Quakers, and he has remained a member of the Society of Friends. Until he was eighteen years old he worked on his father's farm, and sent occasionally some verses to the local newspaper—*Haverhill Gazette*. Sometimes he worked at shoemaking. In 1829 he became editor of the *American Manufacturer*, at Berlin. The next year he was editing in Hartford, Conn.; and from 1832 to 1836 he edited the *Gazette*, at Haverhill. His first publication of any pretension was his *Legends of New England* (1831), when he was twenty-four years of age. Others soon followed. So early as 1833 he began to battle for the freedom of the slaves in our country, and he never ceased warfare against the slave system until it disappeared in 1863. He was elected Secretary of the Anti-slavery Society in 1836, and edited, in Philadelphia, the *Pennsylvania Freeman*, devoted to its principles. In 1840 Mr. Whittier removed to Amesbury, Mass., where he resided until about 1878, cultivating a small farm. In 1847 he became corresponding editor of the *National Era*, an anti-slavery paper published at Washington, D. C. He wrote a *Centennial Hymn* for the opening of the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, May 10, 1876, where it was sung by a choir of one thousand voices, accompanied by Thomas's orchestra. Mr. Whittier was a thoroughly American poet, and most of his verses have been inspired by current events. The spirit of humanity, democracy, and patriotism expressed in his poems and prose writings make the public regard him with reverential affection. Whittier died, unmarried, Sept. 7, 1892.

Whittlesey, CHARLES, was born at Southington, Conn., Oct. 5, 1808, and went to Tallmadge, O., in 1813. He graduated at West Point in 1831, resigned the next year, and became a lawyer. Afterwards he engaged in journalism, and in geological and mineralogical surveys of Ohio at different periods from 1837 to 1860. He became Assistant Quartermaster-general of Ohio in 1861; engaged in the campaign in western Virginia in the summer of that year; and became colonel of volunteers in Kentucky and Tennessee. He was at the siege of Fort Donelson, and in the battle of Shiloh commanded a brigade in General Lew. Wallace's division, rendering important service. (See *Shiloh, Battle at*.) He resigned a few days after this event. He is the author of several biographical, historical, and scientific works. He was one of the founders and the president of the Western Reserve Historical Society, at Cleveland.

Wigfall at Fort Sumter. Senator Wigfall, when he left the halls of legislation at Washington, hastened to Charleston and became a volunteer on the staff of General Beauregard. He was on Morris Island when the bombardment of Fort Sumter began (see *Fall of Fort Sumter*),

and on Saturday, April 13, he went in a boat to Sumter, accompanied by one white man and two negroes. He carried a white handkerchief on the point of a sword as a flag of truce. Landing, he hastened to an embrasure and asked permission to enter. The soldiers would not let him. "I am General Wigfall," he said; "I wish to see Major Anderson." "Wait till I see the commander," said the soldier. "For God's sake, let me in!" cried Wigfall; "I can't stand it out here in the firing." He ran to the sally-port, and was confronted by burning timbers. He ran around the fort, waving his handkerchief to induce his fellow-insurgents to cease firing. But the missiles fell thick and fast, and he was permitted to crawl into an embrasure, after he had given up his sword to a private soldier. There he met some of the officers. Trembling with excitement, he said, "I am General Wigfall; I come from General Beauregard, who wants to stop this bloodshed. You are on fire, and your flag is down; let us stop this firing." One of the officers said, "Our flag is not down." And the senator saw it where Peter Hart had planted it. He tried to get the officers to display his handkerchief above the fort or out of the embrasure; but all refusing, he said, "May I hold it, then?" One of them coolly replied, "If you wish to." Wigfall sprang into the embrasure and waved the white flag several times. Frightened away by shots, he said to one of the officers, "If you will wave this from the ramparts they will cease firing." "It shall be done," was the reply, "if you request it for the purpose, and that alone, of holding a conference with Major Anderson." They met. Wigfall said he came from General Beauregard, who wished to stop the fighting. "Upon what terms will you evacuate the fort?" "General Beauregard knows the terms upon which I will evacuate on the 15th. Instead of noon on the 15th, I will go now." "I understand you to say," said Wigfall, eagerly, "that you will evacuate the fort now, sir, upon the same terms." Anderson answered in the affirmative. "Then," said Wigfall, inquiringly, "the fort is to be ours?" "Yes, sir." "Then I will return to Beauregard," said Wigfall, and he departed. Believing Wigfall's story, Anderson allowed a white flag to be raised over the fort. Soon afterwards several gentlemen (one of them directly from Beauregard at Fort Moultrie) came to Sumter, and, when they were informed of Wigfall's visit, assured Major Anderson that the Texan conspirator had not seen Beauregard in two days. The indignant Anderson was about to haul down the white flag, when they begged him to let it remain until they could see Beauregard. An arrangement for the evacuation was soon after made. (See *Fall of Fort Sumter*.)

Wigfall's Defiance. Unfortunately for the fair fame of Texas, its representative in the Senate of the United States at the close of Buchanan's administration was Louis T. Wigfall, a man unworthy of her people. By his coarseness of speech, vulgarity of deportment, and eagerness to display his treasonable intentions and contempt for all people outside the slave-labor

states, he did as much as any other man, excepting Toombs, to irritate the feelings of the people of a large part of the Union. He kept his seat in the Senate long after more honorable men had left theirs, because, as they averred, their respective states, like Texas, were "out of the Union." Even in the brief session of the Senate when the nominations were confirmed, Wigfall displayed his insolence in a manner that made his own political friends blush. Commenting on Mr. Lincoln's inaugural address, he said: "It is easy to talk about enforcing the laws and holding, occupying, and possessing the forts. When you come to do this, bayonets, and not words, must settle the question. . . . Fort Pickens and the administration will soon be forced to construe the inaugural. . . . The Confederate States will not leave Fort Sumter in possession of the Federal government. . . . Seven states have formed a confederation, and to tell them, as the President has done, that the acts of secession are no more than blank paper, is an insult. . . . There is no Union left. . . . The seceded states will not live under this administration. Withdraw your troops. Make no attempt to collect tribute, and enter into a treaty with those states. Do this and you will have peace. Send your flag of thirty-four stars thither and it will be fired into, and war will ensue. Divide the public property; make a fair assessment of the public debt; or will you sit stupidly and idly till there shall be a conflict of arms because you cannot compromise with traitors? Let the remaining states reform their government, and, if it is acceptable, the Confederacy will enter into a treaty of commerce and amity with them. If you want peace, you shall have it; if you want war, you shall have it. . . . No compromise or amendment to the Constitution, no arrangement you may enter into, will satisfy the South, unless you recognize slaves as property and protect it as any other species of property." The cowardice and mendacity of Wigfall displayed at Fort Sumter in less than a month afterwards was a biting commentary on the boastful speech in the safety of the Senate chamber. (See *Fall of Fort Sumter*.)

Wigwam, the name of the dwelling of the wild Indian tribes. They are constructed of a



AN INDIAN WIGWAM.

bundle of poles fastened together at the top and placed in a cone-like position. These poles

are then covered with the bark of trees or the skins of beasts. In winter a fire is built in the centre, and the inmates sleep at night with their feet towards it. The smoke escapes through the top. In migrations the wigwam is carried along.

Wilcox, ORLANDO BOLIVAR, was born in Detroit, Mich., April 16, 1823, and graduated at West Point in 1847. He served in Texas and in Florida, and resigned in 1857. In May, 1861, he became colonel of a Michigan regiment, and was the first to arrive at Washington city after the call of the President in April, 1861. With Colonel Ellsworth, he took possession of Alexandria. He commanded a brigade in the battle of Bull's Run, where he was severely wounded and made prisoner. On his exchange in 1862 he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, his commission dating from July 21, 1861. He was active in the Army of the Potomac until after the battle at Fredericksburg, and was temporarily in command of the Ninth Army Corps in Central Kentucky. In 1863-64 he was engaged in eastern Tennessee; and in the Richmond campaign, ending in the surrender of Lee, he commanded a division in the Ninth Corps. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army.

Wilderness, BATTLE OF THE. At midnight on May 3, 1864, the Army of the Potomac, full 100,000 strong, fresh and hopeful, and with an immense army-train, began its march towards Richmond. The right was composed of the corps of Warren and Sedgwick, and the left of that of Hancock. Warren's cavalry, preceded by that of Wilson, crossed the Rapid Anna at Germania Ford on the morning of the 4th, followed by Sedgwick. The left, preceded by Gregg's cavalry, and followed by the entire army-train of wagons, four thousand in number, crossed at Ely's Ford at the same time. Burnside's Ninth Corps, left behind in anticipation of a possible move of Lee on Washington, crossed the Rapid Anna and joined the army on the 5th, when the whole force had pushed on into the region known as "The Wilderness," beyond Chancellorsville, and well on the right flank of the Confederate army lying behind strong intrenchments on Mine Run. The whole force of the National army was now about 130,000 men, of whom a little more than 100,000 were available for battle. When Lee discovered this movement he pushed forward nearly his whole army to strike the flanks of the Nationals on their march. This movement failed. On the 5th Warren, who was followed by Sedgwick, sent the divisions of Griffin and Crawford to make observations. The former was struck by Ewell's corps, and the latter by Hill's, a little later. The march was suspended. Crawford was withdrawn, and Griffin, reinforced by Wadsworth's division, with Robinson's in support, soon defeated the advance of Ewell; but, being continually reinforced, the Confederates soon defeated the Nationals. It was now past noon. Grant was satisfied that Lee's troops were near in full force. The coun-

try was so covered with shrub-oaks, bushes, and tangled vines that no observations could be made at any great distance. Grant ordered up Sedgwick's corps to the support of Warren; while Hancock, who was nearly ten miles away, on the road to the left, marched back to join Warren. Getty's division of Sedgwick's corps was posted at the junction of two roads, with orders to hold the position at all hazards until the arrival of Hancock. The fighting, where it was begun in the morning, continued fierce and sanguinary until four o'clock in the afternoon, when both armies fell back and intrenched within two hundred yards of each other. Getty held his ground against severe pressure by Hill until Hancock's advance reached him at three o'clock. He then made an aggressive movement, and fighting was kept up until dark, with heavy losses on both sides. Burnside's corps was brought up in the night and placed between Hancock and Warren. Meanwhile Lee brought up Longstreet's corps to the support of Hill. And now each party in the contest was strengthened by an addition of 20,000 men. Just before five o'clock in the morning Ewell attacked the National right, and was repulsed. A very little later Hancock advanced his force against the Confederate right; while Wadsworth, who had prepared to strike Hill's left the night before, assailed him heavily. The Confederates were driven back a mile and a half, passing Lee's headquarters in the retreat. The flight was checked by Longstreet's advancing column. Hancock, expecting to be assailed by Longstreet, had attacked with only half his force. The latter's advance having been checked, he resumed his flank movement; but at that moment he was wounded and carried from the field, and his command devolved on General R. H. Anderson. In the afternoon Lee projected the entire corps of Longstreet and Hill against Hancock, who had been reinforced and was strongly defended by breastworks. He stood firm until about four o'clock, when a fire in the woods attacked the brush and pine logs of his breastworks. The wind blew the heat and smoke in the faces of his troops and drove them from their defences, when the Confederates dashed forward and penetrated their lines. But they were almost instantly repulsed, and Lee was compelled to abandon what he intended as a decisive assault. Night came on, and after dark Lee threw Ewell's corps forward against Sedgwick. There was some hard fighting and much confusion. Ewell captured the most of two brigades, and then fell back. So ended the battle in the Wilderness, without decisive results on either side, and with a mutual heavy loss. In the two days the Nationals lost about 18,000 men, of whom 6000 were made prisoners. Generals Hays, Wadsworth, and Webb were killed. The Confederate loss was probably about 11,000. Generals Jones, Pickett, and Jenkins were killed. Longstreet's wounds disabled him several months. The Wilderness is a wild plateau, covered with a dense growth of dwarf trees and vines and brambles, and sloping every way to cultivated fields. It is along

the south bank of the Rapid Anna River, about ten miles in width and fifteen in length.

Wilkes, CHARLES, was born in the city of New York in 1801; died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 8, 1877. He was a nephew of John Wilkes, the eminent English politician. He entered the United States Navy in 1818. In 1830 he was appointed to the Department of Charts and Instruments. He was appointed commander of a squadron of five vessels that sailed from Norfolk, Va., Aug. 18, 1838, on an exploring expedition. (See *South Sea Surveying and Exploring Expedition*.) For his discoveries during that cruise, Wilkes received a gold medal from the London Geographical Society. He returned to New York in June, 1842. In 1861 he was sent to the West Indies, in the frigate *San Jacinto*, to look after the Confederate cruiser *Sumter*, when he fell in with the British steamer *Trent* and took from her Mason and Slidell (which see) and conveyed them to Boston, for which he was thanked by Congress and received popular applause. But the President finally disapproved his act, as a stroke of state policy. In 1862 he commanded the flotilla on the James River, with the rank of commodore; and afterwards, in command of a squadron in the West Indies, captured many blockade-runners.

Wilkes, JOHN, a fearless and powerful English political writer, was born in 1727. He became a member of Parliament in 1757. In 1763 he made a severe attack on the government in his newspaper (the *North Briton*, No. 45), for which he was sent to the Tower. (See "*Ninety-two*" and "*Forty-five*.") On account of a licentious essay on woman, he was afterwards expelled from the House of Commons. After his release from the Tower, he went to Paris, and,



JOHN WILKES.

returning in 1768, sent a letter of submission to the king, and was soon afterwards elected to Parliament for Middlesex; but his seat was successfully contested and he was elected alderman of London. The same year he obtained a verdict of \$20,000 against the Secretary of State for seizing his papers. In 1771 he was sheriff of London, and in 1774 lord mayor. In 1779 he was made chamberlain, and soon afterwards retired from political life. Wilkes was always the champion of the colonists, and was regard-

ed as the defender of popular rights. He died at his seat on the Isle of Wight, in 1797.

Wilkinson, JAMES, was born near Benedict, Md., in 1757; died near the city of Mexico, Dec. 28, 1825. He was preparing for the medical profession when the war for independence broke out. He repaired to Cambridge after the bat-



JAMES WILKINSON.

tle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, where he was made a captain in Reed's New Hampshire regiment, in the spring of 1776. He served under Arnold in the Northern army, and in July, 1776, was appointed brigade-major. He was at the battles of Trenton and Princeton, and was made lieutenant-colonel in January, 1777. He was Gates's adjutant-general, and bore to Congress an account of the capture of Burgoyne, when he was breveted brigadier-general and made secretary to the Board of War, of which Gates was president. Being implicated in Conway's Cabal (which see), he resigned the secretaryship, and in July, 1779, was made clothier-general to the army. At the close of the war he settled in Lexington, Ky., and engaged in mercantile transactions. In 1791-92 he commanded, as lieutenant-colonel of infantry, an expedition against the Indians on the Wabash, and was made brigadier-general in 1792. He was distinguished in command of the right wing of Wayne's army on the Maumee, in 1794. From 1796 to 1798 he was general-in-chief of the army; also from 1800 to 1812. In December, 1803, as joint-commissioner with Governor Claiborne, he received Louisiana (which see) from the French; and from 1805 to 1807 he was governor of Louisiana Territory. Wilkinson remained at the head of the Southern Department until his entanglement with Burr caused him to be court-martialled in 1811, when he was honorably acquitted. In 1812 he was breveted major-general United States Army, and was made a full major-general in 1813. He reduced Mobile in April, that year, and fortified Mobile Point; and in May he was ordered to the Northern frontier, where he succeeded General Dearborn in com-

mand. His campaign against Montreal (1813-14) was totally unsuccessful, chiefly because of the conduct of General Wade Hampton. He relinquished all military command, and, on the reduction of the army in 1815, he was discharged. He had become possessed of large estates in Mexico, and removed to that country, where he died. He published *Memoirs of My Own Times*, in three volumes.

Willard, EMMA (Hart), teacher and author, was born near Berlin, Conn., Feb. 23, 1787; died in Troy, N. Y., April 15, 1870. She was descended from Thomas Hooker, founder of Hartford, Conn. She began teaching at sixteen years of age, and was principal, successively, of different academies. In 1809, at Middlebury, Vt., she married Dr. John Willard. In 1821 she began her famous "Troy Female Seminary," at Troy, N. Y., which she conducted until 1839. She made a tour in Europe in 1830, and published her *Journal and Letters* on her return, in 1833, and devoted her share of the profits of the work to the maintenance of a school for women in Greece, which was founded mainly by her exertions. Mrs. Willard wrote and published essays on "Female Education;" also several books, chiefly on history. She also published two books on physiology, and a volume of poems. Her ocean-hymn, *Rocked in the Cradle of the Deep*, has always been very popular.

Willard, FRANCES E., President of the Evanston (Ill.) College for Ladies, was born near Rochester, N. Y., Sept. 28, 1839. She graduated at the Northwestern Female College in 1858. She was for some years a school-teacher in various Western towns, and taught the natural sciences in the Northwestern College. In 1867 she became preceptress in the Genesee Wesleyan Seminary, at Lima, N. Y. On Feb. 14, 1871, she was elected president of the college which had recently been established in connection with the Northwestern University of the Methodist denomination, in deference to the popular idea of the co-education of the sexes. It was the first time such an honor was conferred upon a woman. On her return from an extended foreign tour in Europe, Syria, and Egypt, in 1871, Miss Willard lectured with success, in Chicago, on the "Educational Aspects of the Woman Question." She is president of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union.

Willett, MARINUS, was born at Jamaica, L. I., July 31, 1740; died in New York city, Aug. 22, 1830. He graduated at King's (now Columbia) College in 1775. As a youth, he served under Abercrombie in the attack on Ticonderoga, and was with Bradstreet in the expedition against Fort Frontenac (which see). He was one of the most eminent of the New York Sons of Liberty. In 1775 he entered McDougall's regiment as captain, and joined Montgomery in the invasion of Canada. After the capture of St. John (which see), he remained there, in command, until January, 1776, and was soon afterwards made lieutenant-colonel of the Third New York Regiment. In May, 1777, he was ordered to Fort Stanwix (which see), and assisted in its defence

in August following, making a successful sortie to effect a diversion in favor of General Herkimer. (See *Oriskany, Battle of*.) He bore a message, by stealth, to General Schuyler, which caused the expedition up the Mohawk valley,



MARINUS WILLETT.

under General Arnold, that caused the abandonment of the siege of Fort Stanwix. He joined the army under Washington in June, 1776, and was in the battle of Monmouth; and in 1779 he accompanied General Sullivan's expedition against the Indians in New York. (See *Sullivan's Campaign against the Indians*.) At the close of the war he was chosen sheriff of the city of New York, and remained so eight years (1784-92), and was mayor in 1807. In 1792 he was appointed a brigadier-general in the army intended to act against the Northwestern Indians, but declined. He published an autobiography.

William and Mary, COLLEGE OF, the second of the higher institutions of learning established in the English-American colonies. An effort was made in 1619 to establish a college in Virginia (see *Henrico College*), but the massacre in 1622 put an end to the enterprise. (See *Opechancanough*.) In 1660-61 the General Assembly of Virginia passed an act for the establishment and endowment of a college, and in 1693 a charter was obtained from the crown of England, chiefly through the efforts of Rev. James Blair and of Lieutenant-governor Nicholson. It was named William and Mary, in compliment to the ruling sovereigns, who made appropriations for its support. Buildings designed by Sir Christopher Wren were erected at the Middle Plantation, which was named Williamsburg. The first college edifice was destroyed by fire in 1705 and was rebuilt soon afterwards. The General Assembly and individuals made liberal gifts to the institution from time to time, and in 1776 it was the wealthiest college in America. Its riches were wasted during the war for independence, its resources being reduced to \$2500 and the then unproductive revenue granted by the crown. The college was closed in 1781, and

American and French troops alternately occupied it, during which time the president's house and a wing of the main building were burned. After the Revolution, the General Assembly gave lands to the college, and its organization was changed. In 1859 the college building, with the library, was consumed by fire, but was rebuilt and restored before the close of 1860. The college exercises were suspended in 1861, in consequence of the Civil War, and at one time the building was occupied as barracks and at another as a hospital. During the occupation of Williamsburg by Union troops in 1862, it was again accidentally burned. From 1861 to 1865 the losses of the college, in buildings and endowments, were about \$125,000. In 1869 the main building was substantially restored, the faculty was reorganized, and the college was reopened for students. (See *Colonial Colleges*.)

William III. (William Henry, Prince of Orange), King of England and Stadtholder of Holland, was born at the Hague, Nov. 4, 1650; died in Kensington, March 8, 1702. He was a nephew of Charles II. and James II., and married his cousin Mary, daughter of James. The union was popular in both countries. The prince, a member of whose house (of Orange) had freed his country from the Spanish yoke, was regarded as the head of the Protestant party in Europe, and his wife expected to succeed to the English throne. His policy always was to lessen the power of France, whose monarch, Louis XIV., was regarded as the most powerful enemy of Protestantism in Europe. The policy of James on the throne was to increase the papal power, and a breach between the king and his Dutch son-in-law was inevitable. The people of England finally rose in their might and invited William to invade the country. It was done in 1688. (See *English Revolution, The*.) He and his wife were made joint-monarchs of England in February, 1689, by a convention Parliament. His cause was equally triumphant in Scotland, after some trouble at the beginning, and he joined a coalition of European states in making war on France. The adherents of James in Ireland were numerous, and were supported by the French. In 1690 he took command of his own troops there, and, at the battle of the Boyne, July 1 (O. S.), James, who led the insurgents, was defeated and fled to France. The war continued until 1697, when the treaty at Ryswick ended it. Queen Mary died late in 1694, when William became sole monarch. He instituted salutary reforms in England, and the English Constitution was placed on a firm basis. He labored to check the power of France and increase that of the Netherlands, so long as he lived. His death was caused by being thrown from his horse. Having no heir, he promoted the act of settlement, calling the house of Hanover to the throne, which was adopted by Parliament in 1701, and completed the English Revolution.

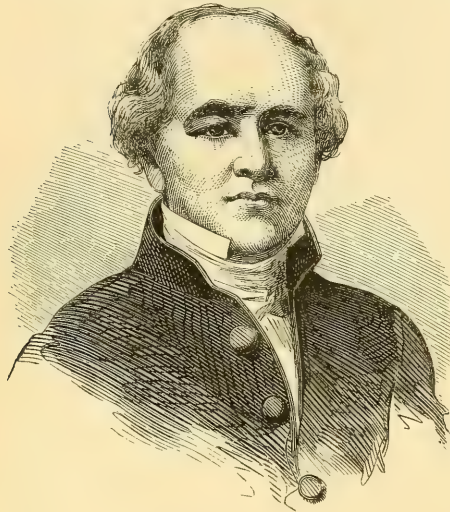
Williams, ALPHEUS STARKEY, was born at Saybrook, Conn., Sept. 20, 1810, and graduated at Yale College in 1831. He practised law in De-

troit, and was editor of the *Detroit Advertiser* for a while. He served in the war with Mexico; was postmaster of Detroit (1849-53), and, made brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1861, he organized the Michigan volunteers until September. In March, 1862, he became commander of a division in General Banks's corps, and, at the battle of Cedar Mountain (which see), one third of his division was killed or wounded. He commanded a division in Slocum's corps at Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg. In the Atlanta campaign he was conspicuous, and in November, 1864, succeeded Slocum in command of the Twentieth Corps, leading it in the celebrated march to the sea and through the Carolinas. From 1866 to 1869 General Williams was minister to the republic of San Salvador. He died in 1878.

Williams College was founded by Colonel Ephraim Williams, who, at the age of about forty years, was killed in an engagement near Lake George during the French and Indian War. (See *Williams, Ephraim*.) It is at Williamstown, Berkshire Co., Mass. The funds left by Colonel Williams for founding a free school were allowed to accumulate. A free school was incorporated in 1785, under the control of nine trustees, and a lottery was granted for raising funds to erect a school-house. About \$3500 was thus obtained, when the inhabitants of the town contributed about \$2000 more. A large building, four stories high (now the West College), was erected in 1790, and on Oct. 20, 1791, the free school was opened, with Rev. Ebenezer Fitch as its first principal. It was incorporated a college in 1793, under the title of "Williams's Hall." The property vested in the free school was transferred to the college, and the state appropriated \$4000 for the purchase of apparatus and a library. Mr. Fitch was its first president, and the first "commencement" was in 1795, when four students graduated. Its catalogue of students printed in 1795 is said to be the earliest production of the kind in this country. It contained the names of seventy-seven students. Several college buildings have been added. In 1875-76 it had eleven professors and one hundred and seventy students. It has a productive fund for the college use of \$300,000, and funds for the benefit of needy students amounting to \$90,000. Near the college-building is "Mills Park," on the site of and commemorating the prayer-meeting of students in 1808, out of which grew the first organization in America for foreign missionary work. The leader among the students was Samuel J. Mills, and his is the first name appended to the constitution of the society.

Williams, ELEAZAR (the "lost prince"). A dark mystery shrouds the fate of the eldest son of Louis XVI. of France and Marie Antoinette, who was eight years of age at the time his father was murdered by the Jacobins. After the downfall of Robespierre and his fellows, it was declared that the prince died in prison in 1795, while the royalists believed he had been secretly hidden away in the United States. Curious facts

and circumstances pointed to Rev. Eleazar Williams, a reputed half-breed Indian, of the Caughnawaga tribe, near Montreal, as the surviving prince, who, for almost sixty years, had been hidden from the world in that disguise. He was



ELEAZAR WILLIAMS.

a reputed son of Thomas Williams, son of Eunice, the captive daughter of Rev. John Williams (which see), of Deerfield. He was educated at Long Meadow, Mass., and when the war with England broke out, in 1812, he became confidential agent of the government among the Indians in northern New York. He served in several engagements, and was severely wounded at Plattsburg, in 1814. Joining the Protestant Episcopal Church, after the war, he was for a long time a missionary, or lay-reader, among the Oneida Indians, and in 1826 he was ordained missionary presbyter, and labored in northern New York and Wisconsin. There were indications that Mr. Williams was the "lost prince" of the house of Bourbon, and it was proved, by physiological facts, that he was not possessed of Indian blood. His complexion was dark, but his hair was curly. When the writer first knew him (1855), he was sixty-eight years of age, and bore a strong resemblance to the portrait of Louis XVI. at the time of his death. The claims of Mr. Williams to identity with the dauphin of France were not put forth by himself, but by others. In *Putnam's Monthly Magazine* (1853-54), Rev. Mr. Hanson published a series of papers under the title "Have we a Bourbon among us?" and afterwards published them in book form and entitled the volume *The Lost Prince*. Mr. Hanson fortified the claim to identity by most remarkable facts and coincidences. In 1854 the Prince de Joinville, heir to the throne of Louis Philippe, visited Mr. Williams at Green Bay, Wis. The accounts of the interview, as given by the clergyman and the deeply interested prince, differed widely. The world was incredulous; the words of a prince outweighed those of a poor

Episcopal clergyman, and the public judgment was against the latter. Mr. Williams died at Hogsburg, N. Y., Aug. 28, 1858, aged about seventy-two years. He translated the Book of Common Prayer into the Mohawk language. He also prepared an Iroquois spelling-book, and a life of Thomas Williams, his reputed father.

Williams, EPHRAIM, a provincial colonel, was born at Newton, Mass., Feb. 24, 1715; killed near Lake George, Sept. 8, 1755. In early life he was a mariner, and made several voyages to Europe. From 1740 to 1748 he served against the French, in Canada, as captain of a provincial company. He joined the New York forces under General William Johnson in 1755, and, falling in an Indian ambush, was killed. (See *Crown Point, Expedition against*.) Before joining in this expedition he made his will, bequeathing his property to a township, west of Fort Massachusetts, on the condition that it should be called Williamstown, the money to be used for the establishment and maintenance of a free school. The school was opened in 1791, and was incorporated a college in 1793, under the title of Williams College (which see) — a still flourishing institution.

Williams, JAMES, was born in Granville County, N. C., and emigrated to Laurens District, S. C., in 1773, where he was an active patriot and member of the Provincial Congress in 1775. In 1779 he became colonel of militia, and commanded a detachment in the battle of Stono Ferry, June 20, 1779. At Musgrove's Mill (which see) he attacked and defeated a large body of British and Tories; and in the expedition against Ferguson, which terminated in the battle of King's Mountain (which see), he exhibited great energy and skill, but fell in the thickest of the fight, mortally wounded, and died the next day (Oct. 8, 1780).

Williams, Rev. JOHN, first minister at Deerfield, Mass., was born at Roxbury, in that state, Dec. 10, 1664; died at Deerfield, June 12, 1729. He was educated at Harvard College, and in 1686 settled as a minister at Deerfield. The village was attacked by French and Indians, March 1, 1704, and among the inhabitants carried into captivity were Mr. Williams and a part of his family. (See *Deerfield*.) Two of his children and a black servant were murdered at his door. With his wife and five children he began the toilsome journey towards Canada through the deep snow. On the second day his wife, weak from the effects of recent childbirth, fainted with fatigue, when the tomahawk of her captor cleaved her skull, and so he was relieved of the burden. Her husband and children were taken to Canada, and, after a captivity of nearly two years among the Caughnawaga Indians near Montreal, they were ransomed and returned home, excepting a daughter (Eunice), ten years of age, whom the Indians refused to part with. She grew up to womanhood with Indian habits and tastes, became a Roman Catholic, married a young Mohawk warrior there, and bore children. In after-years she visited her relations in Deerfield, but resisted all their persuasions to abandon her Indian mode of life, or leave the

church to which she was attached. After the return of the Rev. Mr. Williams to Deerfield he married a daughter of Captain Allen, of Connecticut, and in 1711 was appointed a commissary under Colonel Stoddard in the expedition against Canada.

Williams, JONATHAN, was born in Boston, in 1752; died in Philadelphia, May 16, 1815. He was engaged in mercantile and shipping business in early life. Dr. Franklin was his great uncle, and kindly received his nephew when in England (1770-73), and intrusted him with the bearing of important letters and documents to Massachusetts. Visiting France in 1777, he was appointed commercial agent of Congress, and in 1785 returned to the United States and settled with Franklin in Philadelphia. For several years he was judge of the Court of Common Pleas in Philadelphia. In 1801 he was made a major of artillery and inspector of fortifications, and was appointed the first superintendent of the military academy at West Point. He was colonel of engineers from 1808 to 1812, and general of New York militia from 1812 to 1815. He was a delegate in Congress from Philadelphia in 1814, and was made Vice-President of the American Philological Society.

Williams, OTHO HOLLAND, was born in Prince George's County, Md., in March, 1749; died July 16, 1794. His Welsh ancestors came to America in the early days of the colonial settlement of Maryland. He was left an orphan at twelve



OTHO HOLLAND WILLIAMS.

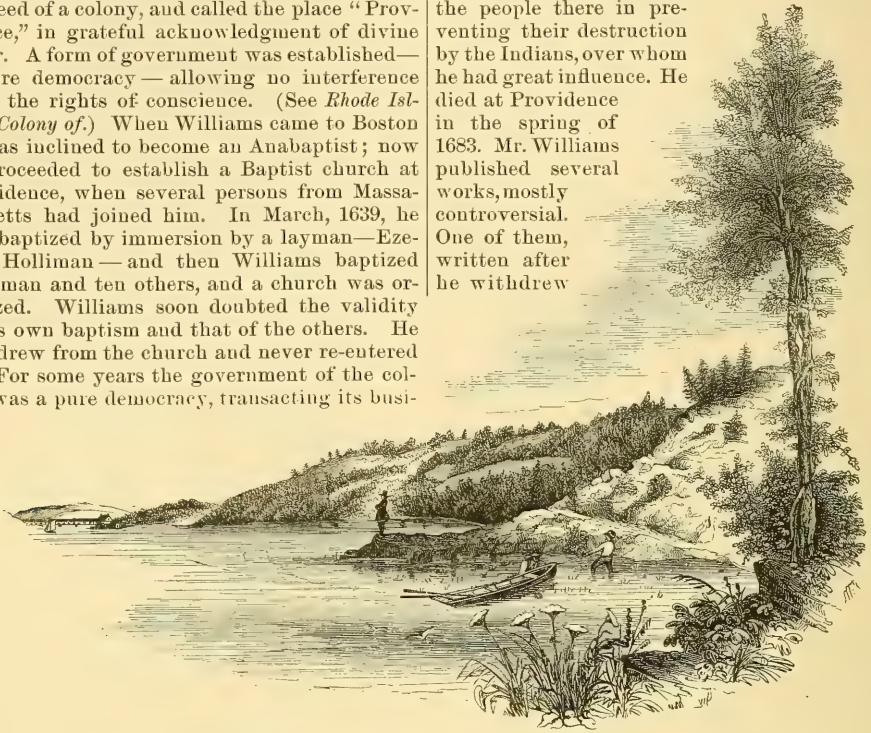
years of age. Appointed lieutenant of a rifle company at the beginning of the Revolution, he marched to the Continental camp at Cambridge. In 1776 he was appointed major of a new rifle regiment, which formed part of the garrison of Fort Washington, New York (which see), when it was captured. He gallantly opposed the Hessian column, but was wounded and made prisoner. Being soon exchanged, he was made colonel of a Maryland regiment, with which he accompanied De Kalb to South Carolina; and when Gates took command of the Southern

army Colonel Williams was made adjutant-general. In the battle near Camden (see *Sanders's Creek, S. C., Battle at*) he gained great distinction for coolness and bravery, and performed efficient service during Greene's famous retreat (which see) as commander of a light corps that formed the rear-guard. At the battle at Guilford Courthouse he was Greene's second in command; and by a brilliant charge which Williams made at Eutaw Springs he decided the victory for the Americans. (See *Eutaw Springs, Battle near.*) In May, 1782, he was made a brigadier-general, and was appointed collector of customs for Maryland, which office he held until his death.

Williams, ROGER, was born in Wales in 1599; died in Rhode Island in 1683, and was buried at Providence. Williams went to London at an early age, where he reported sermons in shorthand, and attracted the attention of the eminent Sir Edward Coke, who befriended him in his efforts to obtain a collegiate education. He was at Pembroke College in 1623, and graduated in January, 1627. He took orders in the Church of England, but imbibed dissenting ideas, and came to Boston in 1630, where he was regarded as an extreme Puritan. He was accompanied by his wife, Mary, a sweet young Englishwoman, who shared in the joys and sorrows of his long life. At Boston he became obnoxious to the authorities because he denied the right of magistrates to interfere with the consciences of men, and soon went to Salem, where he became assistant pastor of the church there. He was complained of by the Bostonians because he had refused to join with the congregation there until they should make a public declaration of their repentance for having communion with the churches of England while they lived in that town. He was a thorough separatist, and because his brethren in New England were not as radical as he was he assailed the theocracy. He did not remain long at Salem, for opposition to his views compelled him to go to Plymouth, where for two years he was assistant of the pastor, Ralph Smith. There he formed the acquaintance of leading chiefs of the tribes around him, and gained a knowledge of their language. Returning to Salem, he became pastor of the church there, and promulgated his theological views so boldly that in the autumn of 1635 the General Court of Massachusetts ordered him to quit the colony in six months. His immediate offence was his calling in question the authority of magistrates in two things—namely, relating to the right of the king to grant the land of the Indians to white settlers without purchasing it; and the other, the right of the civil power to impose faith and worship. Williams made some slight concessions, and the time for his departure was extended to the following spring. Circumstances soon made the Boston magistrates suspicious that he was preparing to found a new colony with his followers; and observing with alarm that his doctrines were spreading, it was determined to seize him and send him to England at once. A small vessel was sent to Salem to take him away; but, forewarned, he left his home and family in mid-

winter, and for fourteen weeks wandered in the snows of the wilderness to the region of Narraganset Bay. Five companions joined him on the eastern bank of the Seekonk River; but, finding they were within the bounds of New Plymouth, they went down the stream, and at a fine spring near the head of Narraganset Bay they planted the seed of a colony, and called the place "Providence," in grateful acknowledgment of divine favor. A form of government was established—a pure democracy—allowing no interference with the rights of conscience. (See *Rhode Island, Colony of*.) When Williams came to Boston he was inclined to become an Anabaptist; now he proceeded to establish a Baptist church at Providence, when several persons from Massachusetts had joined him. In March, 1639, he was baptized by immersion by a layman—Ezekiel Holliman—and then Williams baptized Holliman and ten others, and a church was organized. Williams soon doubted the validity of his own baptism and that of the others. He withdrew from the church and never re-entered it. For some years the government of the colony was a pure democracy, transacting its busi-

ness he accepted a captain's commission, drilled a company at Providence, and erected defences there for women and children. But Providence shared the fate of other New England towns. Notwithstanding the bad treatment Roger Williams received from Massachusetts, he was always the active friend of the people there in preventing their destruction by the Indians, over whom he had great influence. He died at Providence in the spring of 1683. Mr. Williams published several works, mostly controversial. One of them, written after he withdrew



LANDING-PLACE OF ROGER WILLIAMS, ON THE SEEKONK.

ness by means of town meetings, until a charter was procured in 1644 by Williams, who went to England for it. On the voyage thither he wrote *A Key into the Language of America*, together with an account of the manners and customs of the Indians. After the death of Charles I. trouble in the colony caused Williams to be sent to England again, where he remained some time, making the acquaintance of John Milton and other distinguished scholars, and wrote and published *Experiments of Spiritual Life and Health, and their Preservation*. In the autumn of 1654 Williams was elected president, or governor, of Rhode Island. There was then less toleration among the people than formerly, and they became incensed against fanatical persons calling themselves Friends, or Quakers. But Williams refused to persecute them. In 1672 he engaged in a public debate at Newport with George Fox and two other Quaker preachers, one of whom, named Burroughs, was specially pugnacious in support of his views. Afterwards Williams published a controversial work, entitled *George Fox digged out of his Burrows*. When King Philip's War broke out the venerable founder of Rhode Island watched its progress with great anxiety; and, though he was then seventy-six years old,

from the Baptist Church and became a "Seeker," was entitled *Hireling Ministry none of Christ*.

Williams, ROGER, MAGNANIMITY OF. The raid of Endicott and his men along the shores of the Narraganset country stirred up those Indians to preparations for war upon Massachusetts. (See *Block Island, Events at*.) Indeed, at the breaking-out of the Pequot War (which see) all the white settlements in New England were in peril. Roger Williams, living among the Narragansets, perceived the danger to the Massachusetts and Plymouth colonies; and, notwithstanding he had been cruelly banished from the former because of non-agreement with the authorities in religious doctrines, like a true Christian as he was, exerted himself to the utmost to avert from that colony the impending danger. He left Providence and hastened to the head sachem of the Narragansets in Rhode Island. Many years afterwards he wrote: "I had my share of service to the whole land in the Pequot business. The Lord helped me immediately to put my life into my hand, and, scarce acquainting my wife, to ship myself, all alone, in a poor canoe, and to cut through a stormy wind, with great seas, every minute to the hazard of my life, to the sachem's house. Three

days and nights my business forced me to lodge and mix with bloody Pequod ambassadors, whose hands and arms, methought, reeked with the blood of my countrymen, murdered and massacred by them on Connecticut River, and from whom I could but nightly look for their bloody knives at my own throat." The love which the Narragansets bore to Roger Williams, engendered by his kind acts during his short sojourn in their country, and his great influence, not only prevented their alliance with the Pequods at the kindling of the war, but secured their co-operation with the English, and saved the New England colonies from destruction. The authorities in Church and State in Massachusetts accepted his noble service, but they never, during the long years of his afterwards useful life, had the magnanimity to revoke his sentence of banishment.

Williams, ROGER, WELCOME TO. Williams was sent to England to procure a charter for the "Providence and Rhode Island Plantations" (see *Rhode Island, Colony of*), and returned with it in the summer of 1644. He also bore a letter, signed by several members of Parliament, addressed to the authorities of Massachusetts, in favor of their banished exile, and with this he landed in Boston. The letter did not weaken the asperities of the magistrates towards Williams. With its charter, the heretical colony of Rhode Island was more than ever an object of dislike to the Church and State in Massachusetts. So Williams passed on towards Providence. As he approached he beheld a delightful spectacle. The people had heard of his coming, and had turned out to meet him. The Seekonk was covered with canoes and boats filled with his neighbors and friends. The latter vessels were decked with evergreens and wild-flowers, and the shores were covered with men, women, and children in holiday attire, who greeted him with loud buzzes, the waving of handkerchiefs, and the singing of psalms.

Williams, SETH, was born at Augusta, Me., March 21, 1822; died at Boston, March 23, 1866. He graduated at West Point in 1842, served under Scott in Mexico as aide-de-camp to General Patterson, and after the war was in the adjutant-general's department. Early in September, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, after serving as adjutant-general of the army of General McClellan in western Virginia. He held the same position under General Meade. In May, 1864, he was made acting inspector-general on Grant's staff, and in August of that year was breveted major-general of volunteers for "meritorious services since Gettysburg;" also, in March, 1865, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army for "gallant and meritorious services during the rebellion."

Williams, THOMAS, was born in New York in 1815; killed at Baton Rouge, Aug. 5, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1837, was assistant professor of mathematics there, and aid to General Scott from 1844 to 1850, behaving gallantly in the war with Mexico. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1861;

commanded for a time the forts at Hatteras, and accompanied Butler in the expedition to New Orleans. He was engaged in cutting the canal in front of Vicksburg, leading the land-troops in that unsuccessful siege, and was afterwards in command at Baton Rouge. (See *Baton Rouge, Battle at*.)

Williams, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Lebanon, Conn., April 18, 1731; died Aug. 2, 1811. He graduated at Harvard University in 1757, and was on the staff of his relative, Colonel Williams, when he was killed near Lake George in 1755. An active patriot and a member of the committees of Correspondence and Safety in Connecticut, he was sent to Congress in 1776. He wrote several essays to arouse the spirit of liberty in the bosoms of his countrymen, and spent nearly all his property in the cause. He had been speaker of the Connecticut Assembly in 1775, and in 1783-84 was again a member of Congress. He was also a member of the Convention of Connecticut that adopted the national Constitution. Mr. Williams married a daughter of Governor Trumbull.

Williamsburg, BATTLE AT (1862). The Confederates evacuated Yorktown, where a comparatively small force had held McClellan in check for about a month. The sick, hospital stores, ammunition, and camp equipage had been sent to Richmond, and in the night of May 3 the Confederate troops evacuated Yorktown and Gloucester and fled towards Williamsburg, vigorously pursued by horse-artillery and cavalry under General Stoneman, followed by several divisions under the chief command of General Sumner. General Joseph E. Johnston, who had hastened to the Peninsula after the evacuation of Manassas, was now in chief command in front of McClellan. Leaving a strong guard at Williamsburg to check the pursuers, Johnston fell back with his main army towards Richmond, with the intention of fighting the Nationals in full force when they should approach that city. But he was compelled to fight sooner than he expected, for gallant and energetic men—Generals Hooker, Kearny, and Hancock—attacked that rear-guard near Williamsburg on May 5. The Confederates had some months before constructed a line of strong works, thirteen in number, across the rolling plateau on which Williamsburg stands, and two miles in front of that city. These caused pursuing Stoneman to halt and fall back. Hooker pressed forward along the Hampton road; and on the morning of May 5, being in front of the Confederate works, and, knowing that 30,000 troops were within supporting distance and the bulk of the Potomac Army within four hours' march of him, he began an attack with New England, New York, and New Jersey troops. Hearing of this, Johnston had sent back Longstreet's Confederate division to support the rear-guard. Other troops soon joined Hooker. At one o'clock the battle had assumed gigantic proportions. Hooker was losing heavily. Other Confederate reinforcements had arrived. Three times the Confederates had made

a fierce charge and been repulsed, and in one of these quick movements five of the National cannons were captured, with 300 prisoners. For nearly nine consecutive hours Hooker had fought almost unaided. He had called repeatedly on Sumner for help, but in vain; but between four and five o'clock the brave and dashing General Kearny came up with his division, with orders from General Heintzelman to relieve Hooker's worn and fearfully thinned regiments. They had then lost in the battle 1700 of their companions. The battle was now renewed with spirit. General Hancock, too, was successfully engaged in a flank movement. He drove the Confederates from some redoubts, but his force was too small to make their occupation by his men a prudent act. He finally made a fierce bayonet charge, when the Confederates broke and fled with precipitation, with a loss of over 500 men. Very soon the battle at Williamsburg was ended, and the victorious troops were eager to pursue their retreating foes, led by Longstreet. McClellan came upon the battle-ground after the conflict and refused to allow a pursuit. He moved leisurely forward during the next ten or twelve days, and reached the Chickahominy River when Johnston's troops were safely encamped beyond it. The entire National loss in the battle was 2228, of whom 456 were killed and 1400 wounded. The Confederates lost about 1000. They left nearly 800 behind in their hasty flight.

Williamsburg (Va.), **FOUNDING OF.** Governor Nicholson, successor of Andros in Virginia, removed the seat of government from Jamestown to Middle Plantation, about half-way between the York and James rivers, where he projected a large town, the streets of which were laid out in the form of a W; and in honor of the king he named it Williamsburg. There the College of William and Mary (which see) was built; and near it a large state-house was erected, which he called "the Capitol."

Williamson, HUGH, M.D., LL.D., was born at West Nottingham, Penn., Dec. 5, 1735; died in New York, May 22, 1819. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1757; studied divinity; preached a while; and became professor of mathematics in his *alma mater* (1760-63). He was one of the committee of the American Philosophical Society appointed to observe the transit of Venus in 1769, of which he published an account; also an account of the transit of Mercury the same year. Being in England to solicit aid for an academy at Newark, N. J., he was examined (1774) before the Privy Council concerning the destruction of the tea at Boston. He returned home in 1776, and engaged, with his brother, in mercantile pursuits in Charleston, S. C. Afterwards he practised medicine at Edenton, N. C.; served in the North Carolina House of Commons; also as a surgeon in the North Carolina militia (1781-82). He was a delegate in Congress (1782-85 and 1787-88), and in the convention that framed the national Constitution (which see). He was again in Congress from 1790 to 1793, and soon afterwards removed

to New York, where he assisted in forming a literary and philosophical society in 1814. In 1786 he published a series of essays on paper currency. In 1812 he published a *History of North Carolina*.

Willis, NATHANIEL PARKER, was born at Portland, Me., Jan. 20, 1807; died at Idlewild, Orange Co., N. Y., Jan. 21, 1867. He graduated at Yale College in 1827. His paternal grandfather was one of the "Boston Tea-party" (which see). While at college he wrote and published some religious verses. He edited *The Legendary*, a series of volumes of tales; and in 1828 he established the *American Monthly Magazine*, which he conducted two years, when it was merged into the *New York Mirror*, edited by George P. Morris. He travelled four years in Europe, and portions of his life there are exquisitely limned in his "Pencilings by the Way," published in the *Mirror*. He was attached to the American Legation in Paris. He married in England; returned to the United States; settled on the Susquehanna; and during his four years' residence there wrote his *Letters from Under a Bridge*. In 1839 he and Dr. Porter established *The Corsair*, in New York. He went again to England; wrote much while there; and prepared for Mr. Virtue the letter-press for two serial works, illustrated by Bartlett, on the scenery of Ireland and America. Returning in 1844, he and General Morris established the *Evening Mirror*. His health soon gave way, and he again went abroad. He returned in 1846, after which until his death he was co-editor with Morris of the *Home Journal*. His prose writings are more numerous by far than his poetry. Yet he ranks among the distinguished American poets. Willis's sacred poetry is considered his best. His poems have been published with illustrations by Lentze.

Willoughby's (SIR HUGH) Voyage. In 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby sailed with a squadron of four staunch vessels to search for a northeast passage. In the Arctic waters the vessels parted company in a storm. Two of them which kept together were found, two years later, in a Lapland harbor by some Russian fishermen. In the cabin of one of them was Sir Hugh, with a pen between his fingers, his journal open before him on a table. He had been frozen as he sat. About the ship were the bodies of all his companions, who had perished with the cold. When the ships, with the dead bodies of the company, were claimed, and were sailing back to England, they both foundered and went to the bottom of the sea.

Wilmot, DAVID, author of the Wilmot Proviso (which see), was born at Bethany, Penn., June 20, 1814; died at Towanda, Penn., March 16, 1868. He began the practice of law in 1834; was member of Congress from 1845 to 1851; presiding judge of the Thirteenth (Pennsylvania) District from 1853 to 1861; and was in the United States Senate, to fill a vacancy, from 1861 to 1863. He was temporary chairman of the committee of the convention at Chicago that nominated Mr. Lincoln for the Presidency.

Wilmot Proviso. THE. In August, 1846

while a bill authorizing the President of the United States to employ \$3,000,000 in negotiations for a peace with Mexico, by purchase of territory, was pending in the House of Representatives, David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, a member of that house, moved (Aug. 8) to add an amendment, "That, as an express and fundamental condition to the acquisition of any territory from the republic of Mexico by the United States, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude should ever exist in any part of said territory." This proviso was adopted by the House, but it failed of final action. It was the basis of the organization known as the Free-soil party (which see) in 1848, and of the Republican party in 1856.

Wilson, ALEXANDER, ornithologist, was born at Paisley, Scotland, July 6, 1766; died in Philadelphia, Aug. 23, 1813. For seven years he was a weaver, and wrote verses for the newspapers, and in 1789 he peddled two volumes of his poetry through the country. His *Watty and Meg*, published in 1792, and attributed to Burns, had a sale of one hundred thousand copies. Being prosecuted for a poetical lampoon, he came to America in 1794, landing at New Castle, Del. By the advice of Bartram (which see), the botanist, he turned his attention to ornithology. Late in 1804 he made a journey on foot to Niagara Falls, and wrote a poetic account of it. In 1805 he learned the art of etching. He persuaded Bradford, the Philadelphia publisher, to furnish funds for the publication of a work on American ornithology in a superb manner, but it was so expensive that it was not pecuniarily successful. His labors, day and night, upon this great work impaired his health and hastened his death. He had finished seven volumes when he laid aside his implements of labor. The eighth and ninth volumes were edited after his death, with a biography, by George Ord, who had accompanied him on some of his journeys. The work was afterwards continued by Charles Lucien Bonaparte.

Wilson, HENRY, Vice-President of the United States, was born at Farmington, N. H., Feb. 16, 1812; died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 22, 1875. He was a poor boy, brought up on a farm, and had little book-education. He became a shoemaker at Natick, and earned money enough to have instruction at an academy for a while, but resumed shoemaking at that place in 1838. He became interested in politics, and in 1840 made more than sixty speeches in favor of William H. Harrison for President of the United States. He was elected to the Massachusetts Legislature several times, and was twice a State Senator. He was an uncompromising opponent of slavery, and took an important part in organizing the Free-soil party (which see). He bought the *Boston Republican*, a daily newspaper, which he edited for two years. He labored diligently for the Free-soil party, and was its candidate for Governor of Massachusetts in 1853, but was defeated. In 1855 he was elected to the United States Senate, where he remained a conspicuous member until he was inaugurated Vice-

President of the United States with Grant in 1873. While at Boston during that year he sustained a shock of apoplexy, causing partial paralysis. He had nearly recovered, when, on Nov.



HENRY WILSON.

10, 1875, a second shock prostrated him. For twelve days he was ill in the Vice-President's room, when a third shock terminated his life. Mr. Wilson wrote a *History of the Anti-slavery Measures of the Thirty-seventh and Thirty-eighth Congresses* (1864); a *History of the Reconstruction Measures of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses* (1868); and a *History of the Rise and Fall of the Slave-power in America* (3 vols.). The last work was nearly completed when he died.

Wilson, JAMES, LL.D., a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born near St. Andrew's, Scotland, about 1742; died at Edenton, N. C., Aug. 28, 1798. Well educated in Scotland, he came to America, and in 1766 was tutor in the higher seminaries of learning in Philadelphia, and studied law under John Dickinson. He was in the Provincial Convention of Pennsylvania in 1774, and was a delegate in Congress the next year, where he was an advocate for independence. From 1779 to 1783 he was advocate-general for France in the United States. Mr. Wilson was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution, and of the Pennsylvania Convention that adopted it; and was one of the first judges of the Supreme Court of the United States. He became the first Professor of Law in the University of Pennsylvania, in 1790; and, with Thomas McKean, LL.D., he published *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States*.

Wilson, JAMES H., was born in Illinois about 1838, and graduated at West Point in 1860. He entered the Topographical Engineer Corps, and became first-lieutenant in September, 1861. He served in the Port Royal expedition, and was at the capture of Fort Pulaski, for which he was breveted major. He was aid to General McClellan at South Mountain (which see) and Antietam. In the Vicksburg campaign in 1863 he was assistant engineer and inspector-general of the Army of the Tennessee. He was active in the events near Chattanooga, and from May till August,

1864, commanded a division of cavalry in the Army of the Potomac. In August and September he was in the Shenandoah campaign; and from October, 1864, till July, 1865, he was in command of a division of cavalry in the West and Southwest, being with Thomas in his campaign against Hood, driving the cavalry of the latter across the Harpeth River during the battle of Franklin (which see). He was also distinguished at Nashville in defeating Hood and driving him across the Tennessee River. In March and April, 1865, he commanded a cavalry expedition into Alabama and Georgia; captured Selma, Montgomery, Columbus, and Macon; and on May 10, 1865, captured Jefferson Davis. (See *Davis, Jefferson, Capture of.*) In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army.

Wilson, WILLIAM, a Scotch poet, was born at Crieff, a village at the foot of the Grampian Hills, in Scotland. His childhood was passed in poverty, and he never entered a school as pupil; but his mother, a high-spirited Scotchwoman, who was left a widow when William was five years old, taught him to read, and by precept and example imbued him with a love and reverence for the higher Christian virtues. While yet very young he was apprenticed to a dealer in cloth, at Glasgow, and spent all the time he could spare from his work and sleep in reading and study. Through this self-culture he was elevated to a clerkship at the end of a year. At the stall of a good-natured street bookseller, he read Young's *Night Thoughts* through twice, and as soon as he got the money he bought the book for fifty cents—his first literary possession. He also so cultivated his taste for music that, when he was fifteen years of age, he chanted a solo at a grand public concert at Glasgow. The next year he was precentor of a church choir near that city. He had already written some meritorious songs which his modesty had concealed from his most intimate friends. Afterwards he became a contributor and assistant editor of the *Dundee Review* and sole editor of the *Dundee Literary Olio*. A Danish author (Feldburg), travelling in Scotland, called on the young poet, and commended him to Sir John Sinclair and others at Edinburgh. Young Wilson was invited to that city, where he became a welcome guest of the literati. Mrs. Grant, of Laggan, author of *Memoirs of an American Lady*, became his warm friend, and remained so until her death. Mr. Wilson, in after-life, wrote a brief memoir of her, which prefaces an American edition of her work. At Edinburgh he formed an intimate acquaintance with Robert and William Chambers which was kept up during his life. In 1833 Mr. Wilson emigrated to America, with a moderate capital, and in the summer of that year opened a bookstore and bookbindery at Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson, where he continued the business until his death, Aug. 25, 1860. Mr. Wilson contributed many poems to American and British periodicals, but seldom over his own name. His chosen signatures were "Alpin" and "Allan Grant." Some of these appear in a collection of Scottish poetry pub-

lished at Glasgow in 1844. Mr. Wilson left, at his death, quite a large collection of his poems, in manuscript, from which a selection was afterwards made and arranged by an intimate friend, and published by his eldest son. He also left, in manuscript, an unfinished work on the *Poets and Poetry of Scotland*, which was afterwards edited by his son, James Grant Wilson, and published by Harper & Brothers.

Wilson's Creek, BATTLE AT. After the battle at Dug Springs (which see), General Lyon fell back to Springfield, Mo. McCulloch was impressed, by the result of the battle at Dug Springs, with the opinion that Lyon's troops outnumbered the Confederates in that region. Price thought not, and favored an immediate advance upon them. McCulloch would not consent; but, receiving an order from General Polk (Aug. 4) to march against Lyon, he consented to join his forces with those of Price in attacking Lyon on condition of his (the Texan) having the chief command. Price, anxious to drive the Nationals out of Missouri, consented. McCulloch divided the Confederate forces into three columns, and at midnight, Aug. 7, 1861, their whole army, twenty thousand strong, moved towards Springfield under McCulloch, Pearce, and Price. They encamped, on the 9th, near Wilson's Creek, ten miles south of Springfield, wearied and half-famished, for they had received only half-rations for ten days, and had eaten nothing for twenty-four hours. Lyon's force was so small that there seemed great risk in accepting battle, but he feared a retreat would be more disastrous. So he proceeded to attack the Confederates before they could rest. Before daylight, Aug. 10, he marched in two columns—one led by himself, the other by Colonel Sigel. His own was to attack their front; Sigel's, composed of twelve hundred men, with six cannons, was to attack their rear. A battle began at an early hour. Lyon's column bore the brunt. Wherever the storm raged fiercest, there he appeared, encouraging his troops by words and deeds. First his horse was shot under him; then he received a wound in his leg, and another in his head, which partially stunned him. Swinging his sword over his head and ordering his men to follow, he dashed forward, but soon fell by a rifle-ball that passed through his body near his heart. On the death of Lyon, at nine o'clock, the command of his column devolved on Major Sturgis. Certain defeat seemed to await the little band. Sigel had attacked their rear with his six cannons, and was at first successful, driving the Confederates out of their camp. He was suddenly defeated by a trick. Arrayed like National soldiers, a heavy force of Confederates approached Sigel's line. Deceived, he greeted them in a friendly way, when suddenly they displayed a Confederate flag and attacked the Nationals in the most furious manner, capturing Sigel's battery and scattering all but three hundred of his men. He saved one field-piece, but lost his regimental colors. Twice afterwards during the battle the same trick was played, but the last time without success. The belligerents were fighting desper-

ately after Lyon's death. The Union column stood firm a long time against an overwhelming force. At length it began to bend, when Captain Granger dashed forward with portions of Kansas, Iowa, and Missouri regiments, supported by Dubois's battery, and smote the Confederates so fearfully that they fled from the field in broken masses to the shelter of the woods. The battle ended, and the Confederates held the field. The Nationals fell back to Springfield, and at three o'clock the next morning, under the general command of Colonel Sigel, the entire Union force began a successful retreat, in good order, to Rolla (one hundred and twenty-five miles distant, in the direction of St. Louis), safely conducting a government train five miles in length and valued at \$1,500,000. The Confederates did not follow. The battle of Wilson's Creek had ended after raging five hours. It was very sanguinary. The Nationals lost between twelve and thirteen hundred men, and the Confederates about three thousand.

Wilson's Raid. At the close of Thomas's active campaign in Middle Tennessee (see *Hood's Invasion of Tennessee*), the cavalry of the district, numbering about 20,000 men and horses, were encamped in Lauderdale County, in northern Alabama. Well disciplined, they prepared, in March, 1865, for an expedition into Alabama to co-operate with the army in the capture of Mobile; also for the capture of Selma and other places. General James H. Wilson was in command of this cavalry. He left Chickasaw Landing, on the Tennessee River, March 22, with about 13,000 men and six batteries. His men were all mounted excepting 1500, who were used as an escort for baggage and supply-trains of two hundred and fifty wagons. There was also a pontoon train of thirty boats, conveyed by fifty-six mule wagons. This force moved on diverging routes, to perplex the Confederates. Their general course was a little east of south until they reached the Black Warrior River. In the fertile region of the Tombigbee River, the columns simultaneously menaced Columbus, in Mississippi, and Tuscaloosa and Selma, in Alabama. General Forrest, with his cavalry, was then on the Mobile and Ohio Railway, west of Columbus. But so rapid was Wilson's march that the guerilla chief could not reach him until he was far on his way towards Selma, on the Alabama River. Forrest pursued, but the movements of Wilson's troops were erratic, striking a Confederate force here and there, destroying property, and spreading great alarm. At Montevallo they destroyed iron-works, rolling-mills, and five important collieries. Near these the Nationals were attacked by Roddy and Crossland, but the Confederates, after a sharp fight, were routed. Onward the Nationals went. On April 8 they destroyed a bridge over the Cahawba at Centreville. Not far from Plantersville Wilson encountered Forrest, partially intrenched. He was straining every nerve to defend Selma, as it was one of the most important places in the Confederacy, because of its immense foundries of cannons and projectiles. In

a fight that ensued the Confederates were routed and fled towards Selma, leaving behind them twenty-nine guns and two hundred prisoners. Forrest was driven by his pursuers twenty-four miles, when the chase ended, nineteen miles from Selma. The latter place had been strongly fortified. The race was hot, and Forrest won it, Wilson closely pursuing. The latter came in sight of the city late in the afternoon and immediately assaulted its defences, carrying them without much difficulty. Although Forrest was in it with 7000 troops, it was in possession of the Nationals before sunset. Forrest was not disposed to attempt its defence, but General Taylor, who was there, ordered him to hold it at all hazards. He did his best, but, in the evening, he and one half his followers fled eastward, leaving in flames 25,000 bales of cotton stored in the city. Wilson destroyed the great foundries and other public property, and left Selma (April 10) a ghastly ruin. From Selma Wilson pushed to Montgomery, then under the military command of General Wirt Adams. This officer did not wait for Wilson's arrival, but, setting on fire 90,000 bales of cotton stored there, he fled. The Nationals entered the town unopposed. Major Weston marched northward (April 12), and, near Wetumpka, on the Coosa, he destroyed five heavily laden steamboats. Montgomery was surrendered to Wilson by the civil authorities, and after two days he crossed the Alabama and pushed on eastward to Columbus, Ga., on the east side of the Chattahoochee. He captured that city, with 1200 men, fifty-two field-pieces, and a large quantity of small-arms and stores, losing only twenty of his own men. There the Nationals destroyed the Confederate "ram" *Jackson* and burned 115,000 bales of cotton, fifteen locomotives, and two hundred and fifty cars; also a large quantity of public property—a manufactory of small-arms, an arsenal, four cotton factories, three paper-mills, military and naval foundries, a rolling-mill, and a vast amount of stores. The Confederates burned their gunboat *Chattahoochee*, lying twelve miles below Columbus. Croxton had been raiding in another portion of Alabama, while Wilson and the rest of his command were in the vicinity of the Alabama River and Chattahoochee. In the course of thirty days he had marched, skirmished, and destroyed along a line of 650 miles in extent, not once hearing of Wilson. He joined Wilson at Macon, Ga. (April 30), where the great raid ended. It had been useful in keeping Forrest and others from assisting the defenders of Mobile. During the raid Wilson's troops captured five fortified cities, 288 cannons, 23 colors, and 6820 prisoners; and they destroyed a vast amount of public property of the Confederates of every kind. They lost 725 men, of whom 90 were killed.

Winchester, BATTLE AT (1862.) Banks had won a race with "Stonewall Jackson" for Winchester, but was not allowed to rest there, for the Confederates, close behind him, were 20,000 strong, while the Nationals numbered only 7000. General Ewell, who lay within a mile and a half of Winchester, attacked Banks before the

dawn, May 24, 1862, and a furious battle ensued in front of Winchester. The Confederates were kept in check five hours. Meanwhile, Jackson's whole force was ordered up, when Banks, perceiving that further resistance would lead to destruction, and having sent his trains forward towards the Potomac, gave an order for a retreat in the same direction. They passed rapidly through the town, assailed in the streets by Secessionists of both sexes, firing from windows and throwing hand-grenades, hot water, and every sort of missile. Late in the afternoon the wearied and battle-worn troops reached Martinsburg, rested a few hours, and then pushed on twelve miles to the Potomac, opposite Williamsport. Before midnight a thousand camp-fires were blazing on the slopes overlooking the river. The pursuit was abandoned at Martinsburg. Within forty-eight hours after hearing of Kenly's disaster, Banks, with his little army, had marched fifty-three miles and fought several skirmishes and one severe battle. After menacing Harper's Ferry, where General Saxton was in command, Jackson beat a hasty retreat up the valley. Banks's loss during this masterly retreat was 38 killed, 155 wounded, and 711 missing. These were exclusive of Kenly's command and the sick and wounded in hospitals at Strasburg and Winchester. Only 55 of his 500 wagons were lost. Jackson's loss, including that at Front Royal, was 68 killed and 329 wounded. His gains were over 9000 small-arms and 3000 prisoners, including 700 sick and wounded.

Winchester, BATTLE OF (1864). General Sheridan assumed the command of the Middle Division of the army on Aug. 7, with his headquarters at Harper's Ferry. He spent a month in getting his forces well in hand for an aggressive campaign. Early tried to lure him up the valley, in order that he might flank him. Sheridan was too wary for him, and kept the entrance into Maryland closely guarded against Confederate raids. General Grant visited him (Sept. 16, 1864) to view the situation. Sheridan was anxious to begin offensive operations. The lieutenant-general had confidence in Sheridan, and, after deliberation, left him, with the laconic order, "Go in!" Sheridan and Early then confronted each other at Opequan Creek, a few miles east of Winchester. Sheridan watched his antagonist closely, and when, on Sept. 18, Early weakened his lines by sending half his army on a reconnaissance to Martinsburg (which Averill repulsed), Sheridan put his forces under arms, and, at three o'clock in the morning, Sept. 19, they were in motion towards Winchester, Wilson's cavalry leading, followed by Wright's and Emory's corps. Wilson crossed the Opequan at dawn, charging upon and sweeping away all opposers, and securing a place, within two miles of Winchester, for the deployment of the army. There they formed, with Wright's corps on the left, flanked by Wilson's cavalry, Emory in the centre, and Crook's Kanawha infantry in reserve in the rear. Early had turned back towards Winchester before Sheridan was ready for battle, and strongly posted

his men in a fortified position on a series of detached hills. Averill had followed them closely from Bunker's Hill, and he and Merritt enveloped Winchester on the east and north with cavalry. Between the two armies lay a broken, wooded country. The Nationals attempted to reach Early's vulnerable left wing and centre, and, in so doing, encountered a terrible tempest of shells. They charged Early's centre furiously and carried his first line. His skilful general Rodas was killed. The assailing columns were quickly hurled back by two powerful divisions. It seemed, for a moment, as if the Nationals had lost the day. The Confederates eagerly sought to seize the only gorge in the mountains through which the Nationals might retreat, if compelled to. This was well defended by a few troops at first. Very soon the Confederates were pushed back to their lines. This was followed by the rapid rallying of the broken columns of the Nationals and re-forming of their line, which speedily advanced. There was now a most sanguinary battle until four o'clock P.M., when a loud shout was heard from beyond the woods on the Union right. It was from Crook's (Eighth) corps—the Army of Western Virginia—which, with Torbert's cavalry, pressed forward in the face of a murderous fire and fell heavily upon Early's left. At the same time there was a general charge upon the Confederate centre by the infantry, and by Wilson's cavalry on Early's right, driving the Confederates to the fortified heights. Before five o'clock the latter were carried, and Early's broken columns were flying through Winchester and up the valley towards Strasburg, in full retreat. They left behind them 2500 of their number as prisoners, with nine battle-flags and five pieces of artillery. They were pursued until dark. The Confederates lost about 1000 men besides the prisoners; Sheridan's loss was about 3000. Besides the prisoners taken in battle there were about 3000 wounded left in Winchester.

Winchester, JAMES, was born in Maryland in 1756; died in Tennessee, July 27, 1826. He was appointed a lieutenant in the Third Maryland Regiment, in May, 1776. He was made a prisoner by the British and exchanged in 1780. On the 27th of March, 1812, he was commissioned a brigadier-general and assigned to duty in the Army of the Northwest, under Harrison. He was made prisoner by General Proctor at Frenchtown (which see), Jan. 22, 1813, and, with other officers, was sent to Quebec. At Beauport, near that city, they were kept in confinement more than a year, and were exchanged in the spring of 1814. General Winchester resigned his commission in March, 1815.

Winchester, MILITARY RACE FOR. General Banks was at Strasburg, fifteen miles from Front Royal, when news of Kenly's disaster there reached him. (See *Front Royal, Battle at*.) At the same time he was astounded by the intelligence that Jackson was rapidly making his way towards Winchester, with twenty thousand men, to cut him off from reinforcements. Banks perceived his danger, and, with great energy, re-

sumed his flight down the Shenandoah valley, with his train in front, escorted by cavalry and infantry and a covering force of cavalry and six cannons, under General John P. Hatch. The train was attacked at Middletown, but the Confederates were repulsed. The vanguard was compelled to fall back to Strasburg and make a wide circuit among the mountains, with a train of thirty-two wagons. These joined Banks, who, with the main column, pushed on, skirmishing by the way, and, by midnight, May 24, had won the race to Winchester. It was a masterly retreat.

Winder, WILLIAM H., was born in Somerset County, Md., Feb. 18, 1775; died in Baltimore, May 24, 1824. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania; studied law, and began its



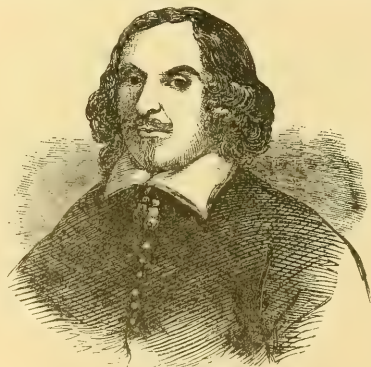
WILLIAM H. WINDER.

practice in Baltimore in 1798. In March, 1812, he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of infantry, and colonel in July following. He served on the Niagara frontier, under General Smyth, and in March, 1813, was commissioned brigadier-general. Made prisoner at Stony Creek, (which see), Canada, he was exchanged, and became inspector-general, May 9, 1814. Assigned to the command of the Tenth District (July 2, 1814), he was in command of the troops in the battle of Bladensburg, and engaged in the unsuccessful defence of Washington city. General Winder resumed the practice of his profession after the war, in which he was distinguished, and served with credit in the Senate of Maryland.

Winnebagoes, a tribe of the Dakota family, whose name denotes "men from the salt water." They seem to have been foremost in the eastward migration of the Dakotas, and were forced back to Green Bay, where they were numerous and powerful, and the terror of the neighboring Algonquins. Early in the seventeenth century there was a general confeder-

tion of the tribes in the Northwest against the Winnebagoes. They were driven to a place where they lost five hundred of their number, and afterwards the Illinois reduced them to a very small tribe; but they remained very turbulent. Until the conquest of Canada they were with the French, and after that with the English, until beaten by Wayne, when they became a party to the treaty at Greenville, in 1795. (See *Greenville, Treaty at.*) With Tecumtha, they helped the British in the war of 1812. Afterwards, for many years, until the conclusion of the Black Hawk War, in 1832 (which see), there were continual collisions and irritations between the Winnebagoes and white people on the frontiers. They ceded their lands in Wisconsin and became lawless and roving bands. They had reservations (from which they were removed from time to time) on the head-waters of the Mississippi, and, finally, they had begun to plant and show signs of civilization, when the Sioux War broke out, in 1862, and the people of Minnesota demanded their removal. They were disarmed in 1863, and driven into the wilderness on the Mississippi River, Dakota Territory. They were finally settled in Nebraska, where, in 1874, they numbered 1474, and had farms, cottages, and stock; they dressed like white people, and had three schools. There they were joined by about 1000 of their brethren, left in Wisconsin. (See *Dakotas* or *Sioux*.)

Winslow, EDWARD, was born at Droitwich, Eng., in 1591. He became a Puritan in his youth, married the daughter of a Dissenter, came to America from Holland, in the *Mayflower*, in 1620, and soon afterwards buried his bride here. (See *Pilgrim Fathers*.) He then married Susannah, widow of William White, and one of his fellow-passengers. Winslow offered himself to Massasoit, the Indian sachem (see *Massasoit*), as a hostage, at the first conference between the English and the natives, and won his respect and affection, especially by his curing the old ruler of an illness in 1623. He made two voyages to England (1623-24) as agent for the colony, and in 1633 he succeeded Bradford as gov-



EDWARD WINSLOW.

ernor. He again visited England, where he was imprisoned by Archbishop Laud seventeen weeks for teaching in the church and perform-

ing the marriage ceremony as a magistrate. Winslow was one of the most active men in the colony, and was governor three successive terms. On his return from England, in 1624, he brought with him several cows and a bull, the first neat-cattle seen in the colony. He went to England again in 1649, after the death of Charles I., and there proposed, and aided in forming, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in New England. (See *Gospel, Society for the Propagation of the*.) Cromwell so appreciated his worth that he offered him such distinctions and emoluments in England that he never returned to America. When Cromwell sent out an expedition against the Spaniards in the West Indies, Winslow was commissioned to superintend it. Before the work was done he was seized with fever, and died on shipboard Oct. 19, 1655.

Winslow, JOHN, was born at Marshfield, Mass., May 27, 1702; died at Hingham, Mass., April 17, 1774. He was the principal actor, under superior orders, in the tragedy of the expulsion of the Acadians (which see) from Nova Scotia in 1755. It is said that, twenty years afterwards, nearly every person of Winslow's lineage was a refugee on the soil from which the poor Acadians were driven. In 1756 Winslow was commander-in-chief at Fort William Henry, Lake George, and a major-general in the expedition against Canada in 1758-59. In 1762 he was appointed presiding judge of the Court of Common Pleas of Plymouth, Mass., and councillor and member of the Massachusetts Legislature during the Stamp Act excitement. He was an original founder of the town of Winslow, Me., in 1766.

Winslow, JOHN A., United States Navy, was born at Wilmington, N. C., Nov. 19, 1811; died in Boston, Sept. 29, 1873. He was appointed midshipman in 1827; became lieutenant in 1839, distinguished himself in the war with Mexico,



JOHN A. WINSLOW.

and was attached to the Mississippi flotilla in 1861. In 1863 he was placed in command of the *Kearsarge*, and on June 19, 1864, he sank the *Alabama* (which see) off Cherbourg, France. For this gallant action Captain Winslow was made commodore. He was in command of the Gulf

squadron in 1866-67, in 1871 of the Pacific fleet, and at the time of his death of the navy-yard at Portsmouth.

Winslow, JOSEPH, was born in Virginia in 1746; died near Germanton, N. C., in 1814. In 1760 he joined a company of rangers, was twice wounded by Indians in battle, and in 1766 removed to North Carolina. When the Revolution began he was appointed a major, and had frequent encounters with Tories. In the battle at King's Mountain (which see) he commanded the right wing, and was voted a sword by North Carolina for his gallantry. He made a treaty with the Cherokees in 1777, served in the Legislature of North Carolina, and was member of Congress from 1793 to 1795, and again in 1803.

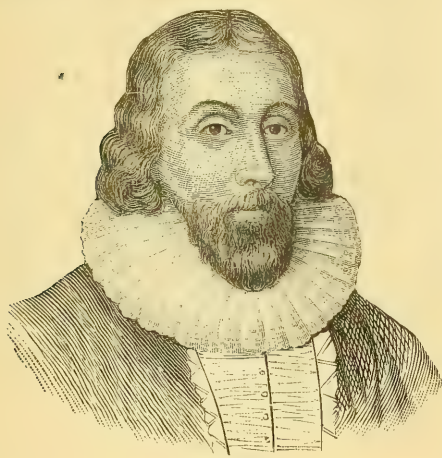
Winslow, JOSIAH, first native-born governor of the Plymouth colony, was a son of Edward Winslow, and born at Marshfield, Mass., in 1629; died there Dec. 18, 1680. So early as 1652 he was in command of a military company in Marshfield, and in 1675 he was general-in-chief of the forces of the United Colonies of New England, raised against King Philip. (See *King Philip's War*.) He was one of the commissioners of the united colonies for thirteen years (1658-71). He was elected governor in 1673, and filled that office at the time of his death.

Winter Quarters of the Allies (1781-82). The French army under Rochambeau remained at Williamsburg, Va., during the winter of 1781-82. The main body of the Continental army proceeded north, and took position in the vicinity of Verplanck's Point, detachments being cantoned at Pompton and Morristown, N. J. The prisoners of the army of Cornwallis were marched over the Blue Ridge into the Shenandoah valley, and encamped at Winchester, from whence a part of them were sent to Lancaster, Penn.

Winthrop, FITZ-JOHN, was born at Ipswich, Mass., March 14, 1638; died in Boston, Nov. 27, 1707. He went to England, held a commission under Richard Cromwell, and, returning to Connecticut, became a representative in the Congress of the Confederacy in 1671. He served as major in King Philip's War, and in 1686 was one of the council of Governor Andros. In 1690 he was major-general of the army designed to operate against Canada, and conducted the expedition with skill and prudence. He was agent of the colony in England; and so wisely did he conduct affairs that the Legislature of Massachusetts gave him \$2000. He was governor of Connecticut from 1698 until his death. Like his father, he was fond of scientific pursuits, and was a Fellow of the Royal Society. He was the eldest son of John Winthrop, Governor of Connecticut.

Winthrop, JOHN, was born at Groton, Suffolk Co., Eng., Jan. 11, 1588; died in Boston, Mass., March 26, 1649. He was a lawyer and a man of substance, and was elected first governor of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. He arrived at Salem, in the summer of 1630, with nine hundred emigrants, in several ships, and on the voyage employed a portion of his time in writing a work entitled *A Modell of Christian Charity*.

On his arrival, the government, administered by Endicott, was transferred to him. He was a just magistrate, and managed the affairs of the



JOHN WINTHROP.

colony with vigor and discretion until succeeded by Thomas Dudley, in 1634. Winthrop and the whole company who came with him intended to join the settlers at Charlestown, but it being sickly there, they went over to the peninsula of Shawmut, where there was a spring of pure and wholesome water, and seated themselves, and called the place Trimountain, on account of three hills. It was afterwards called Boston, and became the capital of New England. When Sir Henry Vane came, and was elected governor, Winthrop was made his deputy, and it was at that time that the controversy with Anne Hutchinson occurred. (See *Hutchinson, Anne*.) Winthrop again became governor in 1637, and from that time until his death he held the office of chief magistrate a greater part of the time. Governor Winthrop kept a journal of the transactions of the colony, which has been published—the first two books in 1790, and the third (the manuscript of which was found in 1816, in the New England Library, kept in the tower of the Old South Meeting-house, in Boston) was published with the first two, in complete form, with notes by James Savage, in 1825–26.

Winthrop, JOHN, JR., son of the preceding, was born at Groton, Eng., Feb. 12, 1606; died in Boston, Mass., April 5, 1676. Educated at Trinity College, Dublin, he entered the public service early. He was in the expedition for the relief of the Huguenots of La Rochelle, in 1627, and the next year was attached to the English embassy at Constantinople. In 1631 he came to America, but soon returned to England. He was sent back in 1635, as governor of the Connecticut colony, by Lords Say and Seal and Brook, built a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut River, and there began a village named Say-Brook. In 1645 he founded New London, on the Thames. Under the constitution of the colony (see *Connecticut, First Constitution of*), he was succeeded by John Hayne, and was elected

governor in 1657, and again in 1659. He held the office until his death. After the accession of Charles II. (1660) Winthrop went to England to obtain a charter from the king. The colonists had been sturdy republicans during the interregnum, and the king did not feel well disposed towards them, and at first he refused to grant them a charter. Finally, when Winthrop presented his majesty with a ring which Charles I. had given to his father, the heart of the monarch was touched, and he granted a charter, May 1 (N. S.), 1662. While attending the Congress of the New England Confederacy, in 1676, at Boston, as delegate from Connecticut, he was seized with illness that caused his death. (See *Connecticut, Charter of*.)

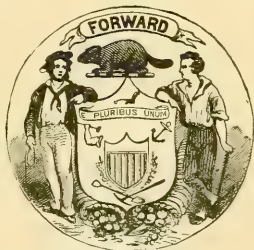
Winthrop, THEODORE, was born at New Haven, Conn., Sept. 21, 1828; killed in battle at Great Bethel, Va., June 10, 1861. He graduated at Yale College in 1848, and on his return from Europe, in 1851, he became tutor to a son of William H. Aspinwall, of New York, whose counting-house he afterwards entered. In the employ of the Pacific Steamship Company, he resided in Panama two years, and visited California, Oregon, and Vancouver's Island. He was one of the sufferers in the expedition of Lieutenant Strain to explore the Isthmus of Darien, returning in impaired health in 1854. On the fall of Sumter he joined the New York Seventh Regiment, went with it to Annapolis, became military secretary to General Butler at Fortress Monroe, with the rank of major, and fell, by the bullet of a sharpshooter, in battle.

Wirt, WILLIAM, LL.D., was born at Bladensburg, Md., Nov. 8, 1772; died at Washington, D. C., Feb. 18, 1834. His father was a Swiss, his mother a German. He was left an orphan when he was eight years of age, with a small patrimony, and was reared and educated by an uncle. He studied law, and began its practice at Culpepper Court-house, Va. In 1795 he married a daughter of Dr. George Gilmer, and settled near Charlottesville, Va., where he contracted dissipated habits, from the toils of which, it is said, he was released by hearing a sermon preached by Rev. James Waddell. In 1799 he was chosen Clerk of the Virginia House of Delegates, and in 1802 was appointed Chancellor of the Eastern District of Virginia. Very soon afterwards he resigned the office, and settled in Norfolk, in the practice of his profession. He had lately written a series of letters under the title of *The British Spy*, which were published in the *Richmond Argus*, and gave him a literary reputation. Published in collected form, they have passed through many editions. The next year he published a series of essays in the *Richmond Enquirer*, entitled *The Rainbow*. Wirt settled in Richmond in 1806, and became distinguished the following year as one of the foremost lawyers in the country in the trial of Aaron Burr for treason. In the same year he was elected to the Virginia House of Delegates, and was a prominent advocate of the chief measures of President Jefferson's administration. His chief literary production—*Life of Patrick Henry*—was

first published in 1817, at which time he was United States Attorney for the District of Virginia. The same year President Monroe appointed him (Dec. 15) Attorney-general of the United States, which office he held continually until 1829, when he removed to Baltimore. In 1832 he was the candidate of the Anti-masonic party (which see) for the Presidency of the United States. Wirt's first wife dying in 1799, he married Elizabeth Gamble, in Richmond, in 1802, who survived him, and was author of a *Floral Dictionary*.

Wisconsin, POSITION OF (1861). This state, containing 800,000 inhabitants, had a Republican majority of full 20,000 votes. Its governor (Alexander W. Randall) was thoroughly loyal. The Legislature convened at Madison, Jan. 10, 1861, and the governor, in his message, denounced the doctrine of state supremacy as a political fallacy, and intimated that the state might soon be called upon for "men and means to sustain the integrity of the Union and thwart the designs of men engaged in an organized treason." When the time came for the people to act, after the attack on Fort Sumter, it was found that the whole resources of the state were solemnly pledged to sustain the national government.

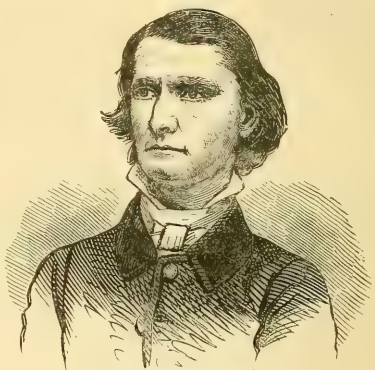
Wisconsin, THE STATE OF, was traversed by French missionaries and traders in the seventeenth century, and derives its name from the river which, in the French orthography, was written Ouisconsin. It is said to mean, as an Indian word, "wild-rushing river." The Wisconsin Territory was organized in 1836, out of lands comprised in the territory of Michigan. It embraced all the lands now within the states of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, and the Territory of Dakota. In 1838 the territory west of the Mississippi was separated from it. The first territorial government was formed at Mineral Point in July, 1836, and in October the first Legislature assembled at Belmont, in Iowa Co. In 1838 Madison was made the permanent seat of government. A state constitution was formed by a convention at Madison late in 1846, was approved by Congress in 1847, and on the 29th of May, 1848, Wisconsin was admitted into the Union as a state. In 1849 a part of the state was taken to form a part of the Territory of Minnesota. Wisconsin furnished, during the late Civil War, 96,118 troops. This state is remarkable for the heterogeneous character of its inhabitants. In 1890 three fourths of all the people were of foreign birth or parentage, there being nearly 600,000 of German extraction, and over 100,000 Scandinavians, besides many Danes, Dutch, Canadians, and others. Population in 1890, 1,686,880.



STATE SEAL OF WISCONSIN.

Wisdom in Finance, EARLY PROGRESS IN. In 1751 the people of Massachusetts had experience enough of a paper currency, and took measures to firmly establish a sound specie currency. Forgetting their former constitutional scruples, they applied for and obtained an act of Parliament prohibiting the New England assemblies, except in case of war or invasion, to issue any bills of credit for the redemption of which, within a year, provision was not made at the time of the issue; and in no case could the bills be made a legal tender.

Wise, HENRY ALEXANDER, was born in Accomac County, Va., Dec. 3, 1806; died in Richmond, same state, Sept. 12, 1876. He was admitted to the bar at Winchester, Va., in 1828,



HENRY ALEXANDER WISE.

settled in Nashville, Tenn., but soon returned to Accomac, where he was elected to Congress in 1833, and remained a member until 1843, when he was appointed minister to Brazil. He was a zealous advocate of the annexation of Texas. He was a member of the State Constitutional Convention in 1850, and from 1856 to 1860 was governor of Virginia. He approved the pro-slavery constitution (Lecompton) of Kansas, and in 1859 published a treatise on territorial government, containing the doctrine of the right of Congress to protect slavery. The last important act of his administration was ordering the execution of John Brown (which see) for the raid on Harper's Ferry. In the Virginia Convention, early in 1861, he advocated a peaceful settlement of difficulties with the national government; but after an ordinance of secession had been passed he took up arms against the government, became a Confederate brigadier-general, was an unsuccessful leader in western Virginia, and commanded at Roanoke Island, but was sick at the time of its capture. (See *Roanoke Island, Capture of*.) On that occasion his son, O. J. Wise, was killed.

Wistar's Raid against Richmond. The sufferings of the Union prisoners at Richmond caused efforts to be made early in 1864 to release them. For this purpose General B. F. Butler, in command of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, planned and attempted a movement for the capture of Richmond by a sudden descent upon it. Arrangements were made for

a diversion in favor of the movement. On Feb. 5, 1864, Butler sent a column of cavalry and infantry under General Wistar, one thousand five hundred in number, who pushed rapidly northward from New Kent Court-house to the Chickahominy at Bottom's Bridge. General Kilpatrick was sent from the Army of the Potomac to co-operate with Wistar. With his cavalry and two divisions of Hancock's infantry he crossed the Rapid Anna, and skirmished sharply with the Confederates to divert their attention from Richmond, and when the time for the execution of the raid had expired these troops recrossed the Rapid Anna, with a loss of about two hundred men. Wistar's raid was fruitless. The Confederates had been apprised of his intended movement by a traitor. Wistar found the line of the Chickahominy too strongly guarded to pass it, and he returned.

Witamo, squaw-sachem of the Pokanokets, at Pocasset, near Mount Hope, was King Philip's mother-in-law, and she and her people supported him to the last and shared his disasters. Most of her people were killed or made captives, and sold into slavery. She herself was drowned while crossing a river in her flight. Her body was recovered, and the head, cut off, stuck upon a pole at Taunton, amid the jeers and scoffs of the colonial soldiers and the bitter lamentations of the Indian prisoners.

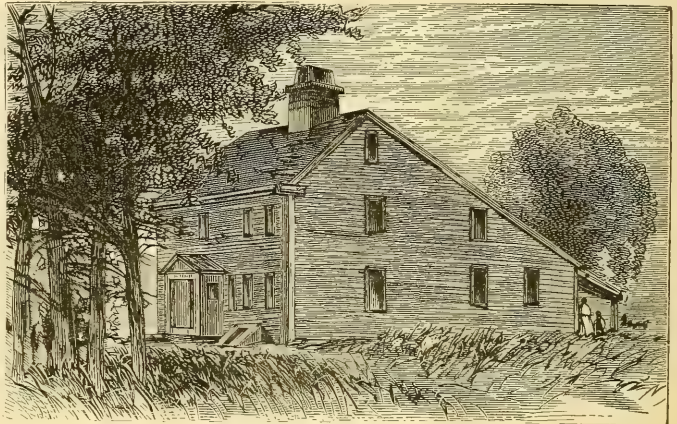
Witchcraft, SALEM. The terrible delusion of belief in witchcraft accompanied the New England settlers, and they adopted English laws against it. For a long time it was simply an undemonstrative belief, but at length it assumed an active feature in society in Massachusetts, as it was encouraged by some of the clergy, whose influence was almost omnipotent. Before the year 1688 four persons accused of witchcraft had suffered death in the vicinity of Boston. The first was Margaret Jones, of Charlestown, hanged in 1648. In 1656, Ann Hibbens, sister of Governor Bellingham, of Massachusetts, was accused of being a witch, tried by a jury, and found guilty. The magistrates refused to accept the verdict, and the case was carried to the General Court, where a majority of that body declared her guilty, and she was hanged. In 1688 a young girl in Danvers (a part of Salem) accused a maid-servant of theft. The servant's mother, a "wild Irishwoman" and a Roman Catholic, declared with vehemence that the charge was false, whereupon the accuser, out of revenge, accused the Irishwoman of having bewitched her. Some of the girl's family joined in the accusation and assisted her in her operations. They would alternately become deaf, dumb, and blind; bark like dogs and purr like cats; but none of them lost their appetite or needed sleep. Rev. Cotton Mather—a superstitious, credulous, and egotistical clergyman; a firm believer in witchcraft, and who believed America was originally peopled with "a crew of witches transported hither by the devil"—hastened to Danvers, with other clergymen as superstitious as himself, spending a whole day there in fasting and prayer, and so

controlled the devil, he said, who would allow the poor victims to "read Quaker books, the Common Prayer, and popish books," but not the Bible. Mather and his associates were satisfied that the Irishwoman was a witch, and these holy men had the satisfaction of seeing the poor creature hanged. The excited Mather (who was ridiculed by unbelievers) preached a sermon against witchcraft, crying from the pulpit, with arms extended, "Witchcraft is the most nefarious high-treason against the Majesty on high. A witch is not to be endured in heaven or on earth." His sermon was printed and scattered broadcast among the people, and bore terrible fruit not long afterwards. In 1692 an epidemic disease broke out in Danvers resembling epilepsy. The physicians could not control it, and, with Mather's sermon before them, they readily ascribed it to witchcraft. A niece and daughter of the parish clergyman were seized with convulsions and swelling of the throat, and all the symptoms produced by hysterics. Their strange actions frightened other young girls. A belief that evil spirits in the form of witches were permitted to afflict the people was soon widespread, and terror took possession of their minds, and held it for about six months. The "victims" pretended to see their tormentors with their "inner vision," and forthwith they would accuse some old or ill-favored woman of bewitching them. At length the "afflicted" and the accused became so numerous that no person was safe from suspicion and its consequences. During the prevalence of this terrible delusion, in the spring and summer of 1692, nineteen persons were hanged; one was killed by the horrible punishment of pressing to death; fifty-five were frightened or tortured into a confession of guilt; one hundred and fifty were imprisoned, and fully two hundred were named as worthy of arrest. Among those hanged was Rev. Mr. Burrroughs, an exemplary clergyman, whose purity of character was conspicuous. Malice, rapacity, and revenge often impelled persons to accuse others who were innocent; and when some statement of the accused would move the court and audience in favor of the prisoner, the accuser would solemnly declare that he saw the devil standing beside his victim whispering his touching words in his or her ear. And the absurd statement would be believed by the judges on the bench. Some, terrified, and with the hope of saving their lives or avoiding the horrors of imprisonment, would falsely accuse their friends and kinsfolk; while others, moved by the same instinct and hopes, would falsely confess themselves witches. Neither age, sex, nor condition was spared. Finally Sir William Phipps (the governor of Massachusetts, who had instituted the court for the trial of witches), his lieutenant, some near relatives of Cotton Mather, and learned and distinguished men who had promoted the delusion by acquiescing in the proceedings against accused persons, became objects of suspicion. The governor's wife, Lady Phipps, one of the purest and best of women, was accused of being a witch. The sons of ex-Governor Bradstreet were compelled to flee to

avoid the perils of false accusations; near relatives of Mather were imprisoned on similar charges. When the magistrates in Church and State found themselves in danger they suspected they had been acting unrighteously towards others, and cautiously expressed doubts of the policy of further proceedings against accused persons, for they remembered that they had caused a constable who had arrested many, and refused to arrest any more, to be hanged. A citizen of Andover who was accused, wiser and bolder than the magistrates and clergy, caused the arrest of his accuser on a charge of defamation of character, and laid his damages at £1000. The public mind was in sympathy with him. The spell was instantly broken, and at a convention of clergymen they declared it was not inconsistent with Scripture to believe that the devil might "assume the shape of a good man, and that so he may have deceived the afflicted." Satan, as usual, was made the scape-goat for the sins and follies of magistrates, clergy, and people. Many of the accusers came forward and published solemn recantations or denials of the truth of their testimony, which had been given, they said, to save their lives. The Legislature of Massachusetts appointed a general fast and supplication, "that God would pardon all the errors of his servants and people in a late tragedy raised among them by Satan and his instruments." And Judge Sewall, who had presided at many trials in Salem, stood up in his place in the church on that fast-day and implored the prayers of the people that the errors which he had committed "might not be visited by the judgments of an avenging God on his country, his family, and himself." The parish minister at Danvers in whose family the "affliction" started, and who was zealous in promoting the prosecutions, was compelled to leave the country. The credulous Mather still believed in witches, and wrote in support of the belief. He was thoroughly ridiculed by unbelievers, one of whom he dismissed by calling him "a coal from hell," and suing him for slander. This episode in the history of Massachusetts is known as "Salem Witchcraft." It astonished the civilized world, and made an unfavorable impression on the surrounding Indians. The Jesuit missionaries took advantage of it to contrast their own mild religious system with the cruel exhibitions of that of the Puritans, whose ministers had been so prominent in the fearful tragedy.

Witches of Salem, THE. The delusion known in history as Salem Witchcraft (which see) produced some frightful examples of ignorance, wickedness, superstition, and utter depravity. It began at the house of Mr. Parris, minister of

Salem, Mass. He had two slaves, an Indian and his wife Tituba. She was half negro and half Indian, skilled in tricks, and often entertained the children of the household and others with their performance. In the winter of 1671-72 she so entertained the children of Parris and others. The children learned many of them, and, being susceptible, some of them became hysterical, and when the doctors were called the latter declared that they were bewitched. During their strange conduct the children were asked who bewitched them. They finally named Sarah Goode, against whom there was popular dislike. She was arrested and sent to prison. A very eccentric man named Giles Corey was much suspected of various misdeeds. He was inclined to believe in witches, and attended some examinations. One day the "bewitched" children fell into convulsions in his presence. He was accused of witchcraft, found guilty, and judicially murdered by the terrible punishment of pressing him to death—the first and only time this horrible penalty was inflicted in New England. Governor Phipps instituted a special court for trying witches. It was composed of seven magistrates, among whom were Stoughton, Sewall, and Saltonstall. Some leading men wanted to resist this proceeding, declaring their disbelief in witchcraft; but they were soon overborne and silenced. Saltonstall, disgusted, withdrew from the bench, and Sewall, who sat through the trials, was afterwards crushed with sorrow and mortification because he had been made guilty of shedding innocent blood; but Stoughton, of implacable temper, and superstitious withal, carried on the trials, procured convictions, and pronounced sentences of imprisonment and death with a savage relish. The superstitious doctors were ready to find "witch marks," such as moles, or callosities of any kind. Francis Nourse and his wife Rebecca had a quar-

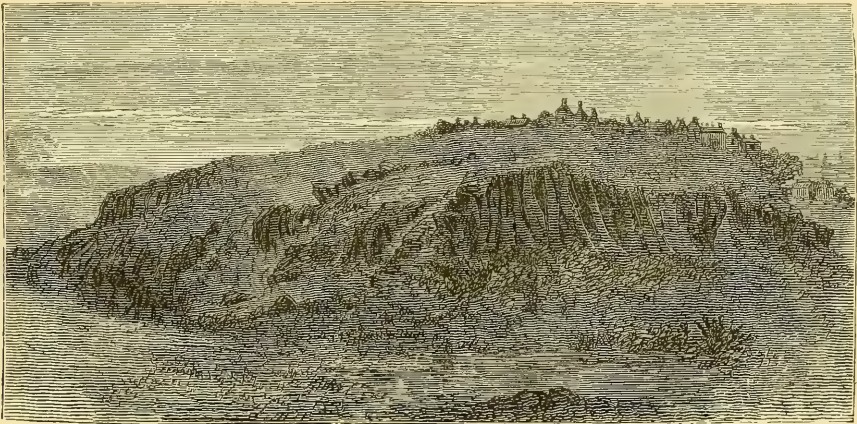


REBECCA NOURSE'S HOUSE.

rel with the Endicott family about the occupation of a farm. The children of the latter one day exclaimed that Rebecca had bewitched them, and hysteric fits and other manifestations immediately occurred, which were terrible to the over-

wrought feelings of ignorant spectators. Rebecca, who was a modest, sweet-mannered woman, was put upon trial. The jury were compelled from lack of convicting testimony to believe her innocent, but they were sent out by the judges until they should bring in a verdict contrary to the convictions of their consciences. Rebecca was hanged on "Witches' Hill," and her body cast into a common pit designed for those who should suffer a like fate. When, afterwards, Parris pronounced a sermon denouncing the practitioners of witchcraft, Sarah Cloyse, a sister of

And now began prosecutions originating in grudges or other equally wicked motives, and every man found a way to put his enemy into jail. The children had learned to imitate the gestures of accused persons, and this was attributed to supernatural causes. This condition extended to other children between ten and eighteen years of age—mostly girls—who were of a highly nervous temperament. Very soon these bewitched young people accused persons of distinction. They accused Mrs. Hale, the noble wife of the minister at Beverly, but her



WITCHES' HILL.

Rebecca, left the meeting, and she was denounced as an abettor of a witch. Priscilla Bishop, a gay and "worldly" woman, who wore a black cap, black hat, and red bodice, was denounced as a witch, for a woman who wore a scarlet petticoat was suspected. A witch at Portsmouth had been seen with a red petticoat and a green apron who vanished away in the shape of a cat. A woman walking from one town to another in rainy weather, and boasting that neither her shoes nor gown were wet, was denounced as a witch. Personal piques, private grudges, and long-standing feuds became the occasions of a great number of accusations. Rev. Stephen Burroughs was accused, the principal charge against him being that he possessed a "witch's trumpet," with which he could summon his weird partners to a conference. Cotton Mather and other clergymen fostered the delusion and the wickedness by engaging heartily against accused persons. Mather saw Burroughs hanged; and when from his sweet spirit lofty words were uttered by him on the scaffold, and the people were moved to pity by his words, Mather explained that Satan often transformed himself into an angel of light to deceive men's souls. And the people, reverencing the clergy for their goodness and wisdom, said Amen! When eight accused persons were executed at the same time, the Rev. Mr. Noyes, standing by, exclaimed, "What a sad thing it is to see eight firebrands of hell hanging there!" At length a Committee of Vigilance was appointed for the purpose of finding out and prosecuting witches.

character was too high to suffer suspicion from sensible people; but her husband believed in witchcraft, and so she was suspected. They accused Captain John Alden, a Duxbury man of consequence. After their usual performances before the magistrates, they were asked to point out the person who afflicted them, but could not. One standing near, whispered to a "bewitched" girl, when she cried out, "It is Alden." The magistrate asked, "Did you ever see him?" and she replied, "No; but the man just told me so." The magistrates were not to be deprived of a victim; and, instead of dismissing the case, ordered a ring to be formed in the street, when the child, instructed probably by an enemy of the captain, cried out, "There stands Alden, a bold fellow, with his hat on; sells powder and shot to the Indians." He was placed on a chair in view of all the people in a meeting-house, and then asked to "confess and give glory to God." "I hope I shall always give glory to God," boldly replied Alden; "but never will gratify the devil." He was committed to prison, and would have stood his trial, but was persuaded by friends to escape. Entering the house of a friend at Duxbury, he said he had just "come from the devil, and that the devil was after him." When, in 1693, some of the children began to utter suspicions of the guilt of the wife of Governor Phipps and relatives of the Mathers, it changed the aspect of affairs. Cotton Mather suspected the devil had become "confused;" and Phipps, who had appointed a special commission to prosecute the accused, now, when his

own family was touched by suspicion, took decisive measures to allay the public feeling.

Witherspoon, JOHN, D.D., LL.D., was born in Yester, near Edinburgh, Feb. 8, 1722; died near Princeton, N. J., Nov. 15, 1794. He was a lineal descendant of John Knox. Educated at the University of Edinburgh, he was licensed to preach at twenty-one. When the Young Pretender (which see) landed in England young Witherspoon marched at the head of a corps of militia to join him. He was taken prisoner at Falkirk, and remained in Doune Castle until the battle of Culloden. While settled at Paisley he was called (1767) to the presidency of the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, and was inaugurated in August, 1768. He had already written and published several works, and had acquired a fine reputation for scholarship. Under his administration the college flourished, financially and otherwise. He was not only president, but was Professor of Divinity; also pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Princeton. At the beginning of the Revolution the college was for a time broken up, when President Witherspoon assisted in the patriotic political movements. He also assisted in framing a state constitution for New Jersey, and went as a delegate to Congress in time to advocate and sign the Declaration of Independence. For six years he was a punctual attendant of Congress, serving faithfully on important committees. He was a member of the Secret Committee (which see) and of the Board of War. In Congress he opposed the repeated issues of paper-money, and he wrote and published much on the topics of the time. In 1783 he went to England to collect funds for the college. He had a son (a major) killed in the battle of Germantown. At the age of seventy years, President Witherspoon married a young woman of twenty-three.

Wolcott, OLIVER, LL.D., a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Windsor, Conn., Nov. 26, 1726; died at Litchfield, Conn., Dec. 1, 1797. He graduated at Yale College in 1747. He prepared to practise the healing art, but on being appointed sheriff of Litchfield County in 1751, he abandoned it. He was in the Council of the state twelve years (1774-86); also a major-general of militia, and Judge of the County Court of Common Pleas and of Probate. In 1775 Congress appointed him a Commissioner of Indian Affairs to secure the neutrality of the Six Nations, and he became a member of Congress in January, 1776. After the Declaration of Independence he returned to Connecticut, invested with the command of the state militia intended for the defence of New York, and in November resumed his seat in Congress. Late in the summer of 1777 he joined the army under Gates with several hundred volunteers, and assisted in the capture of Burgoyne and his army. On the field of Saratoga he was made a brigadier-general in the Continental service. In 1786 he was chosen lieutenant-governor of Connecticut, and served in that capacity ten years, when he was elected governor.

Wolcott, OLIVER, JR., LL.D., a son of the pre-

ceding, was born at Litchfield, Conn., Jan. 11, 1760; died in New York city, June 1, 1833. He graduated at Yale College in 1778, and was a volunteer to repel the British and Hessian marauders on the Connecticut coast towns in 1779. He became a volunteer aid to his father, and was afterwards a commissary officer. Admitted to the bar in 1781, he was employed in the financial affairs of Connecticut; and in 1784 was appointed a commissioner to settle its accounts with the United States. He was comptroller of national accounts in 1788-89, auditor of the United States Treasury from 1789 to 1791, comptroller from 1791 to 1795, and Secretary of the Treasury from 1795 to 1800, when he was appointed United States Circuit Judge. In 1802 he engaged in mercantile business in New York city, in which he continued until the breaking-out of the War of 1812-15, when, with his son, he established an extensive manufactory of textile goods at Wolcottville, Conn. He was governor of Connecticut nine years (1818-27). Wolcott was one of the company of wits with Hopkins, Barlow, Alsop, and Trumbull. (See *Alsop, Richard*.)

Wolcott, ROGER, was born at Windsor, Conn., Jan. 4, 1679; died there, May 17, 1767. He was not educated in school, and at the age of twelve years he was apprenticed to a mechanic. By industry and economy he afterwards acquired a competent fortune. In the expedition against Canada in 1711 he was commissary of the Connecticut forces, and had risen to major-general in 1745, when he was second in command at the capture of Louisburg. He was afterwards, successively, a legislator, county judge, Chief-justice of the Supreme Court, and governor (1751-54). In 1725 he published *Poetical Meditations*, and he left a long MS. poem descriptive of the Pequod War, which is preserved in the collections of the Connecticut Historical Society.

Wolfe, JAMES, was born at Westerham, Kent, England, Jan. 15, 1726; killed at Quebec, Sept. 13, 1759. He distinguished himself in the army when he was only twenty years of age, and was



JAMES WOLFE.

quartermaster-general in the expedition against Rochefort in 1757. At the second capture of Louisburg by the English in 1758 he acquired

such fame that Pitt placed him at the head of the expedition against Quebec in 1759, with the rank of major-general, though only thirty-three years of age. There he was confronted by the able French general the Marquis de Montcalm, and in the final engagement on the Plains of Abraham (Sept. 13, 1759) he was killed. A monument was erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey, and a fine one was erected at Quebec in honor of both Wolfe and Montcalm.

Wolfe on the Eve of the Battle at Quebec. On the evening of Sept. 12, 1759, General Wolfe, who had just recovered from a serious attack of fever, embarked with his main army on the St. Lawrence, above Point Levi, and floated up the river with the flood-tide. He was preparing for an attack upon the French the next day. The evening was warm and starlit. Wolfe was in better spirits than usual, and at the evening mess, with a glass of wine in his hand, and by the light of a lantern, he sang the little campaign song beginning:

"Why, soldiers, why
Should we be melancholy, boys?
Why, soldiers, why,
Whose business 'tis to die?"

But the cloud of a gloomy presentiment soon overcast his spirits, and at past midnight, when the heavens were hung with black clouds, and the boats were floating silently back with the tide to the intended landing-place at the chosen ascent to the Plains of Abraham, he repeated, in a low tone, to the officers around him this touching stanza of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Church-yard*:

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await, alike, the inevitable hour—
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

"Now, gentlemen," said Wolfe, "I would rather be the author of that poem than the possessor of the glory of beating the French to-morrow." He fell the next day, and expired just as the shouts of victory of the English fell upon his almost unconscious ears. (See *Quebec, Capture of*.)

"Woman Order," THE. An order issued by General Butler, in New Orleans, produced widespread indignation throughout the Confederacy. Many of the women in New Orleans, it was alleged, of the so-called higher class, openly insulted the National officers and soldiers in the street by words and actions, and would leave street-cars and church-pews whenever Union officers entered them. Finally, it was alleged, a woman of the "dominant class" spat in the faces of two officers who were walking peaceably along the street. General Butler, to arrest the growing evil, issued an order (May 15, 1862) intended to work silently, peacefully, and effectually. It was as follows: "As the officers and soldiers of the United States have been subject to repeated insults from the women (calling themselves ladies) of New Orleans, in return for the most scrupulous non-interference and courtesy on our part, it is ordered that hereafter, when any female shall, by word, gesture, or movement, insult or show contempt for any officer or soldier of the United States, she shall

be regarded and held liable to be treated as a woman of the town plying her avocation." The foolish conduct was not afterwards repeated. The "order" was misrepresented in every form, but sensible women acknowledged its justice. One of these, who had herself spurned the proffered kindness of an officer when she had fallen in the street, afterwards, says Parton, declared that the "'Woman Order' served the women right." The general received from the Confederates the name of "Butler the Beast." President Davis issued a proclamation (Dec. 26, 1862), in which he pronounced Butler to be "a felon, deserving of capital punishment," and ordered that he should not be "treated simply as a public enemy of the Confederate States of America, but as an outlaw and common enemy of mankind; and that, in the event of his capture, the officer in command of the capturing force do cause him to be immediately executed by hanging." The same treatment was ordered for all commissioned officers serving under him. A "Georgian" offered \$10,000 reward "for the infamous Butler," and a prominent citizen of Charleston offered \$10,000 reward "for the capture and delivery of the said Benjamin F. Butler, dead or alive, to any Confederate authority."

Women in Virginia, FIRST EUROPEAN. The London Company made a great mistake in attempting to plant a colony in Virginia without women. Indeed, that corporation was more anxious to acquire sudden wealth from mines of precious metals and from traffic than to found a civilized state. The emigrants they sent over the first three or four years were totally unfit, in moral and physical character, for such a noble enterprise. They were chiefly restless soldiers, ruined spendthrifts, tradesmen broken in fortune and spirits, licentious and profligate young men sent by their friends with a hope of securing for them amendment of life or escape from prison, and vagabonds of every grade, from the idle "gentlemen" (a name then given to wealthy men who were not engaged in any industrial pursuit) to dissolute criminals. The first really valuable "emigrants" (with one exception) sent over the third year of the colony were horses, swine, goats, and sheep, and, two years later, cows. In the autumn of 1608 two women—the wife of Thomas Forrest and her maid, Anne Burrows—came over with a few emigrants. These were the first women from Europe who trod the soil of Virginia proper. Anne soon afterwards married John Laydon, a carpenter; and so the first seed of homes in Virginia was planted. In 1609 over five hundred emigrants came, and with them about twenty women. For more than ten years afterwards very few women ventured across the Atlantic. Without the family relation the colony could not acquire permanency. The emigrants looked forward to a return home after acquiring a competency. The wise and benevolent Edwin Sandys, treasurer of the company, perceived this defect in their scheme of colonization, and proposed to send one hundred "pure and uncorrupt" young women to Virginia at the expense of the corporation to become wives for

the planters, the cost of transportation to be afterwards paid by the husband of each. Ninety were sent in 1620, and at about the same time Pilgrim families were settling in New England. When the young women arrived at Jamestown they were landed in small boats. The shores were lined with expectant young men who had come to see the landing of the precious cargo. Led by the rector of the parish, the maidens walked in procession to the church, where thanksgiving was offered. The church was crowded. In the course of a few days every maiden was wooed and wedded to a young planter. "Love at first sight" was the rule. Several nuptials were celebrated in the church at the same time, and most of the couples lived happily. The young matrons sent word home for other maidens to come, and sixty more, "young and handsome," came the next year. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) The price of a wife was at first fixed at one hundred and twenty-five pounds of tobacco (the currency of the colony), or about \$90. It finally rose to \$150. A debt incurred for a wife was considered a "confidential" one. It took precedence of all others. To encourage wedding, the company gave preference to married men in conferring employment. The salutary effects of the scheme and this policy were soon apparent. Homes, firesides, family altars—the purest and strongest elements in the foundation of a pure, stable, and prosperous state—were established. Domestic ties so created promoted personal virtue and habits of thrift. Men no longer talked of returning to England, but called Virginia their home. The utter demoralization of the colony consequent upon the sending of criminals from the jails of England to Virginia, which the king began to do in 1619, was prevented. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.) These criminals, sent over in large numbers at first, gave such a bad name to the colony, says Smith, "that some did choose to be hanged ere they would go thither, and were so." This making Virginia a penal colony was thus alluded to by Sir Thomas Wroth in *The Abortive of an Idle Hour* (1620):

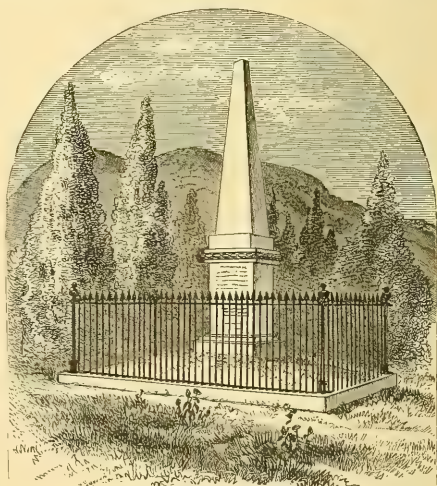
"They say a new plantation is intended,
Neere or about the Amazonia River;
But sure that mannish race is now quite ended.
O that Great Jove, of all good gifts the giver,
Would move King James once more to store that clyme
With the moll cut-purses of our bad time."

At about the same time a scheme for ridding London of some of its surplus young, and sometimes unruly, population, and to benefit the colony, as they thought, was put in practice by the London Company. They sent children, from twelve years old and upwards, to be apprenticed to the colonists—the boys until they were twenty-one years of age, and the girls to the same age, or until they were married; after which these apprentices were to be tenants on public land, well provided with "houses and stock of cattle to start with." The London Company was a powerful "children's aid society."

Women's Labor in Pennsylvania, PRICE FOR. About ten years after the founding of

the province of Pennsylvania (which see) feminine hands found plenty to do at remunerative prices. A quaint writer of the time said: "One reason why women's wages are so exorbitant is that they are not very numerous, which makes them stand upon high terms for their several services; and, moreover, they are usually married before they are twenty years of age; and, when once in that noose, are, for the most part, a little uneasie, and make their husbands so, too, till they procure them a maid-servant to bear the burden of the work, as also in some measure to wait upon them, too." Such was a condition of social life in nearly all the colonies at first, for there was a scarcity of women.

Wood, ELEAZAR, was born in New York; killed in a sortie at Fort Erie, Sept. 17, 1814. He was instructed at West Point, and was one of the earlier graduates in the corps of Engineers. He was an engineer in Harrison's campaign in 1813, and was breveted major for his gallantry in the defence of Fort Meigs, of which he had been chief in its construction. In the autumn of 1813 he was General Harrison's adjutant-general, and distinguished himself in the battle of the Thames. For his services in the battle of Lundy's Lane, or Niagara, he was breveted lieutenant-colonel. He was distinguished at Fort Erie, where he lost his life. Colonel Wood was much beloved by General Brown,



WOOD'S MONUMENT AT WEST POINT.

who caused a handsome marble monument to be erected to his memory at West Point.

Wood, THOMAS JEFFERSON, was born at Mumfordsville, Ky., Sept. 25, 1825, and graduated at West Point in 1845, entering the corps of topographical engineers. He served under General Taylor in the war with Mexico, and afterwards against the Indians on the Texan frontier. In 1855 he became captain of cavalry, and lieutenant-colonel in May, 1861. In October, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and in February, 1862, was in command of a division in the Army of the Ohio, and took part in the

battle of Shiloh (which see). In the fall he was engaged in the battle of Perryville and in the pursuit of Bragg. In the battle of Stone's River he was wounded. He commanded a division in the battle of Chickamauga (which see) and at Missionaries' Ridge (which see). He also assisted in the relief of Knoxville, and was active in the Atlanta campaign (1864), being wounded at Lovejoy's Station. He commanded the Fourth Corps in the campaign against Hood in Tennessee. (See *Nashville, Battle of*.) He was made major-general of volunteers in January, 1865, and in March was breveted major-general in the United States Army.

Wood, WILLIAM W. W., was born in Wake County, N. C., in 1818. He acquired a thorough knowledge of engineering at the West Point Foundry, N. Y. He entered the naval service in 1845, and, during the Civil War, was general inspector of steam machinery in the navy, and had charge of the construction of the National iron-clad fleet and the machinery of the new class of vessels then introduced.

Wood-engraving in the United States. No department of art in the United States has manifested greater progress towards perfection than engraving on wood, which was introduced by Dr. Alexander Anderson (which see) in 1794. Before that time engravings to be used typographically were cut on type-metal, and were very rude. As a specimen of the state of the art in the United States when Anderson introduced wood, a fac-simile is here given of the frontispiece to the fourteenth edition of Webster's *Spelling-book*, issued in 1791. It is a portrait of Washington, then President of the United States. This was executed on type-metal. When Anderson's more beautiful works on wood appeared, he was employed by Webster's publishers to make new designs and engravings for the *Spelling-book*, and the designs then made were yet in use in that work a very few years ago.

Woodbury, LEVI, LL.D., was a distinguished jurist and statesman. He was born at Frances-town, N. H., Dec. 22, 1789; died at Portsmouth, N. H., Sept. 7, 1851. He was graduated at Dartmouth College in 1809; was admitted to the bar in 1812; was chosen clerk of the State Senate

in 1816; in the same year was appointed a judge of the Superior Court. He removed to Portsmouth in 1819; was chosen Governor of New Hampshire in 1823; Speaker of the House in 1825; United States Senator, 1825-31; and in the latter year was appointed Secretary of the Navy. He was Secretary of the Treasury from 1834 to 1841, when he was again returned to the United States Senate. In Congress Mr. Wood-



FRONTISPIECE TO WEBSTER'S SPELLING-BOOK.

bury was a recognized leader of the democratic party. In 1845 he was appointed one of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, and died while in office. He published a volume of law reports.

Woodford, WILLIAM, was born in Caroline County, Va., in 1735; died in New York city, Nov. 13, 1780. He was distinguished in the French and Indian War, and in 1775 was ap-

pointed colonel of a Virginia regiment. In the battle at the Great Bridge (which see), he was in command, and afterwards was at the head of a Virginia brigade. He was wounded in the battle of Brandywine, and made a prisoner at the taking of Charleston, in 1780, and carried to New York.

Woodhull, NATHANIEL, was born at Mastie, Suffolk County, L. I., Dec. 30, 1722; died at Gravesend, L. I., Sept. 20, 1776. He served in the French and Indian War, and was colonel of a New York regiment under Amherst. In 1769 he was in the New York Assembly, and was one of the few in that body who resisted the obnoxious measures of the British Parliament. In 1776 he was President of the New York Provincial Congress. On the landing of the British on Long Island, he put himself at the head of the militia, with whom he fought in the battle of Long Island. A few days afterwards he was surprised by a party of British light-horsemen, near Jamaica, and, after surrendering his sword, he was cruelly cut with the weapons of his captors, of which wounds he died at an ancient stone-house at New Utrecht, L. I. A narrative of his



HOUSE IN WHICH WOODHULL DIED.

capture and death was published by Henry Onderdonk, Jr., in 1848. His own "Journal of the Montreal Expedition in 1760" was published in the *Historical Magazine* in September, 1861.

Woods, CHARLES, was born in Licking County, O., about 1830, and graduated at West Point in 1852. Early in 1861 he was quartermaster on General Patterson's staff, and in October became colonel of the Seventy-sixth Ohio Volunteers. He was at the capture of Fort Donelson (February, 1862), and in the battle of Shiloh in April. In the Southwest, after July, 1862, he commanded a brigade, performing gallant service at Arkansas Post (which see). He was in nearly all the battles around Vicksburg in 1863, and was made brigadier-general in August of that year. He commanded and led a brigade in the contests on Lookout Mountain (which see) and Missionaries' Ridge; and in the Atlanta campaign he was conspicuous. In the campaign through Georgia to the sea, and through the Carolinas, he led a division of Osterhaus's corps. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army; made lieutenant-colonel in July, 1866; and assigned to the Fifth Infantry in March, 1869.

Wool, JOHN ELLIS, was born in Newburgh, N. Y., in 1788; died in Troy, N. Y., Nov. 10, 1869. His early education was meagre, but before he was twenty-one he was owner of a book-store

in Troy. Losing his property by fire, he studied law, and on April 15, 1812, entered the army as captain of the Thirteenth Infantry, raising a company in Troy. At the battle of Queens-town Heights he was severely wounded; and, for gallantry in the battles at and near Plattsburg (Sept. 11, 1813), he was breveted lieutenant-colonel. In 1841 he became brigadier-general. He had been sent to Europe by the government in 1832 to examine some of the military systems on that continent, and witnessed the siege of Antwerp. In 1846 he organized and disciplined volunteers for the war with Mexico, and in less than six weeks despatched to the seat of war 12,000 men fully armed and equipped. Collecting 3000 men, he penetrated Mexico to Saltillo, after a march of 900 miles without loss. He selected the ground for the battle of Buena Vista (which see), and commanded in the early part of the action until the arrival of General Taylor. For his conduct there he was breveted major-general and received the thanks of Congress and a sword for his "services in Mexico." The New York Legislature also presented him with a sword. In 1856 he quelled Indian disturbances in Oregon, and was called to the command of the Department of the East, where he performed inestimable services in furnishing means for the salvation of the national capital (see *Union Defence Committee of New York*) and Fortress Monroe from seizure by insurgents in April, 1861. He was made commander of that fortress in August, 1861, and led the expedition that took possession of Norfolk, in May, 1862.



JOHN ELLIS WOOL.

(See *Norfolk, Evacuation of.*) In May, 1862, he was made major-general United States Army and placed at the head of the Eighth Army Corps, but did not appear in the field. He was then seventy-four years of age.

Wool, MAJOR-GENERAL, AND THE DEFENCE OF THE CAPITAL. General Wool was next in rank

to General Scott, and the commander of the Eastern Department in 1861, which comprised the whole country eastward of the Mississippi River. When, at his home in Troy, N. Y., he heard of the affair at Baltimore (see *Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore*), he hastened to Albany to confer with Governor Morgan. That official resolved to push forward troops to Washington as rapidly as possible. Wool issued orders to the United States quartermaster at New York to furnish all needful transportation, and the commissary of subsistence was directed to issue thirty days' rations to every soldier who might be ordered to Washington. Wool went to New York on the 22d, and made his headquarters at the St. Nicholas Hotel, where he was waited upon by the Union Defence Committee (which see). A plan of operations for the salvation of the capital was arranged between them. At that time all communication with the government was cut off by the Secessionists of Baltimore. The general-in-chief (Scott) could not communicate with a regiment outside of the capital, and Wool was compelled to act in conformity to the demands of the crisis, and to assume great responsibilities. Knowing General Scott's disposition, Wool said, "I shall probably be the only victim; but, under the circumstances, I am ready to make the sacrifice, if, thereby, the capital may be saved." With the tireless energy of a man of forty years he labored. Ships were chartered, supplies were furnished, and troops were forwarded to Washington with extraordinary despatch, by way of Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac River. The transports were convoyed by armed steamers, to protect them from pirates, and one of them, the *Quaker City*, was sent to Hampton Roads. To the immensely important work, Fortress Monroe, Wool sent gun-carriages, ammunition, and provisions, that it might be held to command the chief waters of Virginia. A dozen state governors applied to him, as the only superior military officer that could be reached, for advice and for munitions of war; and he assisted in arming no less than nine states. With rare vigilance, he directed Governor Yates, of Illinois, to send a force to take possession of the arsenal at St. Louis, which he believed to be in danger. The movement was timely, and 21,000 stand of small-arms, two field-pieces, and 110,000 rounds of ammunition were transferred from St. Louis to Illinois. Troops and ammunition were ordered to Cairo, Ill., and New England governors were authorized to put the coast defences within their respective states in good order. When the troops sent to Washington by Wool had opened communication with that city, the first despatch that he received from Scott was an order (April 30) to return to his headquarters at Troy for the "recovery of his health, known to be feeble." The general's health was then perfect. A month afterwards General Wool was informed by the Secretary of War that he was sent into retirement because he had issued orders, "on the application of various governors, for arms, ammunition, etc., without consultation" with the authorities at Washington.

Woolsey, MELANCTHON TAYLOR, United States Navy, was born in New York, in 1782; died at Utica, N. Y., May 18, 1838. He studied law for a while, but left the profession and entered the navy as a midshipman, April 9, 1800. He served with credit in the West Indies and the Mediterranean. In 1807 he was commissioned a lieutenant, and in 1808 was sent to Sackett's Harbor to superintend the construction of the *Oneida* (which see). He served with credit under Commodore Chauncey on Lake Ontario during the War of 1812-15. Woolsey was made master-commandant in July, 1813, and captain in April, 1816. He commanded the *Constellation* in the West Indies in 1825-26; had charge of the Pensacola navy-yard in 1827, and performed his last duty, adfoat, on the coast of Brazil.

Wooster, DAVID, was born at Stratford, Conn., March 2, 1710; died at Danbury, Conn., May 2, 1777. He graduated at Yale College in 1738, and was made captain of an armed vessel to protect the Connecticut coast in 1739. He commanded the sloop-of-war *Connecticut*, which convoyed troops on the expedition against Louisburg in 1745, and was sent in command of a cartel-ship, but was not permitted to land in France. Made captain in Pepperell's regiment, he afterwards received half-pay until 1774, and, as colonel and brigadier-general, served through



DAVID WOOSTER.

the French and Indian War. He served in the campaign in Canada in 1775, having been made a brigadier-general in June, that year. After the death of Montgomery, he was in chief command for some months, after which he resigned and was made major-general of Connecticut militia. While opposing the invasion of Tryon, sent to destroy stores at Danbury, he was mortally wounded (April 27, 1777), at Ridgefield, and died a few days afterwards. The State of Connecticut erected a neat monument over his grave at Danbury.

Worcester, JOSEPH EMERSON, LL.D., lexicographer, was born at Bedford, N. H., Aug. 24, 1784; died at Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 27, 1865. He graduated at Yale College in 1811. While teaching school at Salem he wrote a *Geographical Dictionary*; or, *Universal Gazetteer, Ancient and Modern*, published in 1817. In 1818 he issued a *Gazetteer of the United States*. This was follow-

ed by several elementary works on geography and history. In 1828 he issued *Johnson's English Dictionary, as Improved by Todd and Abridged by Chalmers, with Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary Combined; to which is added Walker's Key*. Dr. Worcester is best known by his series of dictionaries, of which there are six. For a complete list of his works see Allibone's *Critical Dictionary of English Literature, and British and American Authors*.

Worden, JOHN LORIMER, United States Navy, was born at Mount Pleasant, Westchester Co., N. Y., March 12, 1817. He entered the navy in 1835 as midshipman; was made lieutenant in 1846, and commander in July, 1862. In April,



JOHN LORIMER WORDEN.

1861, he was sent on a secret mission to the *Sabine*, off Fort Pickens, and, on his return, was imprisoned at Montgomery seven months. (See *Worden's Mission*.) In March, 1862, he commanded the *Monitor*, which fought the *Merrimac* (see *Monitor and Merrimac*), when he was severely injured about the head. In command of the *Montauk*, in the South Atlantic Blockading Squadron, he engaged Fort McAllister, Ga., in January and February, 1863, and attacked and destroyed the *Nashville*, under the guns of that fort, on the 28th of February. He was engaged in the attempt to capture Charleston, under the command of Dupont, in April, 1863. From 1869 to 1874 he was in charge of the naval academy at Annapolis, and in 1876 was in command of the European Station. He was afterwards commissioned rear-admiral. For his important services in encountering the *Merrimac*, Admiral Worden (then a lieutenant) received the thanks of Congress.

Worden's Mission. Lieutenant (now Admiral) John L. Worden was despatched from Washington on the morning of April 7, 1861, by the Secretary of the Navy, to carry orders to Captain Adams, of the *Sabine*, near Fort Pickens (which see). Worden arrived at Montgomery, Ala., late at night on the 9th, and departed for Pensacola early the next morning. He observed great excitement in the Gulf region, and, fearing he might be arrested, he read his de-

spatches carefully and then tore them up. On the morning of the 11th he arrived at Pensacola. There he was taken before General Bragg, and told that officer that he was a lieutenant of the United States Navy, and had been sent from Washington, under orders from the Navy Department, to communicate with the squadron under Captain Adams. Bragg immediately wrote a "pass," and, as he handed it to Worden, remarked, "I suppose you have despatches for Captain Adams?" Worden replied, "I have no written ones, but I have a verbal communication to make to him from the Navy Department." In the *Wyandot*, a flag-of-truce vessel lying in Pensacola harbor, Worden was conveyed to the *Sabine*, arriving there at about noon, April 12. His verbal despatch was to direct Captain Adams to reinforce Fort Pickens immediately. It was done that night, just in time to save it from the effects of treachery. (See *Fort Pickens, Siege of*.) Worden immediately returned to Pensacola and started for Washington, at nine o'clock that evening, by way of Montgomery, on a railway train. When Bragg found he had committed a great blunder in allowing Worden to go to the *Sabine* (a spy having informed him of the reinforcement of Fort Pickens that very night), he endeavored to shield his own stupidity by falsely accusing Worden of having practised falsehood and deception in gaining permission to visit Captain Adams. This accusation he telegraphed to Montgomery, and recommended Worden's arrest. It was done a short distance below Montgomery, and on Monday, April 15, he was cast into the common jail at the capital of Alabama. Bragg's accusation made him an object of scorn to Davis and his compeers and the citizens generally; and there, in that prison, this honorable officer, whose conduct had been governed by the nicest sense of propriety, was confined until the 11th of November following, when he was paroled and ordered to report to the Confederate Government at Richmond, and, on the 18th, was exchanged for Lieutenant Sharpe, of the Confederate Navy. Worden was the first prisoner of war held by the insurgents.

Worth, WILLIAM JENKINS, was born at Hudson, N. Y., March 1, 1794; died at San Antonio, Texas, May 7, 1849. He began life as a clerk in a store at Hudson, and entered the military service, as lieutenant of infantry, in May, 1813. He was highly distinguished in the battles of Chipewawa and at Lundy's Lane, in July, 1814, and was severely wounded in the latter contest. He was in command of cadets at West Point from 1820 to 1828, and in 1838 was made colonel of infantry. He served in the Seminole War from 1840 to 1842, and was in command of the army in Florida in 1841-42. He was breveted a brigadier-general in March, 1842, commanded a brigade under General Taylor in Mexico in 1846, and was distinguished in the capture of Monterey. In 1847-48 he commanded a division, under General Scott, in the capture of Vera Cruz, and in the battles from Cerro Gordo to the assault and capture of the city of Mexico. He was breveted major-general, and was presented

with a sword by Congress, by the states of New York and Louisiana, and by his native county, Columbia. A monument was erected to his memory at the junction of Broadway and Fifth Avenue, New York, by the corporation of that city.

Wrangling in Pennsylvania. At the beginning of the eighteenth century a Church of England party had grown up in Pennsylvania, towards which the Christian Quakers (which see) gravitated. These Episcopalians jealously watched the proceedings of the Quaker magistrates of the province, and represented them as unfit to rule, especially in time of war. Penn's governor (Evans) having thrown out a hint that the proprietor "might throw off a load he had found too heavy"—the political interference of the Assembly—that body became very angry, and, headed by David Lloyd, a lawyer, and their speaker (who had been at one time Penn's attorney-general), they agreed to nine resolutions, which Lloyd embodied in a memorial addressed to the proprietor. In it Penn was charged with an evasion of the fulfilment of his original promises to the colonists, by artfully securing that negative on the Assembly which he had once yielded; with playing the part of a hard and exacting landlord; with keeping the constitution of the courts and the administration of justice in his own hands; with appointing oppressive officers; and, finally, with a downright betrayal of the colonists in his present negotiation for parting with the government—a matter in which he was charged to proceed no further, lest it should look like a "first fleecing and then selling." Penn demanded the punishment of Lloyd. The new Assembly shifted the responsibility of Lloyd's memorial upon their predecessors. The friends of Penn, headed by Logan, secured a majority the next year, which voted an affectionate address to the proprietor. But vexatious troubles soon broke out again. Complaints were sent to Penn against Evans and Logan. The former was dissipated, and had corrupted William, the eldest son of Penn, who became a companion of his revels. That son publicly renounced Quakerism. Evans was superseded by Charles Gookin. He found the Assembly in a bad humor, because Penn sustained Logan, whom they denounced as "an enemy to the welfare of the province, and abusive of the representatives of the people." Logan went to England, and, returning, brought a letter from Penn to the Assembly, giving an outline history of his efforts in settling his province, and intimating that, unless a change should take place, and quiet be restored, he might find it necessary to dispose of so troublesome a sovereignty. An entirely new Assembly was chosen at the next election, and nearly all the points in dispute were arranged. But Penn, wearied with contentions, made an arrangement to cede the sovereignty of his province to the queen for the consideration of about \$60,000, reserving to himself the quit-rents and property in the soil. The consummation of this bargain was prevented by Penn being prostrated by an attack of paraly-

sis (1712), though he lived six years afterwards. (See *Penn., William.*)

Wright, HORATIO GATES, was born in Connecticut, about 1820, and graduated at West Point in 1841, remaining two years as assistant professor of engineering. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1861,



HORATIO GATES WRIGHT.

and major-general in July, 1862. He was chief-engineer of Heintzelman's division at the battle of Bull's Run, and in the Port Royal expedition he commanded a brigade. In February, 1862, he was in the expedition that captured Fernandina, Fla., and commanded a division in the attack on Secessionville, S. C., in June, 1862. In July he was assigned to the Department of the Ohio, and commanded a division in the Army of the Potomac at Gettysburg. After General Sedgwick's death he was in command of the Sixth Corps, which he led in the Richmond campaign until July, 1864, when he was sent to the defence of the capital, and afterwards (August to December) was engaged in the Shenandoah campaign. He was wounded in the battle of Cedar Creek. He was in the final military operations which ended with the surrender of Lee. He was brevetted major-general United States Army in March, 1865.

Wright, SIR JAMES. (See *Georgia, Flight of the Royal Governor of.*)

Wright, SILAS, was born at Amherst, Mass., May 24, 1795; began his business life as a lawyer at Canton, N. Y., in 1819; became a member of the State Senate in 1823; was a representative in Congress, 1827-29; advocated a protective tariff; was Comptroller of the State of New York, 1829-33; United States Senator, 1833-44; supported Jackson in his war against the United States Bank; opposed the extension of slavery; was chosen Governor of New York in 1844, and at the close of his term of office retired to his farm of thirty acres and to private life, near Canton. He died Aug. 27, 1847.

Writs of Assistance. An illicit trade with the neutral ports of St. Thomas and Eustatius, and with the French islands—under flags of truce to the latter, granted by colonial governors, nominally for an exchange of prisoners, but

really as mere covers for commercial transactions—had been carried on some time by the northern colonies. Of this the English merchants complained, and Pitt issued strict orders for it to be stopped. It was too profitable to be easily suppressed. Francis Bernard, who was appointed governor of Massachusetts Aug. 4, 1760, attempted the strict enforcement of the laws against this trade. Strenuous opposition was aroused in Boston, and the custom-house officers there applied to the Superior Court to grant them writs of assistance, according to the English exchequer practice—that is, warrants to search, when and where they pleased, for smuggled goods, and to call in others to assist them. Thomas Hutchinson was the chief-justice, and favored the measure. The merchants employed Oxenbridge Thatcher and James Otis—the former a leading law practitioner and the latter a young barrister of brilliant talents—to oppose it. The people could not brook such a system of petty oppression, and there was much excitement. Their legality was questioned before a court held in the old Town Hall in Boston. The advocate for the crown (Mr. Gridley) argued that, as Parliament was the supreme legislature for the whole British realm, and had authorized these writs, no subject had a right to complain. The fiery James Otis answered him with great power and effect. The fire of patriotism glowed in every sentence; and when he uttered the words, “To my dying-day I will oppose, with all the power and faculties God has given me, all such instruments of slavery on one hand and of villany on the other,” he gave the key-note to the concerted action of the English-American colonies in opposing the obnoxious acts of the British Parliament. “Then,” said John Adams, who heard Otis’s speech, “the independence of the colonies was proclaimed.” Very few writs of assistance were issued, and these were rendered ineffectual by the popular will.

Wyllys, SAMUEL, was born at Hartford, Jan. 15, 1739; died June 9, 1823. He graduated at Yale College in 1758, and in 1775 became lieutenant-colonel of Spencer’s regiment. He commanded a regiment at the siege of Boston, was appointed colonel in the Continental army in January, 1776, and served with much reputation throughout the war. He succeeded his father as Secretary of State of Connecticut, which post he resigned in 1809. His grandfather had also been Secretary of State. The three held that office ninety-eight years in succession. He became a general of militia, and was a member of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Wyoming, STATE OF. Wyoming Territory was formed by act of Congress in 1868 from portions of Dakota, Idaho, and Utah. The first settlement within its borders was made in 1834 at Fort Laramie. The first agricultural settlers were a company of Mormons, in 1853. When the territory was created, in 1868, it had only 3000 white inhabitants. It was admitted as a state in 1890. The Constitution provides that men and women shall have equal right to vote.

The capital, and largest town, is Cheyenne, situated on the Union Pacific Railroad. Population in 1890, 60,705.

Wyoming Valley, CIVIL WAR IN THE. At the close of the Revolution settlers from Connecticut began to pour into the Wyoming valley, under the auspices of the Susquehanna Company (which see). Pennsylvania denied the claim of Connecticut to the valley, and asked Congress to appoint a commission to hear the claimants by representatives, and determine the questions in dispute. The commissioners, sitting at Trenton, decided against the claims of Connecticut. The settlers, who believed the decision covered only the question of jurisdiction, were content, but the authorities of Pennsylvania claimed a right to the soil, and would not confirm the land-titles of the inhabitants received from the Susquehanna Company. Not only so, but measures were taken to expel the Connecticut people from the valley. The most unjust and oppressive measures were employed by civil and military officers there. These the people endured for a while; but when, in July, 1784, two promising young men were killed by soldiers in the employ of Pennsylvania, the people rose in retaliation, led by Colonel John Franklin, of Connecticut. Colonel John Armstrong was sent (August) with a considerable force to restore order in the valley. All these movements were directed by the Pennsylvania Assembly, contrary to the general sentiment of the people. The hearts of the people of Wyoming were strengthened by the sympathy of good men. The number of settlers increased, and, defying the soldiers under Armstrong, cultivated their lands, and for two years waited for justice. In 1786 they procured the formation of their district into a new county, which they named Luzerne. Colonel Timothy Pickering was sent by the authorities of Pennsylvania to harmonize affairs in that county. He succeeded in part, but restless spirits opposed him, and he became a victim to cruel ill-treatment. Quiet was restored (1788), but disputes about land-titles in the Wyoming valley continued for nearly fifteen years afterwards.

Wyoming Valley, INVASION OF THE. Among the Connecticut settlers in the Wyoming valley (see *Susquehanna Company, The*) were some Scotch and Dutch families from the Mohawk valley. About thirty of them, suspected of being Tories, were arrested at the beginning of the war, and sent to Connecticut for trial. They were released for want of evidence, returned to the Mohawk, joined the Tory partisan corps of Johnson and Butler, and waited for a chance for vengeance on their persecutors. In June, 1778, a motley host of Tories and Indians, under the general command of Colonel Butler, gathered at Tioga, on the Susquehanna River. They entered the Wyoming valley July 2. Among them were the vengeful Scotch and Dutch. Butler made his headquarters at the fortified house of Wintermoot, a Tory. Two full companies, out of three thousand inhabitants, had been raised in the valley for the Continental army, and its

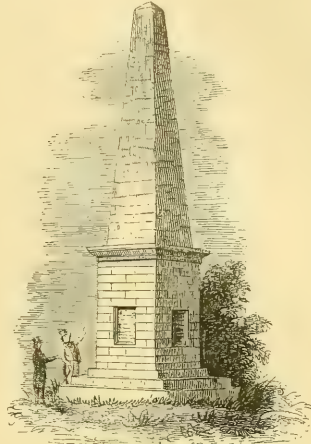
only defenders were old men, brave women, tender youths, and a handful of trained soldiers. These, four hundred in number, Colonel Zebulon Butler, assisted by Colonel Denison, Lieutenant-colonel Dorrance, and Major Garratt, led up the valley (July 3) to surprise the invaders at Wintermoot's. They were terribly smitten



WINTERMOOT'S.

by Tories and savages in a sharp fight, and more than one half were killed. Very soon two hundred and twenty-five scalps were in the hands of the barbarians. A few of the smitten ones escaped, with Colonel Denison, to Forty Fort, just above Wilkes-Barre, and Butler himself fled to Wilkes-Barre Fort. In the former, families for miles around had taken shelter. The night that followed was full of horrors. Prisoners were tortured and murdered, and the fugitives were in continual fear of death. Unexpectedly to all, the leaders of the invaders offered humane terms of surrender to the inmates of Forty Fort, and they retired to their homes in fancied security, while Colonel Butler left the valley. In disobedience of his commands, the Indians spread over the valley before sunset (July 4), and when night fell they began the horrid work of plundering, murdering, and burning. The blaze of twenty dwellings lighted up the valley and the neighboring mountains at one time. In almost every house and every field the murderous work was performed. When the moon rose, the terrified survivors of the massacre fled to the Wilkes-Barre Mountains and to the morasses of the Pocono beyond. In that dreadful wilderness called the "Shades of Death" many women and children perished. Those who survived made their way eastward until they reached their native homes in Connecticut. Five miles and a half above Wilkes-Barre, near the pleasant village of Troy, stands a monument, construct-

ed of hewn blocks of granite, erected in commemoration of the slain in the battle who were buried at that spot. It is sixty-two and a half



WYOMING MONUMENT.

feet in height. Upon two marble tablets are the names of those who fell, as far as could be ascertained, and also of those who were in the battle and survived. This monument was not completed until more than sixty years after the sad event.

Wythe, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Elizabeth City, Va., in 1726; died at Richmond, June 8, 1806. He was educated at the College of William and Mary, after receiving excellent home instruction from his mother. Losing his parents in his youth, and having control of a large fortune, he led a dissipated and extravagant life until he was thirty years of age, when his conduct entirely changed. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1757, when he soon became very eminent in his profession for learning, industry, and eloquence. For many years he was a prominent member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, as the representative of his alma mater, in which he was professor of law from 1779 to 1789. He was an influential member of Congress from 1775 to 1777, when he was chosen Speaker of the House of Delegates, and was appointed Judge of the State High Court of Chancery. On the reorganization of the Court of Equity, he was made sole chancellor, and held the office more than twenty years. Chancellor Wythe's death was occasioned by poison. A person suspected of administering it was acquitted. Late in life he emancipated his slaves, and gave them means for subsistence.

Y.

Yale College, the third of the higher institutions of learning established in the English-American colonies in the 17th century, is in New Haven, Conn. Such an institution was contemplated by the planters soon after the founding of the New Haven colony, but their means were too feeble, and the project was abandoned for a time. It was revived in 1698, and the following year ten of the principal clergymen were appointed trustees to found a college. These held a meeting at New Haven and organized an association of eleven ministers, including a rector. Not long afterwards they met, when each minister gave some books for a library, saying, "I give these books for founding a college in Connecticut." The General Assembly granted a charter (Oct. 9, 1701), and on Nov. 11 the trustees met at Saybrook (see *Saybrook, Fort*), which they had selected as the place for the college, and elected Rev. Abraham Pierson rector. The first student was Jacob Hemmingway, who entered in March, 1702, and was alone for six months, when the number of students was increased to eight, and a tutor was chosen. The site being inconvenient, in 1716 it was voted to establish the school permanently at New Haven, and the first college-building was begun soon afterwards. It was finished in 1718, and at the "commencement" in September of that year it was named Yale College, in compliment to Elihu Yale, its most eminent benefactor. (See *Yale, Elihu*.) This name was confined to that college-building, but in 1745, when a new charter was given, it was applied to the whole institution. Its laws were printed in Latin in 1748, and this was the first book printed in New Haven. The government of the college was administered by the rector, or president, and ten fellows, all of whom were clergymen, until 1792, when the governor and lieutenant-governor of the state and six senior assistants of the council were made fellows *ex-officio*, making the corporation consist of eighteen members besides the president. In 1871-72 the Legislature of Connecticut passed a law providing for the substitution of six graduates of the college for the six councillors, to be selected by the alumni. The legal title of the institution now is "The President and Fellows of Yale College in New Haven," but the immediate government is vested in the president and faculty. The college has had thirteen presidents from 1701 to 1894, and is, next to Harvard, the richest college in the United States. Its numerous fine buildings occupy a square of about nine acres. It has a scientific school (Sheffield), museum of natural history, picture-gallery, extensive mineral and geological cabinets, and a library containing about one hundred and sixty thousand volumes, exclusive of pamphlets. In Yale College particular attention is given to the Oriental languages, and its curriculum embraces nearly the whole circle of science and literature. It has received the grant from Con-

gress and is the college of industry for Connecticut. (See *Agricultural Colleges*.)

Yale, ELIHU, was born at New Haven, Conn., April 5, 1648; died in London, July 22, 1721. At the age of ten he went to England, where he was educated. About 1678 he went to the East Indies, where he remained twenty years and amassed a large estate. He was Governor of Fort George there from 1687 to 1692. Mr. Yale married a native of the East Indies, by whom he had three daughters. He passed his latter days in England, where he was made Governor of the East India Company and a Fellow of the Royal Society. He remembered his native country with affection, and when the school that grew into a college was founded he gave donations to it amounting in the aggregate to about \$2000. It was given the name of Yale in his honor.

Yancey, WILLIAM LOWNDES, was born at Ogeechee Shoals, Ga., Aug. 10, 1814; died near Montgomery, Ala., July 28, 1863. He was very young when he went to Alabama, where he studied law, and entered upon its practice at Montgomery. For a while he was engaged in journalism, and served in both branches of the Alabama Legislature. From 1844 to 1847 he was a member of Congress. A fervid and fluent speaker, he was an influential politician in the Democratic party, and became a leader of the extreme pro-slavery party in the South. So early as 1858 he advised the organization of committees of safety all over the cotton-growing states to "fire the Southern heart" in favor of disunion and the founding of a slave empire within the Golden Circle (which see). His speeches did much to bring about the insurrection in the cotton states which expanded into a wide-spread civil war. Mr. Yancey reported the Alabama Ordinance of Secession to the convention at Montgomery, which was adopted Jan. 14, 1861. In February following he was appointed a Confederate commissioner to the governments of Europe to obtain the recognition of the Confederate States. He entered the Confederate Congress early in 1862, in which he served until his death.

Yankee Doodle. The origin of this air is involved in obscurity. It seems to be older than our Republic. It is said to be the tune of an old English nursery-song called *Lucy Locket*, which was current in the time of Charles I. In New England in colonial times it was known as *Lydia Fisher's Jig*. Among other verses of the song was this:

"Lucy Locket lost her pocket,
Lydia Fisher found it;
Not a bit of money in it,
Only binding round it."

A song composed in derision of Cromwell by a loyal poet commenced with

"Nankey Doodle came in town,
Riding on a pony,
With a feather in his hat
Upon a macaroni."

A "doodle" is defined in the old English dictionaries as "a sorry, trifling fellow," and this tune was applied to Cromwell in that sense by the cavaliers. A "macaroni" was a knot in which the feather was fastened. In a satirical poem accompanying a caricature of William Pitt in 1766, in which he appears on stilts, the following verse occurs:

"Stamp Act! le diable! dat is de job, sir:
Dat is de Stiltman's nob, sir,
To be America's nabob, sir,
Doodle, noodle, do."

Kossuth, when in this country, said that when Hungarians heard the tune they recognized it as an old national dance of their own. Did *Yankee Doodle* come from Central Asia with the great migrations? A secretary of the American Legation at Madrid says a Spanish professor of music told him that *Yankee Doodle* resembled the ancient sword-dance of St. Sebastian. Did the Moors bring it into Spain many centuries ago? A Brunswick gentleman told Dr. Ritter, Professor of Music at Yassar College, that the air is that of a nursery-song traditional in the Duchy of Brunswick. A surgeon in the British army, who was with the provincial troops under Johnson at the head of Lake George, being impressed with the uncouth appearance of the provincial soldiers, composed a song to the air, which he called *Yankey*, instead of *Nankey*, *Doodle*, and commended it to the motley soldiers as "very elegant." They adopted it as good martial music, and it became very popular. The air seems to have been known in the British army, for it is recorded that when, in 1768, British troops arrived in Boston harbor "the *Yankee Doodle* tune" (says a writer at that time) "was the capital piece in the band of music" at Castle William. The change in the spelling of the word "Yankey" was not yet made. Trumbull, in his *McFingal*, uses the original orthography. While the British were yet in Boston after the arrival of Washington at Cambridge in the summer of 1775, some poet among them wrote the following piece in derision of the New England troops. It is the original *Yankee Doodle* song:

1. "Father and I went down to camp,
Along with Captain Goodwin,
Where we see the men and boys
As thick as hasty-puddin'.
2. "There was *Captain* Washington
Upon a *slapping* stallion,
A giving orders to his men:
I *guess* there was a million.
3. "And then the feathers on his hat,
They looked so *tarnal* *finea*,
I wanted *pockity* to get,
To give to my *Jemima*.
4. "And then they had a *swampin'* gun,
As large as log of maple,
On a *deuced* little cart—
A load for father's cattle.
5. "And every time they fired it off
It took a horn of powder;
It made a noise like father's gun,
Only a *nation* louder.
6. "I went as near to it myself
As Jacob's *underpinnin'*,
And father went as *near agin*—
I thought the *deuce* was in him.

7. "Cousin Simon grew so bold,
I thought he would have cocked it;
It scared me so, I shrunked off,
And hung by father's pocket.
8. "And Captain Davis had a gun,
He *kind* a clapped his hand on't,
And stuck a crooked stabbing-iron
Upon the little end out.
9. "And there I *see* a pumpkin-shell
As big as mother's basin,
And every time they touched it off
They scampered *like the nation*.
10. "And there I see a little keg,
Its heads were made of leather:
They knocked upon't with little sticks,
To call the folks together.
11. "And then they'd *five away like fun*,
And play on *cornstalk* fiddles;
And some had *ribbons* red as blood,
All wound about their middles.
12. "The troopers, too, would gallop up
And fire right in our faces;
It scared me almost half to death
To see them run such races.
13. "Old Uncle Sam come then to change
Some pancakes and some onions
For '*lasses* cakes, to carry home
To give his wife and young ones.
14. "I *see* another *snarl* of men
A digging graves, they told me,
So *tarnal* long, so *tarnal* deep,
They *tended* they should hold me.
15. "It scared me so, I *hooked* it off,
Nor slept, as I remember,
Nor turned about till I got home,
Locked up in mother's chamber."

Yankee Doodle appears to be "a child of thirty-six fathers." It has been suggested by a witty lady that perhaps *Yankee Doodle* "composed itself," as the Germans say of folk-songs. It is accepted as our national air, and is in positive contrast in spirit to the stately *God Save the King* of Old England. The tune is so associated with the patriotic deeds of Americans that it always inspires a love of country in the heart of every good citizen. In 1861 the Legislature of South Carolina forbade the playing of *Yankee Doodle* in that state.

Yates, RICHARD, was born at Warsaw, Ky., Jan. 18, 1818. In early youth he went to Illi-



RICHARD YATES.

nois; graduated at Illinois College; studied law, and became eminent in the profession.

He was often a member of the State Legislature. He was a member of Congress from 1851 to 1855, and Governor of Illinois from 1861 to 1865 — a most active "war-governor" during that exciting period. The Legislature of Illinois met on Jan. 7, 1861. The governor's message to them was a patriotic appeal to his people; and he summed up what he rightly believed to be the public sentiment of Illinois, in the words of President Jackson's toast, given thirty years before: "Our Federal Union: it must be preserved." Governor Yates was elected to the United States Senate in 1865, and served therein six years.

Yates, ROBERT, was born at Schenectady, N. Y., Jan. 27, 1738; died in Albany, N. Y., Sept. 9, 1801. He was admitted to the bar in 1760, and became eminent in his profession. During the controversies preceding the war for independence he wrote several excellent essays upon the great topics of the time. He was a prominent member of the Committee of Safety at Albany; also, Chairman of the Committee on Military Operations (1776-77), member of the Provincial Congress of New York, and of the convention that framed the first state constitution. He was Judge of the Supreme Court of New York from 1777 to 1790, and Chief-justice from 1790 to 1798. Judge Yates was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution, but left the convention before its close and opposed the instrument then adopted. He kept notes of the debates while he was in the convention. He was one of the commissioners to treat with Massachusetts and Connecticut respecting boundaries and to settle difficulties between New York and Vermont.

Yazoo, CONFEDERATE FLEET ON THE, DESTROYED. General Herron was sent (July 12, 1863) up the Yazoo River with a considerable force in light-draft steamboats to destroy a Confederate fleet lying at Yazoo City. The transports were conveyed by the armored gunboat *De Kalb*. When they approached the town the garrison and vessels fled up the river, and were pursued. When the *De Kalb* was abreast the town she was sunk by the explosion of a torpedo. Herron's cavalry landed and pursued the vessels up the shore, destroying a greater portion of them. The remainder were sunk or burned by the Confederates. Herron captured three hundred prisoners, six heavy guns, some small-arms, eight hundred horses, and two thousand bales of cotton.

Yazoo Lands. The first Legislature of Georgia that met after the adoption of the national Constitution undertook to sell out to three private companies the pre-emption right to tracts of wild land beyond the Chattahoochee River. Five million acres were allotted to the "South Carolina Yazoo Company" for the sum of \$66,964, seven million acres to the "Virginia Yazoo Company" for \$93,742, and three million five hundred thousand acres to the "Tennessee Yazoo Company" for \$16,876. This movement was in response to a prevailing spirit of land speculation stimulated by extensive migrations of people from the Atlantic seaboard to new lands in

consequence of pecuniary embarrassment, a result of the war for independence. In 1790 the national government, by treaty, gave much of the lands south and west of the Oconee River to the Creek Indians. This offended the Georgians, and the more violent among them proposed open resistance to the government and to settle on those lands in spite of the treaty. Sales of the lands were made to a "Georgia Yazoo Company" formed subsequent to the treaty. The sales in 1796 had amounted to \$500,000, a sum totally inadequate for the amount of land purchased. There were evidences of great corruption on the part of the Georgia Legislature, and in 1796 Congress revoked the sales as unconstitutional and void, and directed the repayment to the several companies of the amount of money which they had paid to the state, if called for within eight months. The original act authorizing the sale was burned in front of the State-house, and all records relating to it were expunged. In 1798 the constitution of Georgia was revised, and in certain provisions, having reference expressly to the Yazoo Lands, an effectual check was put to these speculations. In the organization of territories west of the Chattahoochee the subject of the Yazoo lands presented some grave questions, for there were still claimants under the original grants who were importunate. They claimed in the aggregate about \$8,000,000 as an equivalent for a relinquishment of their rights. In 1804 the "New England Mississippi Company," successor, by purchase, to the "Georgia Yazoo Company," appeared as claimant, by its agent, and solicited a settlement. It appeared that a great share of those original grants had passed into the hands of New England men. Their claims were violently opposed, partly on political and sectional grounds. The subject was before Congress several years, many of the Southern members, led by the implacable John Randolph, defeating every proposed measure for making an honorable settlement with the New England purchasers. The claimants turned from Congress to the courts. In 1810 the Supreme Court of the United States decided that the act of the Georgia Legislature in repudiating the original grants of the Yazoo lands was unconstitutional and void, being in violation of a solemn contract. This decision and other considerations caused Congress to make a tardy settlement with the claimants in the spring of 1814. Such was the end of a speculation out of which Southern grantees made splendid fortunes, but which proved very unprofitable to Northern speculators.

Yeamans, SIR JOHN, Governor of South Carolina from 1671 to 1674, was born in Bristol, England, and died in Barbadoes. In 1655 he went from Barbadoes and settled in "Clarendon County," or South Carolina (see *South Carolina, Colony of*), and first introduced negro slaves there. He was made governor, and at first he ruled with mildness and justice, but, becoming violent and tyrannical, he was removed from office in 1674, and returned to England.

Yearly, SIR GEORGE, Governor of Virginia in 1616, 1619-21, and 1625, was a native of England, and first introduced representative government in Virginia. (See *Virginia, Colony of*.)

Yearnings for Peace (1779). The low state of the French finances at the beginning of 1779 made her monarch desire a termination of the war, which France was bound by treaty to wage until the independence of the United States should be secured. Early in that year the monarch of Spain (Charles IV.), uncle of the King of France, had offered his mediation between the belligerents, which Great Britain at first evaded and then rejected. Spain joined France in the war against England, but did not acknowledge the independence of the United States, for, having vast colonial possessions in America, the successful struggle of the patriots with the mother country for independence might have an unfavorable influence on the Spanish-American colonies. The French court showed its anxiety for a speedy termination of the war when its minister (M. Gerard) suggested to the Congress that the Americans ought, perhaps, to be satisfied, as the Dutch and Swiss had been, with an indirect acknowledgment of their independence; and to be moderate, also, in their other demands concerning boundaries, the Newfoundland fisheries, the navigation of the Mississippi, etc. He also suggested that the United States ought to make such concessions to Spain, on the subject of the Mississippi and the country on its banks, as would induce her to come heartily into the alliance. These suggestions were repeated by the Chevalier de Luzerne, Minister Gerard's successor. The United States yielded to these suggestions so far as to appoint commissioners to negotiate for peace—John Adams with England, Jay with Spain.

Yellow-fever, EARLY APPEARANCE OF THE. In June, 1693, the yellow-fever prevailed in Boston to a considerable extent. It was carried there by a fleet and army from the West Indies, which had been ordered to Boston to co-operate in an attack upon Canada. (See *Quebec, Expedition against*, 1690.) In 1699 this fever swept off many of the inhabitants of Philadelphia. It was carried there from the West Indies, where it had been prevailing extensively for some time.

Yellowstone Park. In 1872 Congress passed an act for setting apart a large tract of the public domain, about forty miles square, lying near the head-waters of the Yellowstone River, on the northeastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, for a public park. It is withdrawn from sale, settlement, or occupancy, and is dedicated to the "pleasure and enjoyment of the people of the United States."

Yeo, SIR JAMES LUCAS, who commanded the British naval forces on Lake Ontario in 1813-1814, was born in Southampton, England, in 1782, and died in his native country in 1819. He was an active, but very cautious officer. Just after the declaration of war (1812) a Federalist newspaper charged Captain Porter with cruelly treating an English seaman on board the *Essex* who refused to fight against his country-

men, pleading, among other reasons, that if caught he would be hung as a deserter from the royal navy. This story reached Sir James L.



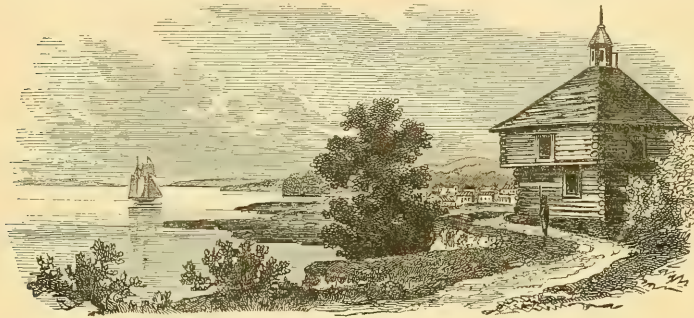
JAMES LUCAS YEO.

Yeo, then a commander on the West India station, and he sent by a paroled prisoner a message to Porter, inviting the *Essex* to combat with his vessel (the *Southampton*), saying he "would be glad to have a tête-à-tête anywhere between the capes of the Delaware and the Havana, when he would have the pleasure to break his own [Porter's] sword over his d—d head, and put him down forward in irons." The challenge was accepted in more decorous terms, but the tête-à-tête never came off. Sir James was too cautious. Indeed, his conduct on two or three occasions on Lake Ontario caused the wits of the day to interpret his extreme caution as a specimen of "heart disease" known to cowards.

York (or Toronto), CAPTURE OF (1813). In the winter of 1813 the new Secretary of War (John Armstrong) conceived a new plan for an invasion of Canada. He did not think the American troops on the northern frontier sufficiently strong to attack Montreal, and he proposed instead to attack successively Kingston, York (now Toronto), and Fort George, near the mouth of the Niagara River, thus cutting off the communication between Montreal and Upper Canada. As the British had a sloop-of-war on the stocks at York, another fitting out there, and a third repairing, Dearborn and Chauncey were of opinion that the surest way to secure the supremacy of Lake Ontario, and so make an invasion successful, would be to attack York first. This proposition was sanctioned by the President, and at the middle of April (1813) Chauncey and Dearborn had matured a plan of operations with a combined land and naval force. It was to cross the lake and capture York, and then proceed to attack Fort George. At the same time troops were to cross the Niag-

ara River and capture Fort Erie, opposite Buffalo, and Fort Chippewa, below, join the victors at Fort George, and all proceed to capture Kingston. With seventeen hundred troops under the immediate command of Brigadier-general Zebulon M. Pike, Dearborn sailed in Chauncey's fleet from Sackett's Harbor, April 25, and on the morning of the 27th the armament appeared before York. Chauncey's fleet consisted of the

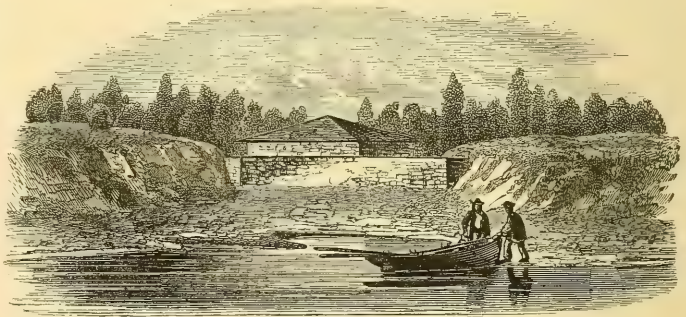
ously damaging the works. The dismayed enemy spiked the cannons, and retired to a battery nearer the town. That, too, was soon abandoned, and Sheaffe and his men fled to the garrison, near the governor's house, and then opened a fire of round and grape shot upon the Americans. The great guns of the enemy were soon silenced, and the Americans expected every moment to see a white flag displayed from



YORK IN 1813, FROM THE BLOCK-HOUSE EAST OF THE DON.

new sloop-of-war *Madison*, 24 guns, the brig *Oneida*, and eleven armed schooners. York was the capital of Upper Canada, and then the headquarters of General Sheaffe, at the head of regulars and Indians. It was intended to land at a clearing near old Fort Toronto, but a strong easterly wind drove the boats in which the troops had left the fleet farther westward, and beyond any effectual covering by the guns of the navy. Major Forsyth and his riflemen led the van in landing. When within half rifle-shot of the shore they were assailed by a deadly volley of bullets from a company of Glengary men and a party of Indians concealed in the woods. Pike, from the deck of the *Madison*, saw this, and, jumping into a boat, ordered his staff to follow. Very soon he was in the midst of a sharp fight between Forsyth's men and the party on shore. The main body soon followed, and the British were driven back to their works near the town. The Americans, led by Pike, followed closely and captured two redoubts, and at the same time Chauncey hurled deadly volleys of grape-shot on the foe from his naval cannons. Heavy guns had been landed, and these were pressed forward with great fatigue over the many ravines. The Indian allies of the British, frightened by the cannons, deserted Sheaffe, and the latter fell back to the Western Battery, mounting 24-pounders. Pike's men were about to storm it, and Chauncey's round-shot were pounding it, when the wooden magazine of the battery, which had been carelessly left open, exploded, killing some of the garrison and seri-

ously damaging the works. The dismayed enemy spiked the cannons, and retired to a battery nearer the town. That, too, was soon abandoned, and Sheaffe and his men fled to the garrison, near the governor's house, and then opened a fire of round and grape shot upon the Americans. The great guns of the enemy were soon silenced, and the Americans expected every moment to see a white flag displayed from the block-house, when a sudden and awful calamity occurred. General Pike was sitting upon a stump conversing with a huge British sergeant who had been taken prisoner, and with his staff around him, when a sudden tremor of the ground was felt, followed by a tremendous explosion near the British garrison. The enemy, despairing of holding the place, had blown up their powder-magazine, situated upon the edge of the lake, at the mouth of a ravine. Fragments of timber and huge stones, of which the magazine walls were built, were scattered in every direction over a space of several hundred feet. By that explosion fifty-two Americans were slain and one hundred and eighty wounded. Forty of the British also lost their lives. General Pike, two of his aids, and the captive sergeant were mortally hurt. The terrified Americans scattered in dismay, but were soon rallied, the column was re-formed, and Colonel Cromwell Pearce, of Pennsylvania, assumed the command. The Americans pressed forward to the village, where they were met by the civil authorities of the town, who surrendered the place, together with two hundred and ninety



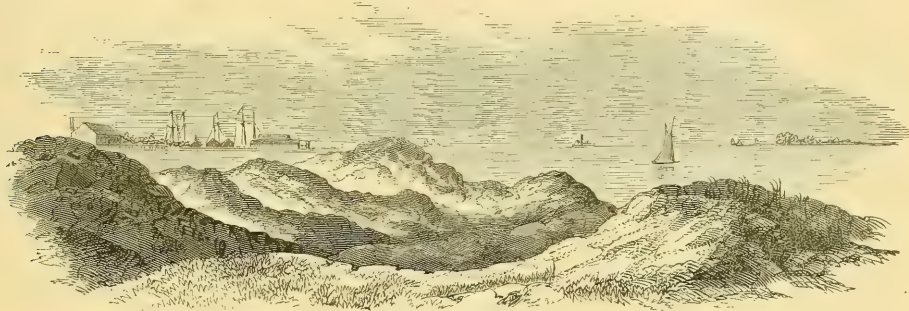
POWDER-MAGAZINE AT TORONTO.

regulars and the militia. With them were also taken the war-vessel (the *Duke of Gloucester*) and a large quantity of naval and military stores. The loss of the Americans in the capture of York, in killed and wounded on land, was two hundred and sixty-nine; and on the fleet, seventeen. The British loss, besides the prisoners, was one hundred and forty-nine. General

Pike was crushed between two stones, and was carried on board the *Pert*, then Chauncey's flagship. His benumbed ears heard the shout of victory when the British ensign was pulled down at York. He lingered several hours. Just before he expired that flag was brought to him. He made a sign for it to be placed under his head, and in that position he died. The port

York, killed seventy-five of the inhabitants, carried the same number into captivity, and destroyed most of the town. The invaders approached silently on snow-shoes.

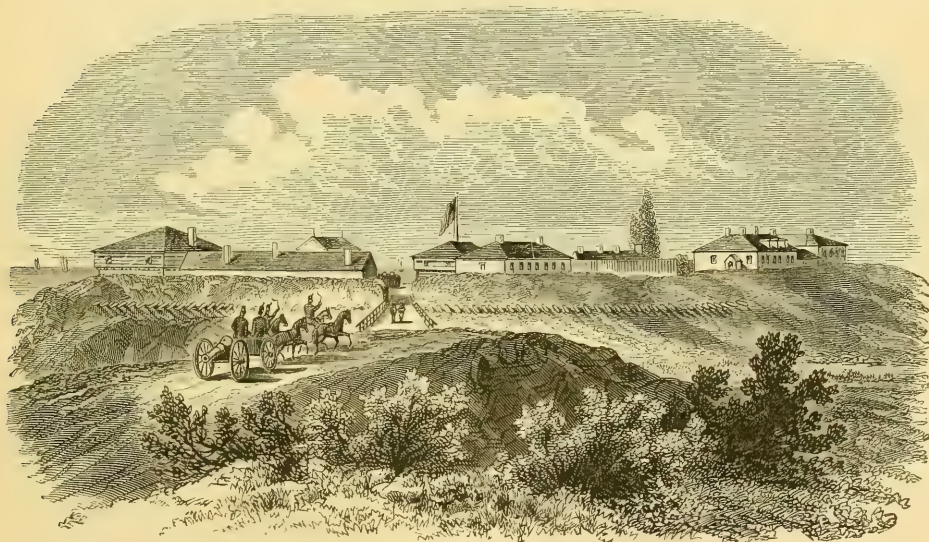
Yorktown, JOY ON ACCOUNT OF EVENTS AT (1781). The news of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown spread great joy throughout the colonies, especially at Philadelphia, the seat of



REMAINS OF THE WESTERN BATTERY IN 1860.

and village of York were abandoned by the Americans, for they were of little value to them. General Sheaffe, taking advantage of the confusion after the explosion, and the time purposely consumed in the capitulation, after destroying some vessels on the stocks and some storehouses, escaped with the larger portion of the regulars to Kingston. After the Americans left

the general government. Washington sent Lieutenant-colonel Tilghman to the Congress with the news. He rode express to Philadelphia to carry the despatches of the chief announcing the joyful event to the national Legislature. He entered the city at midnight, Oct. 23, and knocked so violently at the door of Thomas McKean, the President of Congress,



OLD FORT AT TORONTO IN 1860.

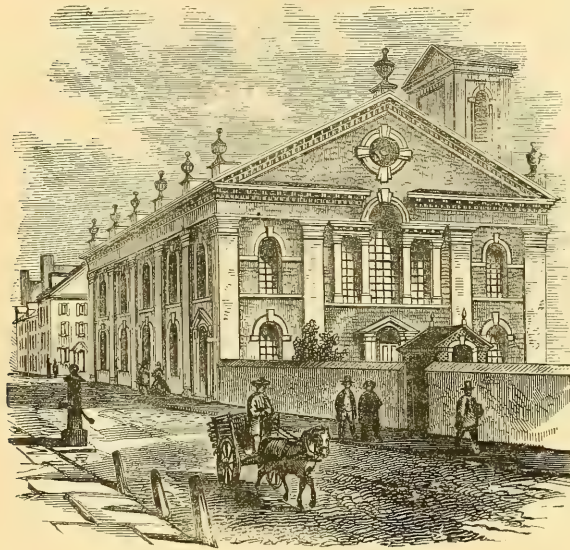
the fort at Toronto was repaired, and has been garrisoned ever since, only the barracks being kept in order. When the writer visited Toronto in 1860 there were a few soldiers there, but the old fort, as a fort, is useless. The public road then ran directly through it.

York (Me.) Destroyed. On Jan. 25, 1692, some French and Indians surprised the town of

that a watchman was disposed to arrest him. Soon the glad tidings spread over the city. The watchmen, proclaiming the hour and giving the usual cry, "All's well," added, "and Cornwallis is taken!" Thousands of citizens rushed from their beds, hastily dressed, and filled the streets. The old State-house bell that so clearly proclaimed independence (July 4, 1776) now rang

out tones of gladness. Lights were seen moving in every house. The first blush of morning was greeted with the booming of cannons, and at an early hour the Congress assembled, and

25, 1781, and on the 27th there was a besieging army there of 16,000 men, under the chief command of Washington, assisted by Rochambeau. The British force, about half as numerous, were mostly behind intrenchments at Yorktown. On the arrival of Washington and Rochambeau at Williamsburg they proceeded to the *Ville de Paris*. De Grasse's flag-ship, to congratulate the admiral on his victory over Graves on the 5th, and to make specific arrangements for the future. Preparations for the siege were immediately begun. The allied armies, about 12,000 strong, marched from Williamsburg (Sept. 28), driving in the British outposts as they approached Yorktown and taking possession of abandoned works. The allies formed a semicircular line about two miles from the British intrenchments, each wing resting on the York River, and on the 30th the place was completely invested. The British at Gloucester, opposite, were imprisoned by French dragoons under the Duke de Lauzun, Virginia militia, led by General Weedon, and 800 French marines. Only once did the imprisoned troops attempt to escape from that point. Tarleton's legion sallied out, but



THE LUTHERAN CHURCH IN PHILADELPHIA.

with quick-beating hearts heard Charles Thomson read the despatch from Washington. At its conclusion it was resolved to go in a body to the Lutheran Church, at two o'clock in the afternoon, and "return thanks to Almighty God for crowning the allied armies of the United States and France with success." A week later that body voted the thanks of the nation and appropriate honors to Washington, Rochambeau, and De Grasse, and their respective officers and men; and appointed a day for a general thanksgiving and prayer throughout the Union on account of God's signal favors to the struggling patriots. Everywhere legislative bodies, executive councils, city corporations, and private societies, presented congratulatory addresses to the commanding generals and their officers. The Duke de Lauzun bore the glad tidings of victory to the court at Versailles, where there was great rejoicing on account of the birth of a dauphin, or heir to the throne.

Yorktown, SIEGE OF (1781). The allied armies joined Lafayette at Williamsburg, Sept.

were soon driven back by Lauzun's cavalry, who made Tarleton's horse a prisoner and came near capturing his owner. In the besieging lines before Yorktown the French troops occupied the left, the West India troops of St. Simon being on the extreme flank. The Amer-



LYNN HAVEN BAY.

icans were on the right; and the French artillery, with the quarters of the two commanders, occupied the centre. The American artillery, commanded by General Knox, was

with the right. The fleet of De Grasse was in Lynn Haven Bay to beat off any vessels that might attempt to relieve Cornwallis. On the night of Oct. 6 heavy ordnance had been brought up from the French ships, and trenches were begun at 600 yards from the British works. The first parallel was completed before the morning of the 7th, under the direction of General Lincoln; and on the afternoon of the 9th several batteries and redoubts were finished, and a general discharge of heavy guns was opened by the Americans on the right. Early on the morning of the 10th the French opened several batteries on the left. That evening the same troops hurled red-hot balls upon British vessels in the river, which caused the destruction by fire of several of them—one a 44-gun ship. The allies began the second parallel on the night of the 11th, which the British did not discover until daylight came, when they brought several heavy guns to bear upon the diggers. On the 14th it was determined to storm two of the redoubts which were most annoying, as they commanded the trenches. One on the right, near the York River, was garrisoned by 45 men; the other, on the left, was manned by about 120 men. The capture of the former was intrusted

mounted his post at Yorktown would become untenable, and he resolved to attempt an escape by abandoning the place, his baggage, and his sick, cross the York River, disperse the allies who environed Gloucester, and by rapid marches gain the forks of the Rappahannock and Potomac, and, forcing his way by weight of numbers through Maryland and Pennsylvania, join Clinton at New York. Boats for the passage of the river were prepared and a part of the troops passed over, when a furious storm suddenly arose, and made any further attempts to cross too hazardous to be undertaken. The troops were brought back, and the earl lost hope. After that the bombardment of his lines was continuous, severe, and destructive, and on the 17th he offered to make terms for surrender. On the following day Lieutenant-colonel Laurens and Viscount de Noailles (a kinsman of Madame Lafayette), as commissioners of the allies, met Lieutenant-colonel Dundas and Major Ross, of the British army, at the house of the Widow Moore (see p. 332) to arrange terms for capitulation. They were made similar to those demanded of Lincoln at Charleston eighteen months before. The capitulation was duly signed, Oct. 10, 1781, and late on the afternoon of the same



APPEARANCE OF THE BRITISH WORKS AT YORKTOWN IN 1860.

to Americans led by Lieutenant-colonel Alexander Hamilton, and that of the latter to French grenadiers led by Count Deuxponts. At a given signal Hamilton advanced in two columns—one led by Major Fish, the other by Lieutenant-colonel Gimat, Lafayette's aid; while Lieutenant-colonel John Laurens, with 80 men, proceeded to turn the redoubt to intercept a retreat of the garrison. So agile and furious was the assault that the redoubt was carried in a few minutes, with little loss on either side. Laurens was among the first to enter the redoubt, and make the commander, Major Campbell, a prisoner. The life of every man who ceased to resist was spared. Meanwhile the French, after a severe struggle, in which they lost about 100 men in killed and wounded, captured the other redoubt. Washington, with Knox and some others, had watched the movements with intense anxiety, and when the commander-in-chief saw both the redoubts in possession of his troops he turned and said to Knox, "The work is done, and well done." That night both redoubts were included in the second parallel. The situation of Cornwallis was now critical. He was surrounded by a superior force, his works were crumbling, and he saw that when the second parallel of the besiegers should be completed and the cannons on their batteries

day Cornwallis, his army, and public property were surrendered to the allies. (See *Cornwallis, Surrender of, at Yorktown.*)

YOUNG, BRIGHAM, a leader of the Mormons, was born at Whittingham, Vt., June 1, 1801; died at Salt Lake City, Utah. In 1832 he joined the Mormons at Kirtland, O., and by shrewdness and energy soon became influential among them. He was appointed one of the "apostles" sent out in 1835 to make converts; and on the death of Joseph Smith, the founder of the Mormon Church, in 1844, became its president, prophet, and high-priest. Promising his deluded followers that the region of the Great Salt Lake, in mid-continent, was the Promised Land of the Mormons, they abandoned Nauvoo in 1846, after being cannonaded by exasperated citizens of that region. The following year Brigham Young led a few persons to Great Salt Lake valley, and in May, 1848, the great body of the Mormons arrived there and founded Salt Lake City. (See *Mormons*, and *Mormonism as it Existed in 1875.*) Appointed the first territorial governor of Utah, he assumed a political independence which was offensive to the United States government, and from time to time he gave that government much trouble. Having defied the government in 1858, President Buchanan sent out a military force in

that year of two thousand five hundred men to enforce its authority. A compromise ended the disturbance. Young had twelve actual wives, besides many who were sealed to him as "spiritual wives." He died Aug. 29, 1877.

Young Men's Christian Associations are powerful societies in doing good. In 1844 George Williams, of London, quietly put forth efforts in behalf of young men which led to the associations as they now abound in our country. The London Society worked quietly but efficiently, and when news of its good work reached New York in 1852 a similar society was organized there. Such societies were organized elsewhere, and they increased slowly but steadily until 1866, when a revival of these societies was manifested. The New York Association took the lead. In 1866 there were only sixty associations in the United States; in 1890 there were more than twelve hundred. In 1866 they had no property; in 1890 they had in buildings and funds alone

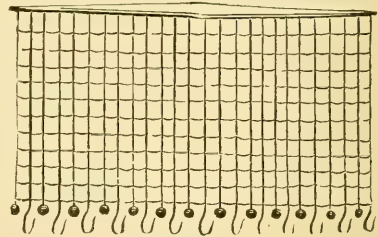
over \$10,000,000. They primarily seek to make young men helpful to young men in the ways of usefulness, by affording them means for pleasant social enjoyment, such as wholesome reading, instructive conversation, and pleasant gathering-places; and to assist in finding employment for worthy ones.

Yucatan was discovered by Francis Hernandez Cordova, who, with three caravels and one hundred and ten men, sailed from Havana on Feb. 8, 1517. They first saw land at Cape Catoche, the eastern point of Yucatan, an Aztec name for the great peninsula. He landed at several places, but was driven off by the naked barbarians, who used bows and arrows skilfully. Cordova was afterwards mortally wounded by some natives north of Campeachy, who killed forty-seven of the Spanish intruders, only one man escaping. On his return from Yucatan, Cordova's vessel touched the coast of Florida.

Z.

Zagonyi's Charge. When on his march southward, in October, 1861, General Fremont sent the combined cavalry forces of Zagonyi, a Hungarian commanding his guard, and Major White to reconnoitre the position of the Confederates at Springfield, Mo. They were led by the former, who was instructed to attempt the capture of Springfield if circumstances should promise success. The whole force did not exceed three hundred men. As they approached the place (Oct. 24), they were informed that the Confederates in the town were full two thousand strong. Zagonyi determined to attack them. Apprised of his coming, the Confederates prepared for his reception. He addressed his own little band, saying, "The enemy is two thousand strong, and we are but one hundred and fifty. It is possible that no man will come back. If any of you would turn back, you can do so now." Not a man moved. "I will lead you!" he exclaimed. He gave the order, "Quick trot—march!" and away they dashed down a narrow lane fringed with concealed sharpshooters, while there was a terrible fire from the Confederate infantry in front. On an eminence stood the Confederate cavalry. On their centre a lieutenant, with thirty men, dashed madly, breaking their line and scattering the whole body in confusion over the neighboring cornfields. The remainder of Zagonyi's men charged, and at the same moment fifty Irish dragoons of White's command, led by Major McNaughton, fell upon the foe, and the Confederate cavalry and infantry fled in terror, pursued by a portion of Zagonyi's guard. Through the streets of Springfield they were chased, while the Union women cheered on the victors. The Confederates were utterly routed. When the fight ended, of the one hundred and fifty of the guard eighty-four were dead or wounded. The action had lasted an hour and a half, and in the dim twilight the Union flag waved in triumph.

Zeal in Torpedo Fishing. So soon as Richmond was evacuated by the Confederates, in April, 1865, a notable expedition was undertaken in search of torpedoes, with which it was known a portion of that river abounded. The expedition consisted of about three hundred men in several tugs and thirty small boats, all under the command of Captain Ralph Chandler, United States Navy. On the morning of the 3d of April, Captain Chandler started from Dutch Gap, with a flotilla and his flag-ship the *Sangamon*, and before sunset he had so cleared the river of these dangerous obstructions that the passage to Richmond was made comparatively safe, and the next morning President Lincoln went up to Richmond from City Point in the *Malvern*, Admiral Porter's flag-ship. The fishing was carried on in this wise: The steam vessels were pro-



TORPEDO NET.

vided by torpedo-nets formed of ropes weighted with iron or lead, and furnished with hooks to catch the little submarine mines. These nets were hung from spars placed athwart the bowsprit in front of the vessel, and sometimes in like manner along its sides. The torpedoes to be caught were buoyed under water at such a depth that a passing vessel might touch them and explode them by percussion. They were anchored by means of a chain attached to a segment of an iron sphere called a "mushroom."

Many of them were made to be exploded by electricity. A net like that at the bow was placed off the stern, and was dragged after the vessel as a fisherman drags his net. There were also common grapnels, used on single lines as fishermen troll for fishes. When a torpedo was caught it was carefully hauled up to the surface and towed ashore by the men in small boats. When a nest of them was found that might not be removed readily, a little float was anchored above them with a small national flag upon it, by which pilots of vessels might be warned of the presence of danger. No officer in the navy was better qualified for performing this task than Captain Chandler, requiring as it did cool courage and rare judgment. "The knowledge that a simple touch will lay your ship a helpless, sinking wreck upon the water, without even the satisfaction of firing one shot in return," wrote Captain Chandler to the author, "calls for more courage than can be expressed, and a short cruise among torpedoes will sober the most intrepid disposition." (See *Torpedoes*.)

Zeisberger, DAVID, a Moravian missionary, was born at Zoetenthal, Moravia, April 11, 1721; died at Franklin, Summit Co., O., Nov. 7, 1808. He came to America in his youth, and joined his parents in Georgia, who had come before. He was one of the founders of Bethlehem, Penn., in 1740, and soon afterwards became a missionary among the Indians. During the operations of Pontiac (see *Pontiac's War*) he assisted the "Christian Indians," as the converts were called, and finally led them to Wyalusing, Bedford Co., Penn. In 1772 he founded a Christian Indian settlement on the Tuscarawas, Ohio, where he was joined by all the Moravian Indians in Pennsylvania. That settlement was destroyed in 1781. (See *Christian Indians, Massacre of*.) He founded another settlement in Huron County, near Lake Erie (1787), and on the Thames, in Canada. (See *Moravian Town*.) In 1798 the Moravians returned to their former settlements in Ohio, where grants had been made them by Congress, and established a new station, which they called Goshen, and there Zeisberger preached during the remainder of his life. He left in MS. a Delaware grammar and dictionary and an Iroquois dictionary. The former is in Harvard College Library, and the latter in the library of the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia.

Zenger's Trial. On the death of John Montgomerie, Governor of New York (July 1, 1731), Rip Van Dam, merchant, senior member of the Council, became, ex-officio, chief-magistrate of the province. William Cosby, a colonel in the royal army, was appointed governor, but did not arrive in New York until August, 1732, or thirteen months after the office became vacant. Cosby was rapacious, and came to the colony to make money. His professions made the Assembly (in session at the time of his arrival) suppose him to be a friend of the people, and they lavished upon him perquisites and presents because of his opposition to the Sugar Bill before Parliament, which threatened the ruin of the commerce of the colony. Van Dam was a Democrat, and popular with the people. Cosby de-

mauded one half the salary which Van Dam had received during his presidency over the colony for thirteen months. The merchant agreed, provided the governor would divide the perquisites he had received—a much larger sum. The latter refused, and the former declined to make a division. A bitter quarrel and a lawsuit ensued. Never were party lines in the colony more defined than now, the Democratic party taking sides with Van Dam, and the Loyalist party—"men of figure"—with Cosby. At that time the venerable William Bradford was the government printer, and he published a newspaper called the *New York Weekly Gazette*. It was the organ of the governor and his party. At the same time John Peter Zenger, a former apprentice with Bradford, was publishing a paper called the *New York Weekly Journal*. It was the organ of the Van Dam, or popular party. Through its columns writers severely criticised the administration. Squibs, ballads, and serious charges that appeared in Zenger's *Journal* irritated Cosby and his Council beyond endurance. On the 2d of November, 1734, the Council ordered certain numbers of the *Journal*, containing alleged libels, to be "burned by the hands of the common hangman, or whipped near the pillory;" and a few days afterwards, by order of the same authority, Zenger was arrested and cast into prison on a charge of libel. Van Dam's counsel (William Smith, father of the historian, and William Alexander, father of Lord Stirling) took up Zenger's case with vigor. At the next term of the court (April, 1735) they filed an exception to the commissions of the chief-justice (James De Lancey) and the associate (Frederick Phillipse). This questioning of their authority made the judges very angry, and, by an order of the chief-justice, Smith and Alexander were silenced as advocates. This arbitrary act aroused public indignation, and the silenced lawyers made ample preparations for the trial, which came on in July. The grand jury had found no indictment, and he was tried on "information" by the attorney-general. Andrew Hamilton, of Pennsylvania, the most eminent lawyer in the colonies, was secretly employed to defend Zenger. To the astonishment of the court, he appeared, on the day of trial, as the champion of the freedom of the press. By keen legal weapons, he foiled the sophistry of the court, and obtained from the jury a verdict of acquittal for Zenger, on the ground that an alleged libel is justified by its truth, and that jurors are judges of both law and fact. The crowded court-room was instantly resonant with applause, and the delighted people carried the venerable advocate out of the city-hall on their shoulders. The corporation of the city of New York presented Mr. Hamilton with the freedom of the city in a gold box "for his learned and generous defence of the rights of mankind and the liberty of the press." He charged no fee for his services. Gouverneur Morris said to the late Dr. John W. Francis, "The trial of Zenger, in 1735, was the germ of American freedom—the morning-star of that liberty which subsequently revolutionized America."

Zeno, NICCOLO, a Venetian navigator, who was born about the middle of the fourteenth century, made a voyage of discovery into the Northern seas about the year 1390. He was wrecked on one of the Faroe Islands, it is supposed, and entered the service of a chief, whom he called Zichmini, as pilot of his fleet. He wrote a letter to his brother Antonio, giving an account of his voyage. Antonio joined him. Nicolo died, and Antonio remained in the service of Zichmini ten years longer, and wrote letters to his brother Carlo. Antonio returned to Venice, and died in 1405. From the letters of Nicolo and Antonio a narrative, accompanied by a map, was compiled and published in 1558, by a descendant of Antonio Zeno. It gives an account of a visit made by Nicolo to Greenland, of the colonies there, and of the voyages of fishermen to the Island of Estotiland (supposed to have been Newfoundland), and to a great country called Drogeo, conjectured to have been the mainland of America. (See *Northmen in America*.)

Zinzendorf (Count), NICOLAUS LUDWIG, the restorer of the Moravian Church, was born at Dresden, Saxony, May 26, 1700; died at Herrnhut, May 9, 1760. His father was a leading minister of the Electorate of Saxony. The son was educated at Halle and Wittenberg. When, in 1720, he received his deceased father's estate from his guardians, he purchased a lordship in Lusatia, and married a sister of the Prince of



NICOLAUS LUDWIG ZINZENDORF.

Reuss. When he was twenty-two years of age he became interested in the pure Church discipline and doctrines of the scattered Moravian Brethren, invited some of them to settle on his estate, formed statutes for their government, and finally became a bishop among them, and one of their most ardent missionaries. John Wesley passed some time at the home of Zinzen-

dorf, and from him imbibed notions of Church organization and a missionary spirit upon which he ever afterwards acted. He commended singing as a wonderful power in the Church. Zinzendorf was consecrated bishop in 1736, travelled over the Continent, visited England, and sent missionaries to every part of the world. In 1741 he came to Pennsylvania, and established several Moravian settlements. The first Indian Moravian congregation in America was established by him, at Shemoeko, Duchess Co., N. Y., in 1742, under the supervision of Gottlob Bütner. Zinzendorf returned to Europe in 1643, and spent the remainder of his life in the cause of the *Unitas Fratrum*, or United Brethren.

Zipangi (or Cipangi), the Island of Japan, described by Marco Polo, a Venetian traveller, who visited China early in the thirteenth century. He described Zipangi as a beautiful and wealthy island in the Eastern seas, fifteen hundred miles from land. Columbus and other early navigators made diligent search for it. (See *Cathay*.)

Zollicoffer, FELIX K., was born in Maury County, Tenn., May 19, 1812; killed in the battle of Mill Spring (which see), Jan. 19, 1862. He was a printer and newspaper publisher at Paris, Tenn. In 1832 he edited the *Nashville Banner*, the leading Whig paper in the state, and in 1835 was chosen state printer. He was Comptroller of the State Treasury from 1845 to 1849, and State Senator in 1849. From 1853 to 1859 he was in Congress, and a persistent advocate of state supremacy, and in 1861 was a member of the Peace Conference. Then he became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army, taking command of East Tennessee. In a battle at Camp Wild-cat, Kentucky (Oct. 21, 1861), he was defeated by General Schoepf.

Zook, SAMUEL KOSCIUSZKO, was born in Pennsylvania about 1823; killed at Gettysburg, July 2, 1863. He was a telegraph operator, and made some important discoveries in the science of electricity. After 1848 he resided in New York, and when the Civil War began he was made a colonel of New York State militia, and hastened to the army gathering around Washington. He was military governor of Annapolis a while, when he returned, raised a regiment, took the command of it, and did gallant service on the Peninsula, where he generally commanded a brigade. On Nov. 29, 1862, he was made brigadier-general, and distinguished himself at Chancellorsville and Gettysburg.

Zouaves. This was the title adopted by a body of French infantry, who took it from a tribe in Algeria, whose fighting-men have been noted throughout Northern Africa for generations. A body of these troops were incorporated with the French army. After 1840 the "Zouaves" were all native Frenchmen. In the Crimean War they were the *élite* of the French infantry. They retained the picturesque costume of the African Zouaves, and their peculiar dis-

cipline. Their dress consisted of a loose jacket and waistcoat of dark-blue cloth, red Turkish



ELLSWORTH ZOUAVE.

trousers, red fez with yellow tassel, green turban, sky-blue sash, yellow leather leggings, and

II.—25

white gaiters. At the beginning of the Civil War in America a few volunteer regiments were uniformed as Zouaves, and were so called; but the costume, which made a conspicuous mark for bullets, was soon exchanged for the more sober blue and gray. The first regiment of Zouaves was that of Colonel Ellsworth—"New York Fire Zouaves." Some were more picturesque in costume, more nearly imitating the African Zouaves, with bagging trousers and fez.

Zubley, JOHN JOACHIM, D.D., was born at St. Gall, Switzerland, Aug. 27, 1724; died in South Carolina, July 23, 1781. Ordained in 1744, he took charge of the First Presbyterian Church in Savannah in 1760, preaching in English, German, and French. He was an active patriot at the beginning of the Revolution, was in the Georgia Provincial Congress in 1775, and in the Continental Congress the same year. He opposed the Declaration of Independence, and after it was adopted he suddenly left Congress, returned to Georgia, took sides with the crown, and having been accused of treasonable correspondence with the royal governor, he concealed himself to avoid popular resentment.

SUPPLEMENT.

A.

Adams, HENRY, an American historian, was born in Boston in 1838, and is the son of the statesman Charles Francis Adams. He was educated at Harvard. Afterwards he became assistant professor of history at Harvard. His chief work is a *History of the United States in the administrations of Jefferson and Madison*.

Administrations. The Presidents and leading cabinet officers, with the political complexion of both the executive and legislative departments of the national government, have been as follows:

1789-1793: Washington; Adams, Vice-President, both Federalists; Jefferson, State; Hamilton, Treasury; Knox, War; Edmund Randolph, Attorney-general. Congress, Fed.; Muhlenberg and Trumbull, Speakers.

1793-1797: Washington and Adams again; Jefferson, then Randolph, State; Hamilton, then Wolcott, Treasury; other minor changes. Congress, 1793-1795, Republican House; Muhlenberg, Speaker; 1795-1797, Dayton, Speaker.

1797-1801: Adams, Fed.; Jefferson, Vice-President, Rep.; Pickering, State; Wolcott, Treasury. Congress, Fed.; Dayton and Sedgwick, Speakers.

1801-1805: Jefferson; Burr, Vice-President, Dem.; Madison, State; Gallatin, Treasury. Congress, Dem.; Macon, Speaker.

1805-1809: Jefferson; George Clinton, Vice-President, Dem.; Madison, State; Gallatin, Treasury. Congress, Dem.; Macon and Varnum, Speakers.

1809-1813: Madison; Clinton, Vice-President; Dem.; Robert Smith, later Monroe, State; Gallatin, Treasury. Congress, Dem.; Varnum and Clay, Speakers.

1813-1817: Madison; Gerry, Vice-President, Dem.; Monroe, State; Gallatin, at first, Treasury. Congress, Dem.; Clay, Speaker.

1817-1821: Monroe; Tompkins, Vice-President, Dem.; J. Q. Adams, State; Crawford, Treasury; Calhoun (and others), War. Congress, Dem.; Clay, Speaker.

1821-1825: Monroe; Tompkins, Vice-President; Adams, State; Crawford, Treasury; Calhoun, War. Congress, Dem.; P. P. Barbour and Clay, Speakers.

1825-1829: J. Q. Adams, National Rep.; Calhoun, Vice-President, Dem.; Clay, State. Congress, 1825-1827, National Rep.; J. W. Taylor, Speaker; 1827-1829, Dem.; Stevenson, Speaker.

1829-1833: Jackson; Calhoun, Vice-President, Dem.; Van Buren, later Livingston, State.

Congress, 1829-1831, Dem.; Stevenson, Speaker; 1831-33, Senate opposition, House Dem.; Stevenson, Speaker.

1833-1837: Jackson; Van Buren, Vice-President, Dem.; McLane, later Forsyth, State; Duane, Taney, Woodbury, Treasury. Congress, 1833-1835, Senate opposition, House Dem.; Stevenson, Speaker; 1835-1837, Senate opposition, then Dem., House Dem.; Polk, Speaker.

1837-1841: Van Buren; R. M. Johnson, Vice-President, Dem.; Forsyth, State; Woodbury, Treasury. Congress, Dem.; Polk and Hunter, Speakers.

1841-1845: W. H. Harrison; Tyler, Vice-President (succeeded as President April 4, 1841), Whig; Webster, afterwards Legaré, Upshur, Calhoun, State; numerous changes in the other departments. Congress, 1841-1843, Whig; White, Speaker; 1843-45, Senate Whig, House Dem.; J. W. Jones, Speaker.

1845-1849: Polk; Dallas, Vice-President, Dem.; Buchanan, State; Walker, Treasury; Marcy, War; Bancroft, at first, Navy. Congress, 1845-1847, Dem.; J. W. Davis, Speaker; 1847-1849, Senate Dem., House Whig; R. C. Winthrop, Speaker.

1849-1853: Taylor; Fillmore, Vice-President (succeeded as President July 9, 1850), Whig; Clayton, Webster, Everett, State; numerous changes in other departments. Congress, Dem.; Cobb and Boyd, Speakers.

1853-1857: Pierce; King, Vice-President, Dem.; Marcy, State; Davis, War. Congress, 1853-1855, Dem.; Boyd, Speaker; 1855-1857, Senate Dem., House *Anti-Nebraska*; Banks, Speaker.

1857-1861: Buchanan; Breckinridge, Vice-President, Dem.; Cass, State; Cobb, Treasury; Floyd, War; various changes in the cabinet in 1860 and 1861. Congress, 1857-1859, Dem.; Orr, Speaker; 1859-1861, Senate Dem., House Rep.; Pennington, Speaker.

1861-1865: Lincoln; Hamlin, Vice-President, Rep.; Seward, State; Chase, later Fessenden, Treasury; Cameron, later Stanton, War; Welles, Navy. Congress, Rep.; Grow, Speaker, 1861-1863; Colfax, 1863-1865.

1865-1869: Lincoln; Johnson, Vice-President (succeeded as President April 15, 1865), Rep.; Seward, State; McCulloch, Treasury; Stanton, until 1867, War. Congress, Rep.; Colfax, Speaker.

1869-1873: Grant; Colfax, Vice-President, Rep.; Fish, State; Bontwell, Treasury. Congress, Rep.; Blaine, Speaker.

1873-1877: Grant; Wilson, Vice-President, Rep.; Fish, State; Bristow and others, Treasury. Congress, 1873-1875, Rep.; Blaine, Speaker; 1875-1877, Senate Rep., House Dem.; Kerr, later Randall, Speaker.

1877-1881: Hayes; Wheeler, Vice-President, Rep.; Evarts, State; Sherman, Treasury. Congress, House Dem.; Randall, Speaker; Senate, 1877-1879, Rep.; 1879-1881, Dem.

1881-1885: Garfield; Arthur, Vice-President (succeeded as President Sept. 20, 1881), Rep.; Blaine, later Frelinghuysen, State; Windom and others, Treasury; Lincoln, War. Congress, 1881-1883, Senate tie, House Rep.; Keifer, Speaker; 1883-1885, Senate Rep., House Dem.; Carlisle, Speaker.

1885-1889: Cleveland; Hendricks, Vice-President, Dem.; Bayard, State; Manning, Fairchild, Treasury; Whitney, Navy. Congress, Senate Rep., House Dem.; Carlisle, Speaker.

1889-1893: Harrison; Morton, Vice-President, Rep.; Blaine, State; Windom, at first, Treasury; Tracy, Navy. Congress, Senate Rep., House, 1889-1891, Rep.; Reed, Speaker; 1891-1893, Dem.; Crisp, Speaker.

1893-1897: Cleveland; Stevenson, Vice-President, Dem.; Gresham, then Olney, State; Carlisle, Treasury; Lamont, War; Olney, then Harmon, Attorney-general; Bissell, then Wilson, Postmaster-general; Herbert, Navy; Smith, Interior; Morton, Agriculture. Congress, Dem.; Crisp, Speaker; 1895, House Rep.; Reed, Speaker.

1897: McKinley; Hobart, Vice-President, Rep.; Sherman, State; Gage, Treasury; Alger, War; McKenna, Attorney-general; Gary, Postmaster-general; Long, Navy; Bliss, Interior; Wilson, Agriculture. Congress, Rep.; Reed, Speaker.

Agriculture, DEPARTMENT OF. The Department of Agriculture was at first a Bureau of the Interior Department; but in 1889, by act of Congress, it was made independent, and its chief, the Secretary of Agriculture, became a member of the President's cabinet. This department embraces numerous divisions and sections, such as the Botanical Division, the section of Vegetable Pathology, the Pomological Division, the Forestry Division, the Chemical Division, the Division of Entomology, the Seed Division, the Silk Section, the Ornithological Division, the Bureau of Animal Industry, etc. The Secretary of Agriculture is charged with the supervision of all public business relating to the department, and directs the management of all the divisions and stations. Through this department a vast amount of useful information is gathered and disseminated with reference to the condition, prospects, and harvests of the principal crops, the numbers and status of farm animals, and whatever else may be of interest concerning the various branches of agricultural industry. In this manner it is a powerful aid in the development of our national landed resources. Statistical reports of this department for 1896 showed that the value of the grain crop that year was over \$1,000,000,000. The number of bushels of grain of all kinds raised

in that year was estimated at about 3,500,000,000. Besides collecting and publishing such statistics as these, the department has been of inestimable service in the way of detecting, preventing, and extirpating diseases among domestic animals, and in suggesting means for the destruction or avoidance of insect scourges. On July 1, 1891, the Weather Bureau, which had hitherto been a branch of the Signal Service of the United States, was transferred, by act of Congress, to this department. (See *Weather Signals*, p. 1499.) Norman J. Colman, of Missouri, appointed Feb. 13, 1889, under the administration of Grover Cleveland, was the first Secretary of Agriculture. In the change of administration which occurred upon the inauguration of Benjamin Harrison, three weeks later, he was succeeded by Jeremiah M. Rusk, of Wisconsin. In 1893 Secretary Rusk was succeeded by J. Sterling Morton, and in 1897 James Wilson took the portfolio.

Alaska. THE BERING SEA CONTROVERSY. In 1725, Captain Vitus Bering, a Danish navigator in the service of Peter the Great, discovered the sea which bears his name, and in 1741 he made an imperfect exploration of a portion of the Alaskan coast. By virtue of these discoveries, the emperor Paul of Russia, in 1799, assumed the sovereignty over the American coast as far south as the 55th degree of latitude, and formally annexed that part of the continent to the Russian domains. In 1867 Russian America was purchased by the United States government (see p. 17) for \$7,200,000. The only wealth of the country known at that time was its fur-producing animals, particularly the fur-seals of the coasts and islands, and it was for this mainly that the purchase was made. The officials who conducted the transaction were not mistaken in their estimates of the revenue to be derived from this source, for during the twenty years which followed the seal-fisheries paid into the national treasury a rental which exceeded the purchase-price of the territory by \$6,350,000. That Bering Sea, with its islands, was the exclusive property of Russia for the sixty-eight years of her domination in Alaska had never been questioned, and that the United States, by purchase, succeeded to the same rights of possession no one could, it would be supposed, deny. About the year 1886, however, some ship-owners in British Columbia began to encroach upon these rights by sending vessels into the sea to intercept the seals as they made their annual migration to their breeding grounds on the Pribyloff Islands. This unlawful poaching and the unregulated pelagic sealing were carried on to such an extent that in 1890 the Canadian intruders secured 20,000 skins. As very many of the seals thus taken were females, and their young were left to perish for want of sustenance, the actual number destroyed was far in excess of the number of skins, and the extinction of the entire species was threatened. At this juncture a United States revenue-cutter captured one of the poaching vessels. The seizure became at once the subject of correspondence between the British government and the

State department at Washington. Secretary Blaine urged that illicit sealing was a pursuit *contra bonos mores*, against international comity; and he argued against the claim of Lord Salisbury, who had asserted that Bering Sea could not be *mare clausum* under any circumstances. The British premier declined to recognize the claims of the United States, although he expressed regret at the "wanton destruction of a valuable industry," and asked that the right of the United States to seize the Canadian vessels be submitted to a court of arbitration. While this correspondence was going on the poachers continued their depredations, and the number of seals was so materially reduced that in the year 1891 not more than one-fourth of the usual number of pelts were taken by the legally authorized sealers. An agreement was finally entered into to submit the matter to a court of arbitration, composed of commissioners selected by the two governments. The questions at issue to be decided by this court were as follows:

1. What exclusive jurisdiction in Bering Sea did Russia exercise prior to the cession of Alaska?

2. To what extent was this jurisdiction, especially as regarded the seal fisheries, recognized by Great Britain?

3. Was the Bering Sea included in the phrase "Pacific Ocean" in the Anglo-Russian treaty of 1825; and what rights did Russia exercise in the Bering Sea after the treaty?

4. Did not all the Russian rights in the fisheries east of the water boundary pass to the United States when the treaty was ratified by which she acquired possession of the territory of Alaska?

5. What right of protection of property has the United States in the seals frequenting United States islands, when found outside the ordinary three-mile limit?

Pending the decision of the case by arbitration, an agreement was entered into between the two governments, June 15, 1891, providing:

1. That Great Britain shall use her best efforts to prohibit sealing by her subjects in Bering Sea until May, 1892.

2. That the United States shall limit the number of seals to be taken by the North American Commercial Company to 7500 per year, and shall not permit more to be taken previous to the date above given.

3. That offending vessels outside the territorial limits of the United States may be seized by either of the contracting parties; and,

4. That British agents may visit or remain on the islands during the present season to make such observations as may be necessary for the proper presentation of the case to the court of arbitration.

Expert agents were appointed by each government to visit the localities under dispute, and make a thorough investigation of the material facts.

A treaty was signed at Washington, Feb. 29, 1892, providing for the settlement by arbitration of the vexed seal question. The treaty was ratified in London, and the arbitrators met in Paris;

they were Lord Hannen, Sir John Thompson, Justice Harlan, United States Senator Morgan, Baron de Courcelles, M. Gregero Gram, and Marquis Visconti Venosta. The decision of the tribunal was rendered Aug. 15, 1893. The findings of the arbitrators were: Russia never claimed exclusive rights; Great Britain had not conceded any claim of Russia to exclusive jurisdiction; Bering Sea was included in the *Pacific Ocean* in the treaty of 1825; all Russian rights passed to the United States; the United States have no rights when seals are outside the three-mile limit. Restrictive regulations were also adopted: proclaiming a closed season from May 1 to July 31 in Bering Sea and the North Pacific; establishing a protected zone within sixty miles of the Pribyloff Islands; forbidding steam-vessels, use of nets, fire-arms, and explosives. The award was regarded as a compromise, in which the United States was technically defeated, but acquired substantial advantages in the regulations. The complaints came mainly from Canada.

In 1894, the year following the signing of this treaty, more seals were slaughtered by poachers than ever before. The United States again asked England to interfere against the Canadian poachers, but that country refused to act unless the United States should pay Great Britain \$500,000 in discharge of all claims for damages resulting from alleged illegal seizures of British vessels in Bering Sea. The United States denied the justice of this claim, but after another year of seal slaughter, agreed to submit the claim to arbitration. In July, 1896, Judge G. E. King, of Canada, and Judge W. E. Putman, of the United States, were chosen commissioners to settle the matter. Pending this settlement the poachers are reaping rich harvests, and it seems probable that all the seals will be exterminated before their protection can be agreed upon.

Aleutian, or Aleutan, ISLANDS comprise a group in the North Pacific Ocean, stretching in a row from the peninsula of Alaska towards the shores of Kamtschatka. They belong to the United States Territory of Alaska. These islands were discovered by Bering in 1728, and are about one hundred and fifty in number. A few of them are inhabited, chiefly by Esquimaux. The population is estimated at nearly eight thousand. Russian missionaries have converted them to Christianity, but their morals are of a very low type. The islands are volcanic and rocky, and agriculture is unknown there.

Allerton, ISAAC, was one of the *Mayflower* Pilgrims. He was the fifth man who appended his name to the constitution of government signed in the cabin of that noted vessel. He survived the terrors of the first winter at Plymouth, and afterwards became the active agent of the settlers in negotiating the purchase of the domain from the Indians for the London merchants who furnished money for the enterprise. He was an enterprising trader, and became one of the founders of the commerce of New England. He finally made New Amsterdam (now New York) his chief place of residence, and traded

principally in tobacco. He was chosen one of the Council of Eight Men. (See *Representative Government in New York*.) The time and place of his death are not certainly known.

Alliance Incident. On March 8, 1895, the United States mail-ship *Alliance*, on her homeward voyage from Colon to New York, when six miles from the coast of Cuba, was repeatedly fired upon by a Spanish gunboat with solid shot. The Windward Passage, where this took place, is the usual highway for vessels plying between ports of the United States and the Caribbean Sea. Captain Crossman of the *Alliance* paid no attention to the gunboat and escaped the Spanish vessel. Secretary of State Gresham at once cabled Minister Taylor at Madrid that this government must demand a prompt apology from Spain. The general position taken by the United States was in accordance with the following resolution passed by the Senate in June, 1858: "Any molestation by force or show of force on the part of a foreign power of an American vessel on the high seas in time of peace is in derogation of the sovereignty of the United States." The Spanish minister at Washington complicated the matter somewhat by his intemperate utterances to newspaper men, declaring that Capt. Crossman must have dreamed that he saw a gunboat. For a time the affair promised serious complications, but on proofs of the occurrence being furnished, Spain apologized.

Amherst College is one of the leading institutions of learning, situated at Amherst, Mass., and founded in 1821. The funds for the construction of its buildings and for its endowments have been furnished by gifts of individuals, with the exception of \$50,000 given by the state. The Christian men and women of Massachusetts have built it up and chiefly sustain it. The declared object of its founders was "the education of young men for ministerial and missionary labor." The number of its students is about four hundred and fifty.

Ammen, DANIEL, a meritorious naval officer, was born in Ohio, May 15, 1820. He entered the navy as a midshipman in 1836, became a lieutenant in 1849, a commander in 1863, a captain in 1866, and a commodore in 1872. He was a very brave and efficient officer in the operations of Dupont on the coasts of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. He was engaged in the iron-clad attack on Fort Sumter in the spring of 1863, when he displayed great professional capacity and courage, and was recommended for promotion. He performed efficient shore duty at the national capital after the war, and was commissioned rear-admiral. Retired from active service in June, 1878.

Anarchists. The battle on the part of society against the anarchists in America may be said to have been fought and won. From the close of the Civil War up to 1886, the number of anarchists in America constantly increased. But little is known of anarchists as a matter of certainty. The organization had its origin in Russia, the object of its existence being appar-

ently to secure greater freedom for the people through the assassination of those government officers, most notably the Czar, who to the popular notion embodied tyranny. The members of anarchist bands knew but five of their fellows, though the society at one time is said to have had over 40,000 members. The members were divided into groups of six, one member of each group communicating with one of another, thus forming a great chain, but diminishing the fear of traitors. The oaths of the members are said to be of a most terrible character. From its original character anarchism soon changed until the members of the society in all lands were regarded as standing solely for the overthrow of existing institutions. The growth of the society in this country began to alarm police officials. The agitators kept busy among the unemployed masses in all the large cities. Dire predictions were made when on May 4, 1886, an anarchistic meeting in Chicago resulted in such a disturbance that the people became aroused and anarchy received a death-blow. On the night of May 4, a great number of anarchists held a meeting in Haymarket Square, Chicago. The city was in a restless state at the time because of frequent labor troubles. One of the speakers waved a red flag and shouted to the people to get dynamite and blow up the houses of the rich. At these words, a small body of police charged the anarchists. Suddenly a dynamite bomb was thrown at the officers, and five of the bluecoats and four people in the crowd were killed. Seven of the leading anarchists were arrested, and after a trial were condemned to death. The sentences of two of them were afterwards commuted to life imprisonment, but in 1894 they were pardoned by Governor Altgeld of Illinois. One of the anarchists committed suicide while in prison and four were hanged. The clemency of Governor Altgeld was severely attacked at the time he pardoned the anarchists, but it has apparently been justified, as up to the present (1897) there has been no notable outbreak on the part of the followers of the red flag.

Anderson, MARTIN BREWER, LL.D., one of the leading educators of our country, was born in Brunswick, Me., Feb. 12, 1815. He was of Scotch descent on his father's side. He was graduated at Waterville (now Colby) College, Me., in 1840. In 1850 he became editor and part proprietor of the *New York Recorder*, a Baptist publication. A university having been established at Rochester by the Baptists, he was called to the presidency of it in 1853, which position he filled till 1889. In 1868 he was offered the presidency of Brown University, but declined it. He was one of the most efficient incorporators and earlier trustees of Vassar College (which see) at Poughkeepsie. He died in April, 1890.

Annexations. The attempt to secure *Santo Domingo* has been related under that title, and for movements towards the acquisition of Hawaii, see *Sandwich Islands*, vol. ii., p. 1247, and *Hawaii*, in the *Supplement*. A party exists in

Canada favoring the incorporation of that country with the United States, and a sentiment in behalf of the union appears in some parts of this country. Since the recent rebellion in Cuba there has been much newspaper agitation as to the advisability of annexing that island. The stand made by President McKinley in favor of territorial extension may make the matter a party question. The opponents of any further extension of this country are vigorous in their tactics, and a majority of the press of the country seems to oppose, as dangerous and useless, any measure tending to commit the United States to a policy of colonization or annexation.

Apportionment Bill, AN, enacted by Congress after every enumeration of the inhabitants of the Republic or the decennial census, determines the total number of members to be sent to the House of Representatives from each state of the Union. The same term is applied to the act by which a state Legislature distributes among the counties their respective portions of representation. It is sometimes a trick of partisan politicians for the dominant party of a state so to contrive the apportionment that they gain an advantage in the election by forming districts, in each of which a county that gives a majority against them is joined to a county that gives a larger majority for their side. This is called "Gerrymandering" (which see). (See *Apportionment of Representatives, The First, and United States, Apportionment of Representatives.*)

Arbitration. The friends of arbitration are exceedingly depressed over a great defeat which the principle has just sustained at the hands of the United States Senate. By a close vote on April 13, 1897, the Senate rejected in toto a measure providing for the arbitration of all disputes that may arise between this country and Great Britain. This general arbitration measure arose from the Venezuela trouble. On March 5, 1896, Lord Salisbury submitted to Secretary Olney a suggested treaty in regard to the Venezuelan matter. On April 11, Secretary Olney proposed a few amendments to the treaty, and also suggested that a general treaty for the arbitration of all difficulties might be concluded along the same lines. The draft of this general treaty was made public Jan. 13, 1897, and at once the project became the subject of debate here and abroad. In England the proposed treaty was cordially received and promptly ratified and sent to this country. In America there was a great conflict of ideas concerning the measure. The treaty provided for the arbitration of all matters in difference between the countries which could not be adjusted by diplomatic correspondence. Matters involving pecuniary claims to the maximum extent of \$500,000 were to be settled by a board of three arbitrators, composed of a juror of repute selected one by each country, these two to agree upon a third. If the two arbitrators failed to agree upon a third, he was to be selected by King Oscar of Sweden. In respect to matters involving a larger sum, or in respect to territorial claims, the matter was first to go before a

board constituted as above described, and if the three arbitrators came to a unanimous decision their report was to be final. But if they were not unanimous, either England or the United States could demand a review of the award. In that case a tribunal of five members was to be formed in the same manner as the smaller one, and King Oscar was still to be referee. Boundary questions were to be submitted to a tribunal of six members, and the award must be unanimous. In case this could not be secured, the countries were to agree to adopt no hostile measures until the mediation of two or more friendly powers had been invoked. The treaty was to remain in force five years. The failure of the treaty does not mean that the United States is averse to arbitration as a means of settling national difficulties. This country has always been foremost in that line. But circumstances seemed against the recent treaty. At the very moment Great Britain was negotiating the treaty with this country, her warships were firing upon the patriots of Crete. One of the great forces in this country in favor of arbitration is the International Peace Society, the conventions of which are always largely attended. The society was formed in England at the close of the Napoleonic wars, its first great convention being held in London in 1851. The recent submission of the Venezuelan question (see *Venezuela*) to arbitration marks the eighteenth question that has thus been disposed of by the United States and the twenty-sixth that England has thus submitted.

Arctic Explorations. The most important of the recent expeditions into Arctic regions by Americans are those of Lieut. Adolph W. Greely and of Lieutenant Peary, who has made five voyages into Northern waters. Lieutenant Greely was sent from the United States in 1881, by the government, charged with establishing a series of stations about the pole for the purpose of observation. Lieutenants Lockwood and Brainard, of his force, succeeded in establishing a station on a small island in 83° 24' N., and until 1896 this was the most northern point ever reached by an explorer. Greely's vessel became ice-bound, and for two years the members of the expedition passed a miserable existence. Many died. The survivors were rescued just as the last six of the expedition were dying of hunger, by Lieutenant Peary, in charge of two government vessels, sent by the United States to the relief of Greely in 1882. Lieutenant Peary afterwards made four other exploring trips into Arctic waters, one of the most important being in 1895, when he sailed to attempt the recovery of a large meteorite he had discovered during a previous voyage. In this, however, he was unsuccessful. In 1897 Lieutenant Peary headed another government expedition. Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, of Norway, in 1896, succeeded in coming within 200 miles of the north pole, and returned in safety with all his companions. He sailed from Christiania in 1893, and his plan differed much from that of others. He thought that if he could get his vessel caught in the ice the current would carry him to the pole. He reached north latitude

86° 15'. In 1896 a Swedish explorer, Major Andrée, planned to reach the pole in a balloon, but after making elaborate plans gave up the venture. On July 12, 1897, however, he embarked again on his enterprise, all conditions being favorable for his success. (For early explorations, see *Arctic Explorations* in vol. i., p. 57.)

ARMENIANS, RELIEF OF. One of the recent movements, showing the generous heart of the American public, has been the organization of relief expeditions for the Armenian sufferers. The Armenians are a Christian nation subject to Turkey. In the spring of 1894 the Turks claimed that the Armenians were preparing to revolt against the Kurds, and, in fact, several conflicts did take place between these people. Turkish troops were sent to aid the Kurds and suppress the Armenians, and then began a long list of massacres which aroused the whole world. The Porte excluded all reporters from Armenia, and news of the Turkish outrages leaked out but slowly. The first general massacre of Armenians occurred at Sassoun during October, 1894. Fully 3000 Christians, including women and children, were killed, the most fearful tortures being used in hundreds of cases. England, France, Germany, and the United States ordered their ministers to make a report of the outrages, but while the diplomats were edging about the problem the massacres continued. Feb. 20, 1896, Clara Barton, of the Red Cross Society, sailed from New York for Armenia, and took charge of the relief work of this country. While the government seemed powerless to aid the Armenians, the citizens of the country made generous subscriptions for the sufferers. Newspapers in all parts of the country started subscriptions, and all railroad lines offered to transport relief goods free to the coast. Three ship-loads of goods were sent from this country and over \$600,000 in money. The inaction of the European powers during these outrages must always be regarded with amazement. As to the total number of Armenians butchered, only a conjecture can be formed. Not until the beginning of 1897 did the massacre cease. The total number of victims is generally conceded to have been over 50,000. Out of 3309 Armenian villages, it is estimated that 2500 were destroyed. Besides the people killed in massacres, it is estimated that the ravages committed by the Turks caused 75,000 Armenians to die of starvation. Jan. 27, 1896, Congress passed concurrent resolutions calling upon the European powers to stop the massacres, and to secure the Chris-

tians the rights to which they were entitled. The Sultan of Turkey has at last promised reforms.

Augusta, GEORGIA, is the third city in size in the "Empire State of the South," situated on the right bank of the Savannah River, 231 miles from its mouth, at the head of navigation. It was founded by English settlers under Oglethorpe, and received the name of an English princess. In 1817 it was incorporated a city, and was for many years the most important inland town in the colony and state. In 1779 it was captured by the British and loyalists, and held until the spring of 1781, when it was captured by the Americans. (See *Augusta, Siege and Capture of*.) For several years after the war it was the capital of Georgia. It was garrisoned by Confederate troops during the late Civil War, and was twice threatened by Sherman—namely, in his march from Atlanta to the sea (which see), and through South Carolina.

Australian Ballot, THE, AND Ballot Reform. The agitation in favor of a system of election laws which should prevent corruption, bribery, and intimidation at the polls began in this country in 1887. Four years thereafter twenty-eight out of the forty-eight state and territorial legislatures had enacted laws providing for ballot reform. The method of voting prescribed by most of these enactments was essentially that known as the Australian system, from the fact of its having originated in South Australia some thirty-five years previously. It was adopted in England in 1872. Its primary object is to secure absolute secrecy in voting. Its peculiar and essential features are (1) an official ballot and (2) privacy in voting. By an official ballot is meant a ticket which has been printed and furnished by state or local authorities, and is given to the voter by a special official. Privacy in voting is secured by different means, such as voting booths, enclosed stalls, and other devices for concealing the voter from view. The good effects of this system were immediately apparent in the states where it was adopted, promoting good order and decency at the polls, and greatly diminishing the opportunities for fraud and intimidation. In the system in vogue in most states the names of all candidates are on a single ticket, and the voter indicates his choice by a cross (X). This system in the presidential election of 1896 was used in thirty-six states, and seems likely to be universally adopted. Various machines have been tried since 1890 for counting the votes as fast as cast, but none have as yet proven sufficiently satisfactory to warrant their general use.

B.

Bache, GEORGE M., an officer of the United States Navy, was born in the District of Columbia, Nov. 12, 1840. He was graduated at the Naval Academy in 1860. He became a lieutenant in 1862, and lieutenant-commander in 1866. He commanded an iron-clad gunboat on the Mississippi early in the Civil War, and behaved with great bravery before Vicksburg. He was

afterwards in command of a little squadron of gunboats in a spirited action near Clarendon, Ark., in June, 1864. He became commander, and retired from active service April 5, 1875.

Bacon, DELIA, sister of the eminent divine, Dr. Leonard Bacon, published in 1857 *The Philosophy of Shakespeare's Plays*, in which she put forth the hypothesis that these plays were

not written by Shakespeare, but by Sir Francis Bacon. She lectured on that theme in New York a few years before, and was the first to put forth that startling hypothesis. She contended that Bacon used Shakespeare as a shield against the prejudices of his time. Miss Bacon was born in 1811, and died in 1859.

Baird, SPENCER FULLERTON, one of the most eminent scientists of our country, was born at Reading, Pa., Feb. 3, 1823. He was graduated at Dickinson College in 1840. In 1850 he was appointed assistant secretary at the Smithsonian Institution. (See *United States, The, a Legatee*.) He held that position until the death of Professor Henry (which see) in 1878, when he succeeded to the office of secretary, which he held until his death, which occurred on Aug. 19, 1887. Professor Baird published several works on natural history. For some years he wrote scientific articles for periodicals published by Harper & Brothers. In 1871 he was placed at the head of the United States Fish Commission.

Bancroft, HUBERT HOWE, an American historian, was born in 1832. He engaged in the book business in California, and, after retiring, continued to develop his large and valuable library. He made a specialty of the Pacific coast of North America. Books, manuscripts, maps, narratives personally related by Californian pioneers, all formed the sources of his vast series of histories of the Pacific regions. In the labor of indexing, collecting, and writing, Mr. Bancroft employed collaborators to a greater extent than is usual. When completed these works will cover the field from Central America to Alaska.

Barnard, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS PORTER, President of Columbia College, is foremost among the educators and scientists of our country. He was born in Sheffield, Mass., May 5, 1809, and was graduated at Yale College in 1828. From 1837 to 1848 he was professor of chemistry and natural history in the University of Alabama, and from 1854 till 1861 he was connected with the University of Mississippi as professor, president, and chancellor. In 1854 he took orders in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Dr. Barnard was elected president of Columbia College in 1864, which position he held till his death. He died at Columbia College, April 27, 1889.

Bayard, THOMAS FRANCIS, was born at Wilmington, Del., Oct. 29, 1828, and is grandson of James A. Bayard. (See p. 111.) He was in 1851 admitted to the bar at Wilmington, and served as United States District Attorney. From 1869 to 1885 he was United States Senator from Delaware, and foremost among the leaders on the Democratic side. He was a member of the Electoral Commission in 1877, and was for a while president *pro tem.* of the Senate. In 1880 and 1884 Senator Bayard's prominence in the party brought his name before the National Convention, but he failed of securing the prize, though receiving many votes. President Cleveland called him in 1885 to the office of Secretary of State, where he re-

mained until 1889. On the return of a Democratic President in 1893, ex-Secretary Bayard received the appointment of United States Ambassador to London.

Belknap, GEORGE E., an American naval officer, was born at Newport, N. H., Jan. 22, 1832; entered the navy as midshipman in 1855, and in 1862 became lieutenant-commander. He became executive officer of the iron-clad *New Ironsides* in 1862, and was with her in her contests with the forts in Charleston harbor in 1863, receiving commendation from Rear-admiral Dahlgren. In the attacks on Fort Fisher (which see) he commanded the iron-clad *Canonicus*, and his services were officially commended by Rear-admiral Porter. He was placed in command of the Norfolk Navy-yard in 1883.

Bergh, HENRY, the founder of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, was born in the city of New York in 1823; educated at Columbia College, and indulged in literary labors for a while, writing a drama and some poems. In 1863 he was secretary of legation to Russia, and acted as vice-consul there. He has acquired lasting fame over the civilized world for his untiring and brave labors in behalf of abused dumb creatures. These philanthropic efforts have absorbed his attention for many years, and elicited the praise of all good men and women. A society for carrying out his benevolent plan was incorporated by the Legislature of New York in 1866, and this example has been followed in forty-one states and territories of the Union and in Canada. Bergh died March 12, 1888.

Bering Sea Controversy. (See *Alaska*, in the *Supplement*.)

Blaine, JAMES GILLESPIE, an American statesman, was born at West Brownsville, Pa., Jan. 31, 1830. He graduated at Washington College in Pennsylvania in 1847, and passed several years in teaching. In 1854 he removed to Augusta, Me., and with this state he was thereafter identified. He edited the *Kennebec Journal* and the *Portland Advertiser*, and was a member of the Legislature from 1859 to 1862; in the last two years he was Speaker of the House, and about the same time he became powerful in the Republican organization of the state. His service in the National House of Representatives extended from 1863 to 1876, and in the United States Senate from 1876 to 1881. Blaine was among the most aggressive of the party leaders, was a ready debater, and an expert in parliamentary law. From 1869 to 1875 he was Speaker. In 1876 Blaine was one of the chief candidates for the presidential nomination, but he and Bristow, the leaders, were set aside for Hayes. Thenceforth, until his death, Blaine figured in the calculations of the president-makers. In 1880 Grant and Blaine were the candidates respectively of the two great wings of the party, and again a "dark horse," Garfield, was selected. President Garfield appointed Senator Blaine Secretary of State, which position he resigned soon after the accession of President Arthur, in December, 1881. His course in South American affairs

has been variously judged. In 1884 Blaine finally received the nomination on the fourth ballot. An extraordinary campaign followed between his adherents and Cleveland's. The defection of the Mugwumps, the vote of the Prohibitionists, and the fatal "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion" utterance of Dr. Burchard, have all been assigned as causes of his defeat. Mr. Blaine published his *Twenty Years in Congress*, in two volumes, and in 1888 positively declined the use of his name, but received some votes nevertheless. President Harrison in 1889 called him to his old portfolio in the department of State. The salient points in his administration were the Pan-American schemes and the doctrine of reciprocity. Secretary Blaine suddenly resigned in 1892, and was an unsuccessful candidate for the nomination that year, being defeated by Harrison. He died at Washington, Jan. 27, 1893. Blaine was celebrated for his personal "magnetism," and since 1876 was universally known as the "Plumed Knight."

Blair, FRANCIS PRESTON, JR., son of Francis P. Blair, an eminent American journalist. The younger Blair was born at Lexington, Ky., Feb. 19, 1821; was educated at Princeton (College of New Jersey), and took an active part in politics early in life. The Free-soil Party (which see) at St. Louis elected him to a seat in Congress in 1856, and he acted and voted with the Republicans several years. He joined the Union army in 1861, and rose to the rank of major-general of volunteers. In 1864 he commanded a corps of Sherman's army in the campaign against Atlanta, and in his march to the sea. Having joined the Democratic party, he was nominated for the vice-presidency of the Republic in 1868. In January, 1871, he was chosen United States Senator by the Legislature of Missouri. He died at St. Louis, Mo., July 8, 1875.

Blair, MONTGOMERY, a member of President Lincoln's cabinet from 1861 to 1864, was born in Franklin County, Ky., May 10, 1813. He was graduated at the West Point Military Academy in 1835, and served a while in the Second Artillery in Florida, against the Seminole Indians. He resigned in 1836; became a practising lawyer in St. Louis, Mo., in 1837; from 1839 to 1843 was the United States District Attorney for the district of Missouri, and was Judge of the St. Louis Court of Common Pleas from 1843 to 1849. In 1842 he was Mayor of St. Louis. President Pierce appointed him Solicitor to the United States Court of Claims in 1855, but, becoming a Republican, President Buchanan removed him. Mr. Blair was counsel for the plaintiffs in the famous Dred Scott case (which see). He was appointed Postmaster-general in March, 1861, and served about three years. Mr. Blair died July 26, 1883.

Blind Bill. The silver bill of 1878, promoted by Congressman Bland of Missouri. (See *Silver Dollar*, p. 1295, and *Silver Legislation* and *Finances in the Supplement*.)

Books PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES. The first bookseller in this country of whom any account is preserved was Hezekiah Usher,

who had a book-store in Boston in 1652. His son, John Usher, who succeeded him, did a flourishing business in books, and in 1686 was said to be "the trader who makes the best figure in Boston." Richard Fry was another Boston bookseller, who in 1732 published a work which he described as "the most beautiful poems of Mr. Stephen Duck, the famous Wiltshire poet." Of this volume of verses he sold more than 1200 copies. The business of publishing, however, cannot be said to have become active, or in any great degree profitable until fifty years or more after the establishment of independence. From 1830 to 1842 there were 1300 volumes printed in the United States—an average of about 108 a year—and fully one-half of these were reprints. After this there was a steady and rapid increase in the number of books produced annually. In 1853, 879 new books and new editions were issued, but of these 298 were reprints and 37 were translations from foreign languages. In 1860 the number of volumes had increased to 1350. In 1896 the total number of publications (new books and new editions) issued in the United States was 5469. These were distributed as follows: Fiction, 1114; law, 531; juvenile, 375; history, 468; theology, 506; education, 488; poetry, 309; literary, 193; medical, 163; social, 335; travel, 151; biography, 180; arts, 140; science, 140; useful arts, 111; sports, 38; rural, 52; humor, 32; philosophy, 61.

Boutwell, GEORGE SEWALL, was born in Brookline, Mass., Jan. 28, 1818, the son of a farmer. He studied law, but never practised it, turning his attention to politics. He was seven times chosen to a seat in the Massachusetts Legislature, and became the leader of the Democratic party in his state. In 1850 he was chosen Governor of Massachusetts, and was re-elected in 1852. In 1863 he was elected to Congress, and was twice re-elected. He was one of the managers of the impeachment of President Johnson, and was Secretary of the Treasury from 1869 to 1873, when he became a member of the United States Senate, his term ending in 1877.

Boycotting. Ostracizing individuals or corporations. A term in business circles, imported from Ireland about 1882, where it originated in 1881. Mr. Boycott, an agent of Lord Erne's estate in Ireland, evicted a large number of his tenants. These and their neighbors refused all intercourse with him and his family, and would not work for him or trade with him. Only under military protection could he gather his crops.

Brazil. An event of great interest to Americans was the overthrow of the Brazilian empire, the last monarchy in the New World, and the establishment of a republic in November, 1889. A constitution was adopted, framed on the American model, and Fonseca was the first President. Brazil was included in the reciprocity arrangements of the Harrison administration. Peixoto succeeded as President in 1891, but the new republic has been disturbed by

internal troubles. Most serious of these outbreaks was the revolt of the fleet under Admiral Mello in the summer of 1893, followed by the blockade of Rio de Janeiro by the insurgents. To supply the loss of vessels, the Brazilian government purchased a powerful merchantman, *El Cid*, plying between New York and New Orleans, transformed it in New York harbor into the dynamite cruiser *Nietheroy*, and despatched it at the end of 1893 to the scene of action. Other vessels were purchased to cope with the strong naval force of Mello. The rebellion was not ended until June, 1895. M. de Moraes, who had meanwhile been elected President, granted full amnesty to all concerned in the revolt. In 1896 Brazil entered into a reciprocity treaty for trade with the United States.

Brooklyn, L. I., a large city opposite New York, and the fourth city in the Union in point of population until its union with New York in 1897. It was named from Breuckelen ("marshy land"), a place in the province of Utrecht, Holland. The first movement towards settlement there was the purchase of land from the Indians, in 1636, lying at Gowanus, and of land at Wallabout Bay, in 1637. A ferry between it and New Amsterdam was established in 1642. It held a leading position among the towns for wealth and population at the time of the surrender to the English. (See *New York, Colony of*.) At or near Brooklyn occurred the battle of Long Island (see *Long Island, Battle of*), in 1776. The government established a navy-yard at Brooklyn in 1801. During the war of 1812-15 (August, 1814), there were stirring scenes at Brooklyn, when hosts of citizens went over from New York to assist in strengthening the old fortifications there, in expectation of an attack by the British. In the Civil War the citizens of Brooklyn contributed largely to the support of the Union cause in every way. The sanitary fair there (see *United States Sanitary Commission*) yielded the munificent sum of \$402,943. Brooklyn was incorporated a village in April, 1816, and became a chartered city in 1834. Williamsburg and Greenpoint were annexed to it in January, 1855. Its population in 1880 was 566,663; in 1897 it was 1,212,922. In 1897 was culminated a movement to incorporate Brooklyn with the western end of Long Island, Staten Island, New York City, and part of Westchester County into one municipality, the "Greater New York."

Brooklyn Bridge. The bridge across East River, connecting New York and Brooklyn, was designed by John A. Roebling. It was begun in 1870 and finished in 1883. The steel cables by which it is suspended were made at Wilmington, Del., and are supported on stone piers, 272 feet above high tide. The total length of the bridge is 5989 feet, and the carriage-way

is 135 feet above the water. The cost was \$15,000,000, of which the city of Brooklyn paid \$10,000,000 and New York city \$5,000,000.

Brown, HENRY KIRKE, an excellent American sculptor, was born in Leyden, Mass., in 1814. He studied portrait-painting in Boston, and afterwards spent several years in Italy, in the study of the plastic art. He settled in Brooklyn, N. Y., and became famous for his bronze statues. A figure by him was the first bronze statue ever made in the United States. Among his best works are an equestrian statue of Washington, in New York; an equestrian statue of General Greene, made for the State of Rhode Island; a colossal statue of De Witt Clinton, and "Angel of the Resurrection," in Greenwood Cemetery; a colossal equestrian statue of General Scott, and a statue of President Lincoln. Mr. Brown was also an excellent painter. He died July 12, 1886.

Business Depression. Beginning in the summer of 1893 there became manifest in the United States a decided falling off in all branches of industry. Bank clearings lessened, manufacturers' orders began to decrease, and the retail trade showed a great change for the worse. A great stringency prevailed in the money market, and many merchants who depended upon a fair amount of credit to conduct their business were forced to suspend. This depression was first most pronounced in the middle West. The closing months of 1895 found the country on the verge of a panic. Factories were closing everywhere, the East feeling the depression nearly as sharply as the West. Within the first six months of 1896, 509 banks suspended throughout the country. Business everywhere came to a stand-still, and the conditions caused another political upheaval. During the first six months of 1897 there was but little change in the business world, but that was clearly for the better; and it seems that the tide of trade in the country is surely on the rise again. A host of causes are ascribed for the long-continued hard times, but none of the explanations are fully satisfying. Trade papers state that during 1894 there were 14,010 business failures, the liabilities being \$198,658,891; in 1895, 15,884 failures, with liabilities at \$557,778,747; and for 1896 there were 12,654 failures, with liabilities of \$325,763,800.

Butterfield, DANIEL, an American officer, born in 1831 in Oneida County, N. Y.; educated at Union College; was made brigadier of volunteers soon after the breaking out of the American Civil War, and took part in campaigns under Generals McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, and Pope. He was Hooker's chief-of-staff at the battle of Lookout Mountain. At the close of the war he was brevetted major-general for "gallant and meritorious service."

C.

Carlisle, JOHN GRIFFIN, was born in Kenton County, Ky., Sept. 5, 1835, and was admitted to the bar in 1858. He rapidly acquired a reputation both as a lawyer and politician. Having gained experience in both houses of the Kentucky Legislature, and served as lieutenant-governor from 1871 to 1875, he entered the National House of Representatives in 1877 as Democratic member from his native state. In Congress he became rapidly one of the most notable and influential figures, especially on financial and commercial matters. He was a member of the Ways and Means Committee, and was recognized as one of the ablest debaters and leaders in the movement for revenue reform. When his party obtained control of the House in 1883, Carlisle, as the candidate of the revenue-reform wing of the Democrats, received the nomination and election to the office of Speaker. He was twice re-elected, serving until 1889. From 1890 to 1893 he was United States Senator. On March 4, 1893, he left the Senate to enter President Cleveland's second cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury.

Cheatham, BENJAMIN F., a meritorious Confederate officer in the Civil War, conspicuous for gallantry and skill in the battles of Belmont, Chickamauga, Missionary Ridge, Franklin, and Nashville. He was born in Tennessee, and was a volunteer in the war with Mexico. He died in 1886.

Chili. Towards the close of the year 1890, a revolution occurred in Chili, South America. It was the result of certain abuses of power on the part of the President of that republic, and the conflict was carried on with great bitterness between his adherents and the revolutionary party with the Chilean Congress at its head. Early in the course of the war almost the entire Chilean navy deserted the cause of the President and espoused that of the revolutionists. Among the vessels employed by the latter was the *Itata*, originally a merchant ship, but now armed and refitted as a cruiser. In the spring of 1891 this vessel put in at the harbor of San Diego, Cal., for the secret purpose of securing a cargo of arms and ammunition for the revolutionists. The secret, however, was not well kept, and when it came to the knowledge of the United States authorities, steps were at once taken to prevent her from accomplishing the object of her mission. Officers acting under the neutrality laws seized the vessel and placed a United States deputy marshal on board. Soon afterwards, on the night of May 6, the *Itata*, disregarding this action of the United States, sailed away from San Diego with the American officer on board. The latter, however, was landed a few miles south of San Diego. The *Itata* then took on board, from the American schooner *Robert and Minnie*, a cargo of arms and ammunition which had arrived from the Eastern states, and immediately sailed for Chili. On the 9th of May the United States war-ship *Charleston* was ordered in pursuit, with

instructions to take her at all hazards. The chase lasted twenty-five days. The *Charleston* reached the bay of Iquique first, and there learned that the revolutionists, fearing to provoke the hostility of the United States, had resolved to surrender the *Itata* to the authorities of that country. A few days later that vessel, upon arriving at Iquique, was promptly given over to the United States officers. She was manned with an American crew, and sent back to the harbor of San Diego, where it was intended she should remain until the settlement of the question at issue concerning her cargo and her responsibility to the United States. The Chilean war, however, was brought to a close in the autumn by the complete success of the revolutionary forces, and the case against the *Itata* was allowed to drop.

About the same time another complication arose between Chili and the United States. While the United States cruiser *Baltimore* was in the harbor of Valparaiso, a party of her sailors became involved in a riot with the Chileans, Oct. 16, 1891. In the course of the *mêlée* several sailors were wounded, of whom two died; thirty-six were arrested by the authorities. When the news of the affair reached the United States it created considerable excitement. On October 23, President Harrison despatched a message to United States Minister Egan at Santiago, demanding reparation, and two war-ships were sent to the country. On December 11, the Chilean Minister of Foreign Affairs, Matta, sent a communication, which became known as the *Matta Note*. The Chilean request for Mr. Egan's recall, and the phraseology of the *Matta Note*, gave offence at Washington, and in January, 1892, the President despatched a protest to the Chilean government, and on January 25 sent a message to Congress. Meantime at Valparaiso an inquiry was held on the riot, and three Chileans were sentenced to penal servitude. Pereira, who had succeeded to the direction of Chilean foreign relations, withdrew the *Matta Note* and withdrew also the request for Minister Egan's recall, and Chili paid an indemnity of \$75,000.

The affair was variously interpreted here: by enemies of the administration as the bullying of a weaker power; by the administration's friends as an instance of a vigorous national policy. During 1893 and 1894 Chili was shaken by several domestic revolutions, during which much American property was destroyed. In November, 1895, Señor Barros, a liberal, formed a cabinet and paid to the United States \$250,000 for damage done during the revolutions. In 1896 Chili concluded peace treaties with all her neighbors, and the future of the nation at present appears very bright.

Chinese, EXCLUSION OF THE (see *International Law, First Acceptance of, by China*, p. 688). The immigration of Chinese laborers to the Pacific coast of the United States began soon after the discovery of gold in California in 1849.

Within a few years their influx became so great as to excite alarm. As they were willing to work for very small wages, and as most of them were employed and controlled by contractors, it was impossible for American laborers to compete with them. For these reasons, a strong anti-Chinese feeling was aroused, especially in California, and this feeling increased in intensity as the years passed. Many efforts were made to induce the general government to pass laws regulating or restricting the immigration of Chinese laborers, but it was not until 1879 that Congress began to take any decisive action. In that year a bill was passed forbidding any vessel to bring into American ports more than fifteen Chinamen at a time. This bill was vetoed by President Hayes, on the ground that it conflicted with existing treaty relations between this country and China. In 1881, a treaty was effected and ratified between the United States and China, which provided that the government of the former should have power to limit, suspend, or regulate, but not prohibit, the importation of Chinese laborers. Chinese merchants, travellers, and their servants, teachers, and students in this country were to enjoy the same rights as those vouchsafed to the citizens of the most favored nations. On the 6th of May, 1882, however, Congress passed an act suspending Chinese immigration for a period of ten years. To enforce this law a heavy fine was ordered to be imposed upon any captain or ship-owner who should bring Chinese laborers to any part of the United States, and each laborer so coming was liable to imprisonment for a period not exceeding twelve months. Other Chinese persons, as students, travellers, merchants, scientists, diplomats, etc., were to be provided with an official certificate or passport from their home government. The effect of this law was at once felt in the decreased immigration of Chinese laborers, which was now practically prohibited. Notwithstanding this exclusion act, many Chinamen still found entrance into the United States, by landing first in British Columbia, whence they were systematically smuggled across the border. It was estimated that the number of laborers thus surreptitiously introduced into the United States averaged not less than 1500 per year for several years after the passage of the law. The feeling against the Chinese was especially strong on the Pacific slope. A bill promoted by Representative Geary of California, and known as the *Geary Act*, became law May 5, 1892. By this measure the previous exclusion acts of 1882, 1884, and 1888 were re-enacted for ten years; all Chinamen were required to obtain certificates of residence, in default of which they were to be deported at the expense of the United States. Only about 12,000 out of 100,000 complied with the law. The question of its constitutionality was settled by a decision of the United States Supreme Court, May 15, 1893.

Civil-Service Reform, a desirable achievement, first seriously begun in the United States between the years 1872 and 1874. President Grant, aided by the provisions of an appropria-

tion bill, enforced a system of competitive examinations in the departments at Washington. He appointed a civil-service commission to take charge of them, and men of superior character were brought into the public service. The evils of patronage, through which public offices were filled, soon began to diminish, when many members of Congress consequently became hostile to the measure, for it menaced the life of the spoils system. In a special message in April, and in his annual message in December, 1874, President Grant set forth the beneficial results of the competitive examinations, and asked their continuance. Congress refused to make appropriation for the purpose, when these examinations were suspended and the system of congressional patronage again flourished. President Hayes established such examinations in the Post-office and the Custom-house at New York, and Presidents Garfield and Arthur continued them. The beneficial results there were so apparent that the system grew in public favor, and in January, 1883, a civil-service act was passed by Congress. Under it President Arthur appointed a civil-service commission. The act contained stringent provisions for the suppression of political assessments, and provided for thorough competitive examinations. The rules of the civil service provided by the act have been enforced as efficiently as possible. Adherents of the old corrupt system are many and active. On May 4, 1883, the State of New York enacted a civil-service law, and under it a state commission was appointed. It applied to the municipal governments of New York and Brooklyn. Grover Cleveland was a great friend of civil-service reform, and both of his terms in office were marked by a close observance of the rules. One of his last acts in office was to extend the civil service to the fourth-class postmasters, and, owing to the growth of civil-service reform, it is estimated that President McKinley had 40,000 less positions under his control than did President Cleveland during his first term. Each state and city in the Union now has its civil-service list. Clerks in all the government departments are no longer at the mercy of each political shift, and are chosen for their ability—not as a reward for political services. The total number of men now under civil-service rules in this country is about 300,000. Promotion with all these men is subject to a competitive examination. Civil-service rules do not apply to laborers, or men whose appointment must be confirmed by the Senate.

Civil War in the United States was actually begun when, after the attack on Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, in April, 1861, the President of the United States, recognizing the fact that a part of the people in the Union were in a state of rebellion, called for 75,000 men (April 15, 1861) to suppress the insurrection. Then an immediate arming and other preparations for the impending struggle began in all parts of the Republic, and very soon hostile armies came in contact. The first overt act of the war was committed by the insurgents in Charleston harbor at the beginning of 1861. (See *Star of the*

West fired upon.) The last struggle of the war occurred in Texas, near the battle-ground of Palo Alto (which see), on May 13, 1865, between insurgents and the Sixty-third United States regiment of colored troops, who fired the last volley. The last man wounded in the Civil War was Sergeant Crockett, a colored soldier. The whole number of men called into the military service of the government in the army and navy during the war was 2,656,553. Of this number about 1,490,000 men were in actual service. Of the latter, nearly 60,000 were killed in the field and about 35,000 were mortally wounded. Diseases in camp and hospitals slew 184,000. It is estimated that at least 300,000 Union soldiers perished during the war. Fully that number of Confederate soldiers lost their lives, while the aggregate number of men, including both armies, who were crippled or permanently disabled by disease, was estimated at 400,000. The actual loss to the country of able-bodied men caused by the rebellion was fully 1,000,000. The total cost of the war has been moderately estimated at \$8,000,000,000. This sum includes the debt which on Aug. 31, 1865, had reached \$2,845,907,626.56; the estimated value of the slaves was \$2,000,000,000; in addition about \$800,000,000 were spent during the war by the government, mainly in war expenses, and large outlays were made by states; one estimate of the total pension bill raises this item to \$1,500,000,000. The destruction of property is difficult to compute. Details of the more prominent events in the great Civil War may be found under numerous titles referred to in the Index.

Clark, ALVAN, the leading telescope-maker of the world, died at Cambridge, Mass., on Aug. 19, 1887. He was born at Ashfield, Mass., March 8, 1804, a descendant of the captain of the *Mayflower*. He showed a genius for art in early youth, and became an engraver and portrait-painter. In 1835 he relinquished engraving and set up a studio for painting in Boston. He was over forty years of age before he became practically interested in telescope-making. Owing to the extraordinary acuteness of his vision, his touch, and his unlimited patience, he was specially skilful in grinding lenses of enormous size. Just before the Civil War he produced object-glasses equal, if not superior, to any ever made. One, eighteen inches in diameter, then the largest ever made, went to Chicago. It revealed twenty stars, hitherto unseen by mortal eyes, in the nebula of Orion. With his sons Mr. Clark established a manufactory of telescopes at Cambridge. They have produced some of extraordinary power. In 1883 they completed a telescope for the Russian government which had a clear aperture of thirty inches and a magnifying power of 2000 diameters. It was the largest in the world, for which they were paid \$33,000. At the time of his death Mr. Clark was engaged in making a telescope for the Lick Observatory, California, having a lens thirty-six inches in diameter. (See p. 254.)

Clark, ALVAN, JR., succeeded his father in the business of telescope-making. In May, 1893, he

completed a large telescope (20 inches) for Harvard University. He died June 9, 1897.

Clay, CASSIUS MARCELLUS, a statesman, was born in Madison County, Ky., Oct. 18, 1810, and was graduated at Yale College in 1832. He became a lawyer, was a member of the Kentucky Legislature in 1835, 1837, and 1840. In June, 1845, he issued, at Lexington, Ky., the first number of the *True American*, a weekly antislavery paper. In August his press was seized by a mob, after which it was printed in Cincinnati and published at Lexington, and afterwards at Louisville. Mr. Clay was a captain in the war with Mexico, and was made prisoner in January, 1847. In 1862 he was appointed major-general of volunteers, and he was United States Minister to Russia from 1863 to 1869. Since that time he has not engaged in public life.

Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, THE, between the United States and Great Britain was signed at Washington, D. C., April 19, 1850, by John M. Clayton, Secretary of State, and Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer, British Envoy. It is an expression of the views and intentions of the two governments with reference to a proposed communication by canal or railroad between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans across the Isthmus of Darien. (See *Darien Ship Canal*.) The contracting parties agreed that neither would ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over such communication; nor erect fortifications commanding the same; nor colonize or assume any dominion over any part of Central America; to extend their protection to any other practicable communication, whether by canal or railroad; and to guarantee its neutrality and secure its common use to other nations. Subsequently dissatisfaction and uneasiness on both sides was manifested, and, in 1880, a report in favor of abrogating the treaty was made to the House of Representatives. In 1881 the proposed construction of a ship canal by a company chartered by France caused considerable correspondence between Secretaries Blaine and Frelinghuysen and Lord Granville, British minister, concerning the true interpretation of a certain portion of the treaty.

Cleveland, GROVER, twenty-second President of the United States, was born in Caldwell, Essex County, N. J., March 18, 1837. After some experience as a clerk and some labor on the compilation of the *American Herd Book*, he became a bank clerk in Buffalo, and was admitted to the bar in 1859. From 1863 to 1865 he was assistant district-attorney, and in 1870 he was elected sheriff of Erie County and served three years. Elected mayor of Buffalo in 1881, he attracted during the first few months of his term more than local notice, and was the Democratic candidate for governor of New York in 1882. One of the successful nominees in this "tidal-wave" Democratic year, Mr. Cleveland received the phenomenal majority of 192,000, and entered office in January, 1883. His administration of affairs at Albany secured the presentation of his name to the Democratic National Convention in 1884. He was nominated; and

elected, after a close and exciting struggle, over Blaine, and was inaugurated March 4, 1885. In his cabinet were T. F. Bayard in the State Department; D. Manning in the Treasury; W. C. Endicott, War; W. C. Whitney, Navy; L. Q. C. Lamar, Interior; A. H. Garland, Attorney-general; W. F. Vilas, Postmaster-general. President Cleveland, in his famous message to Congress on the surplus and the tariff in December, 1887, forced the fighting on the revenue-reform issue. He was the candidate of his party in 1888, but was defeated by Harrison, and retired in 1889. He settled in New York, and resumed the practice of law. In 1892 he received for the third time the Democratic nomination. In the election Cleveland received 277 electoral and 5,556,533 popular votes, while Harrison had 145 electoral and 5,175,577 popular votes. He was inaugurated March 4, 1893, and selected the following cabinet officers: W. Q. Gresham, State; John G. Carlisle, Treasury; Daniel Lamont, War; Hilary A. Herbert, Navy; Hoke Smith, Interior; J. Sterling Morton, Agriculture; Richard Olney, Attorney-general; W. S. Bissell, Postmaster-general. At the close of his second term, he took up the practice of law again, making his home at Princeton, N. J. Mr. Cleveland married in 1886 Miss Frances Folsom.

Cold Harbor, or Coal Harbor, names given by some writers to a locality in Hanover County, Va., made famous by a severe battle fought there during the Civil War. (See *Cool Arbor*.) The true name of the locality is Cool Arbor, and was derived from the title of a shady and delightful summer resort for the people of Richmond before the Revolutionary War. The proprietor very properly named his establishment "The Cool Arbor." There is no reason for the name of Coal Harbor or Cold Harbor.

Columbian Exposition, THE. Early in 1890 an Act was passed by Congress, providing for an exhibition of arts, industries, manufactures, and products of the soil, mines, and sea, in 1892. This exhibition was designed to be a commemoration and celebration of the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, and hence was designated "The World's Columbian Exposition." When the question of a site for the Exposition came up for determination, the four cities—New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and Washington were competitors; and on the 24th of February Chicago, which had given good guarantee of \$10,000,000, was awarded that honor. Congress at once appropriated \$1,500,000 towards providing for the successful management of the enterprise. A commission of two persons from each state and territory was appointed by the President on the nomination of the governors, and also eight commissioners at large, and two from the District of Columbia, to constitute the World's Columbian Commission. It was directed that the buildings should be dedicated Oct. 12, 1892. The Exposition was to be opened on May 1, 1893, and closed on the last Thursday of October in the same year. In connection with the Exposition a naval review was directed to be held in New York harbor in April,

1893, and the President was authorized to extend to foreign nations an invitation to send ships of war to join the United States Navy at Hampton Roads and proceed thence to the review. The national commission being chosen, the President appointed ex-Senator Thomas W. Palmer, of Michigan, to be permanent chairman, and John T. Dickinson, of Texas, permanent secretary. Colonel George R. Davis, of Illinois, was chosen director-general of the Exposition. The grounds selected in Chicago for the erection of the buildings included the commons known as "Lake Front," consisting of ninety acres at the edge of the lake adjoining the business centre of the city, and Jackson Park, containing over six hundred acres. All the great buildings, except the permanent art building, were to be erected in the Park. The entire work of the Exposition was divided into fifteen branches, each of which was placed under the control of a director of acknowledged ability and national fame. These branches included the Bureau of Agriculture, the Departments of Ethnology, Fish and Fisheries, Mines and Mining, Liberal Arts, Publicity and Promotion, Fine Arts, Machinery, Manufactures, Electricity, Horticulture, Floriculture, and the Woman's Department, besides the Bureau of Transportation and the Department of Foreign Affairs. The total estimated expenditure for the fair was \$26,000,000.

The imposing naval parade in New York Harbor proved to be an event of surpassing interest. The Fair was opened by President Cleveland; a poem, "Prophecy," by William A. Croffut, was read, and the usual initiatory exercises occurred, but several weeks elapsed before all the exhibits were in place. Some special features of interest were the various congresses which assembled at Chicago. Aside from religious and educational reunions, there was a Literary Congress in July, which discussed copyright and general literature; the Jews, Roman Catholics, Negroes, and Engineers held special "Congresses." In the autumn a monster "Parliament of Religions" assembled, at which were present representatives of the leading Protestant denominations, as well as of the Roman Catholic and Greek Churches, Confucianism, Buddhism, the Brahmo Samaj, Judaism, Mohammedanism, Theosophy, and Shintoism.

The attendance, despite the business depression, was large from the United States, particularly from the West. The visit of Columbus's descendant, the Duke of Veragua, excited much popular interest, as did that of the Princess Eulalie of the Spanish royal family. Restorations of the caravels of Columbus followed his track across the Atlantic, and were conducted to Chicago by way of New York; another noteworthy restoration was the viking ship, which also made the journey to the Fair. The question of the Sunday opening of the Fair called forth considerable controversy, and reached the courts. As to the general character of the Exposition proper, opinions have varied. No mention of the Fair would be complete without a reference to several popular features—the gigantic Ferris Wheel and the Midway Plaisance, with its va-

rious "villages," Cairo Street, etc. Chicago, having done with the World's Fair, allowed all traces of it to disappear in a characteristic manner. Two great fires—one in January, the other in June, 1894—swept away the great buildings, leaving scarcely a vestige of them to be cleared away by workmen.

Committees of Safety, formed before and during the old war for independence, to keep watch of and act upon events pertaining to the public welfare, were really committees of vigilance. They were of incalculable service during that period in detecting conspiracies against the interests of the people and restraining evil-disposed persons. They were sometimes possessed of almost supreme executive power, delegated to them by the people. Massachusetts took the lead in the appointment of a committee of safety so early as the autumn of 1774, of which John Hancock was chairman. It was given power to call out the militia, provide means for defence—in a word, perform many of the duties of a provisional government. Other colonies appointed committees of safety. One was appointed in the city of New York, composed of one hundred of the leading citizens. (See *Committee of Fifty-one* and *Committee of Sixty*.) These committees were in constant communication with committees of correspondence (which see).

Cooke, JAY, an eminent financier, who was successful as the agent of the government in negotiating loans during the Civil War. He was born in Sandusky, O., Aug. 10, 1821, became a clerk in a banking-house in Philadelphia in 1838, and at the age of twenty-one became a partner. In 1861, at the age of forty, he established in Philadelphia the banking firm of Jay Cooke & Co., and became widely known as a leading financier of the country. His firm subsequently became agents for the Northern Pacific Railroad, and their suspension in 1873 was one of the causes of the great panic begun in that year.

Copyright Law, THE. The first copyright law in this country was passed in 1790 (see p. 327), but it was not until a little more than a hundred years later that the principle of protection was extended to others than citizens of the United States. The injustice done to foreigners by excluding them from the privileges of copyright was early apparent, and the only excuse to be offered therefor was that the laws of Great Britain permitted a similar injustice to be practised upon Americans. Literary "piracy," as it was called, became common in both countries. Books of British authors were freely republished in America without compensation to their authors, and American books were likewise reproduced in England. And yet the English law was more just than the American, for it allowed a foreigner to secure British copyright provided the work was first published within the United Kingdom, and the author was at the time of publication anywhere within the British dominions. A movement to secure the passage of some kind of international copyright law was begun in Congress as early as 1837, when

Henry Clay presented a petition of British authors asking for the protection of their works. This petition was favorably reported upon by the select committee to which it was referred, but no further action was taken. In 1843, George P. Putnam presented to Congress a memorial signed by many leading publishers, which declared that the absence of international copyright was "alike injurious to the business of publishing and to the best interests of the public." After this frequent efforts were made to secure a change in the law, and several bills were introduced into Congress from time to time with that object in view. In 1883 an association called "The American Copyright League" was founded for the purpose of securing the co-operation of authors and publishers in advancing the cause of international justice, and through its persistent efforts the copyright bill of 1891 was finally passed. When first voted upon in the House of Representatives this bill was defeated by a very small majority. Early in the next session of Congress it was again brought up and passed by a vote of 139 to 95. In the Senate action was delayed until almost the last day of the session. It was at length passed with several objectionable amendments attached, but through the conference committee, to which it was referred, it was adopted substantially as reported from the House. It was signed by President Harrison, March 4, 1891, and went into effect on the 1st day of July in the same year. The law thus secured, after so long a struggle, provides that foreigners may take American copyright on the same basis as American citizens, in case (1) that the nation of the foreigner permits copyright to American citizens on substantially the same basis as its own citizens, or (2) that the nation of the foreigner is a party to an international agreement providing for reciprocity in copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States may become a party thereto. The existence of these conditions shall be determined by the President of the United States and announced by proclamation. It is required, however, that foreign books, etc., so copyrighted and circulated in the United States must be printed from type set in the United States, or from plates made therefrom, or from negatives or drawings on stone which have been made in the United States. The importation of foreign editions of books protected by American copyright is forbidden. The President has duly proclaimed that the necessary conditions exist in the following countries: Great Britain, France, Switzerland, Belgium, Germany, Italy, Denmark, Portugal, Spain, Mexico, and Chili. No question of the validity of a copyright can be determined under the law by any other authority than a United States court.

Coxe, TENCH, to whose labors the cotton interest of the United States is vastly indebted, was born in Philadelphia, May 22, 1755. He was a grandson of Dr. Daniel Coxe, Queen Anne's physician. He was an industrious writer on political economy, and especially upon the subjects of the manufacturing inter-

ests of our country. From 1787 until the death of Mr. Coxe, on July 17, 1824, there never was an important movement in favor of the introduction and promotion of manufactures in which his name did not appear prominent. In 1794 he published a large volume on the subject of cotton culture and cognate topics. At that time he was commissioner of the revenue at Philadelphia. In 1806 he published an essay on the naval power and the encouragement of manufactures; and the following year he issued a memoir on the cultivation and manufacture of cotton.

Coxey. The spring of 1894 was marked by one of the most unique popular uprisings ever witnessed in any country. Jacob J. Coxey, of Massillon, Ohio, organized what he called "The Army of the Commonwealth," to be composed of men out of work, for a march to Washington in order to influence Congress to take some action for the benefit of trade in the country. Coxey appointed March 10 as the day the army would start from Massillon, and early in the year a great number of small companies started from the South and West to join him. For a time it seemed as if the movement would be an impressive one. Fully 1500 men, composing the Western detachment under Colonel Fry, reached the Mississippi. This detachment was constantly growing in numbers, and was well received by the people through the states as it progressed towards Massillon to join Coxey. But at this point Providence apparently interfered, for, as three weeks of constant rain followed, the army was unable to progress, and soon scattered, as did many smaller detachments. Thus it was that Coxey was obliged to make his start with but 400 men, and about the same number, despite another rainy spell, arrived in Washington on May 2. Coxey attempted to make a speech from the steps of the Capitol, was arrested, and obliged to spend a month in jail. The movement ended in a perfect farce, although at one time it was estimated that 20,000 men were marching to join the army. Coxey had hoped to make Congress pass a law allowing each state to issue legal-tender certificates to citizens, whenever the citizens could give personal or real property as security.

Credit Mobilier—"credit on movable personal property"—a name given to a great joint-stock company in France in 1852, with a capital of \$12,000,000, which was sanctioned by the government. Its object was to carry on a general loan and contract business. In 1859 a corporation for this purpose was chartered in Pennsylvania. It was organized in 1863, with a capital of \$2,500,000. In 1867 its charter was purchased by a company formed for the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad. The stock was increased to \$3,750,000, and soon rose in value to a very great extent, paying enormous dividends. In 1872 it was charged that a number of members of both houses of Congress were privately owners of the stock. As legislation concerning the matter might be required, and as grants of land had been made to the railroad company,

Congress ordered an investigation, for it was considered highly improper for any member to have a pecuniary interest in such a concern. The Senate committee reported the innocence of several who had been accused. The expulsion of one member was recommended, but no further action was taken. In the House a resolution censuring two members was adopted. On the whole, the charges, though not without some basis, had been applied so promiscuously as to involve some men who were absolutely free from offence.

Crisp, CHARLES FREDERICK, was born in Sheffield, England, Jan. 9, 1845. He served in the Confederate army, and, settling to the practice of law in Georgia, became a judge of the superior court of that state. In 1883 he entered the National House of Representatives as a Democrat, and has served continuously since. His reputation as an able, judicial, and conservative leader on his side of the House led in 1891 to his candidacy for the speakership when his party came into power. He received the caucus nomination over Mills and others, was elected, and re-elected Speaker in 1893.

Crosby, PIERCE, a naval officer, was born in Pennsylvania, Jan. 16, 1824. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1844. He was engaged in the war with Mexico, and was very active as commander on the coast of North Carolina during portions of the Civil War. He was specially brave and skilful in the capture of the forts at Cape Hatteras (see *Hatteras, Forts at, Captured*), at the passage of the forts on the lower Mississippi in the spring of 1862, and at Vicksburg in June and July the same year. He was in command of the *Metacomet* during the operations which led to the capture of Mobile in 1865. In 1882 he was promoted to rear-admiral.

Cuba. This island, known as the Gem of the Antilles, has had a stormy history almost from the day of its discovery by Columbus in 1492. From the advent of the Spaniards in 1511 the natives began to suffer, and they have been persecuted ever since. During its early history the island changed hands several times, the Dutch once owning it for a short time and England conquering it in 1762, but restoring it to Spain in return for Florida. The island is especially valuable for its sugar and tobacco crop, and in 1892 the value of its exports was nearly \$50,000,000. Spain has governed the island by means of captain-generals sent there. The natives have been oppressed with exorbitant taxes, and after the rebellion of 1868 a debt of \$200,000,000 was saddled by Spain upon the 2,000,000 inhabitants of the island. There have been insurrections almost without number on the island, and the sympathy of the United States has always gone out to the struggling patriots. In 1829 occurred the Black Eagle rebellion, which was directed from the United States, and only put down by Spain after three years' fighting. In 1844 occurred the insurrection of the blacks. At the end of this rebellion 700 Cubans were put to death by torture, and the people of America became so aroused that

President Polk offered Spain \$1,000,000 for the island, but the offer was refused. In 1868, after the Spanish revolution, another rebellion broke out on the island and lasted ten years. The revolutionists proclaimed a republic, and Spain, after spending \$200,000,000 and sending over 50,000 troops, finding that she could not conquer the patriots, sent over General Campos, who, by promises, induced the patriots to lay down their arms. Spain's promises were never fulfilled. The rebellion which is now in progress broke out Feb. 24, 1895, although José Martí, its promoter, had been busy for several years previous secretly shipping arms to the island. As soon as the rebellion began the republic was again proclaimed, and the old flag of 1868, a triangular blue union with a single star and five stripes, three red and two white, was adopted. Salvadore Cisneros Betancourt was proclaimed president, General Maximo Gomez was made commander-in-chief, and General Antonio Maceo was made lieutenant-general. The patriots were uniformly successful in the early engagements. During 1895 Spain sent 50,000 troops to the island. During 1896 she sent 80,000 more, and in July, 1897, the Spanish force in Cuba was estimated at 147,000 men. In spite of this great force, however, only one province, that of Pinar del Rio, remains in the hands of the Spanish, the other five being either wholly or partly given up to the patriots. General

Campos was first sent by Spain to put down the rebellion, but as he failed to do so, General Weyler was sent to supersede him in February, 1896. Weyler's course has been one of extreme cruelty, and has aroused the people of the United States. During the progress of the revolution relations between the United States and Spain have been constantly strained. Many vessels have left ports in this country loaded with arms for the Cubans. One of the most prominent of these filibustering vessels is called the *Three Friends*, and is said to have made eight successful trips to Cuba, carrying arms. On the last trip the members of the crew were arrested by a United States war vessel and charged with piracy, but all were released after trial. One of the leading incidents of the war thus far was the death of the Cuban general, Maceo. He was found dead Dec. 17, 1896. The truth regarding his death may never be known, but the belief of the Cubans is that he was betrayed by his physician, who was afterwards loaded with honors by General Weyler and sent to Spain. Several Americans were imprisoned by the Spanish during January, 1897. Their release, or at least a speedy civil trial, was demanded by this country. Spain at first refused to grant this, and it seemed for a time as if a war was possible, but Spain finally agreed to grant the men a trial, after which they were set free.

D.

Davis, CHARLES HENRY, a rear-admiral of the navy, was born in Boston, Jan. 16, 1807; died at Washington, Feb. 18, 1877. He entered the service as midshipman in 1823. He was one of the chief organizers of the expedition against Port Royal, S. C., in 1861, in which he bore a conspicuous part. For his services during the Civil War he received the thanks of Congress and promotion to the rank of rear-admiral. In 1865 he became superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington, and in 1867 he was made commander-in-chief of the American squadron on the coast of Brazil. In 1870 he was appointed to the command of the Norfolk Navy-yard.

Debt, NATIONAL. (See *Public Debt*.) The national debt of the United States consists almost entirely of obligations incurred or accruing since the beginning of 1861, the period of the breaking out of the Civil War. The debt, Nov. 1, 1896, was: interest-bearing, \$847,364,460; non-interest-bearing, \$372,100,247.

Democratic Party. For the origin and early development of the party, see the article *Republicans*, p. 1199. Its main tenets were strict construction of the Constitution and opposition to extension of the Federal powers. Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe were members of the now dominant party, and under the last-named President party lines for a short time disappeared in the so-called "Era of Good Feeling." Soon afterwards the Democrats came under the leadership

of Jackson, and were opposed to the National Republicans and Whigs. Jackson's successor, Van Buren, was a Democrat. A Whig interval (1841-45) ensued. Then followed the Democratic administration of Polk, succeeded (1849-53) by another Whig administration. Pierce and Buchanan were the last Presidents elected by the party for a long period. In the general confusion caused by the increasing prominence of slavery the Democrats at first profited, while the Whigs disappeared. In the Civil War many "war Democrats" acted temporarily with the Republicans. McClellan, though defeated, received a large popular vote in 1864. Seymour in 1868, Greeley in 1872 were defeated. In 1876 the Democrats came near success. (See *Tilden*, and *Electoral Commission*.) The House was now frequently Democratic, but the Presidency was again taken by their competitors in 1880. In 1884 they succeeded in a close campaign. The two wings of the party, revenue reform and protectionist, long refused to work together. Under the leadership of Morrison, Carlisle, and Cleveland, tariff reform became the dominating issue. Defeated in 1888 the Democrats gained a sweeping victory in 1890, and in 1893 regained control of all departments, only to lose all again in 1896.

Diplomacy. Down to 1893 American representatives at foreign capitals held the second grade only in the diplomatic hierarchy—that of minister—and, *vice versa*, no foreign envoys at Washington had a higher rank than that of minister. This circumstance had long caused

some inconveniences, and in 1893 provision was made for the raising of the more important missions to the rank of ambassadorships. Ambassadors Bayard to London, Runyon to Berlin, and Eustis to Paris, appointed under the new Cleveland administration, were therefore the first to hold this grade—the highest recognized in the service. Similarly the ministers of these countries to the United States have been promoted. Diplomacy has been busy in recent years in connection with the Bering Sea affairs (see *Bering Sea*); with questions of reciprocity, and extension of American influence to the southward (see *Reciprocity* and *Pan-American Conference*); with negotiations for the admission of American food products into European countries; with the Samoan difficulty, and occasional “diplomatic incidents” like those with Italy and Chili in 1891.

Direct Taxes. Only five times in the history of the country has a direct tax been successfully levied by Congress—and never upon all the property of the country. In 1798 a direct tax was levied of fifty cents on every slave within the jurisdiction of the United States. In 1813, 1815, 1816, and 1861 taxes were levied upon all dwelling-houses, lands, and slaves, and apportioned among the states, as required by the Constitution, not according to their wealth, but according to their population. The tax of 1861 was made necessary in order to defray the expenses of the war just then beginning, and all the loyal states, except Delaware, assumed its payment. Thirty years afterwards, in 1891, Congress passed an act providing that the taxes thus contributed for the prosecution of the war should be returned to the several states which had paid them. Under this act the total amount refunded to the state treasuries reached nearly \$15,000,000. Of this New York, of course, received the largest share, nearly \$3,000,000. Taxes on incomes above \$4000 were collected in 1895 under a law passed Dec. 12, 1894. This measure aroused great opposition among merchants,

bankers, and brokers, and John G. Moore, of New York, brought a suit to restrain the internal-revenue collector from collecting the tax. On Jan. 23, 1895, the constitutionality of the tax was affirmed. Appeal was made to the United States Supreme Court, which, on April 8, 1895, declared the income-tax unconstitutional. Only about \$75,000 had been collected under the law, and this was returned. The decision aroused much comment, and caused great dissatisfaction among the poorer classes.

District of Columbia, GOVERNMENT OF THE (see page 397). In 1871, the District of Columbia was organized as a territory with a territorial form of government. So extravagant, however, were the expenditures made for public improvements by the officials of the territory, that in 1874 Congress repealed the act creating the territory, and invested the executive powers of the municipality in three commissioners—two civilians and a United States engineer officer—appointed by the President. All legislative powers were assumed by Congress. The law was the common law of England, modified by acts of Congress. There was a Supreme Court of six justices, with other tribunals and officials. The expenses of the municipality were defrayed one-half by revenues from taxes levied on private property, and one-half by Congressional appropriations. The citizens had no right to vote on national or local questions, and yet it was in many respects the best-governed city in America.

Dow, NEAL. One of the foremost advocates of temperance in America. He was born in Portland, Maine, March 20, 1804. From the time he was a boy he was noted for his zeal in the temperance cause, and was one of the founders of the Prohibition party. In 1851 he drafted the famous prohibitory law of Maine, and was elected Governor of the State the same year. In 1880 he was the candidate of the Prohibition party for President.

E.

Eads, JAMES BUCHANAN, an eminent engineer, inventor, and scientist, was born at Lawrenceburg, Ind., May 23, 1820. His controlling genius was manifested in early childhood. His first invention was apparatus for recovering vessels with their cargoes from the muddy depths of a river. Eads made a fortune by it. In 1861 he was employed by the national government to construct gunboats, suitable for use in Western rivers. In the space of sixty-five days he constructed seven iron-clad gunboats. In 1862 he built six more; also heavy mortar-boats. These vessels performed mighty deeds during the Civil War. At the beginning of July, 1874, he completed a magnificent iron railroad bridge across the Mississippi at St. Louis, one of the finest structures of the kind in the world. Then he pressed upon the attention of the government his plan for improving the navigation of the mouth of the Mississippi by jetties. He was

authorized to undertake it (and was very successful), for which the government paid him \$5,125,000. At the time of his death he was engaged in the promotion of a project he had conceived of constructing a ship railway across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. In 1881 he received the Albert medal from the British Society of Arts, the first American to be thus honored. He died March 8, 1887.

Early, JUBAL ANDERSON. An American general, born in Franklin, Va., Nov. 3, 1816, and died at Lynchburg, Va., March 2, 1894. He was graduated from West Point in 1837, and served in the Florida war of the same year. In 1838 he resigned his commission and studied law. In 1847 he served as a major-general of volunteers during the war with Mexico. He was appointed colonel in the Confederate service at the outbreak of the Civil War. He lost

but two battles—one at Gettysburg, when he commanded a division of Lee's army, and the second at Cedar Creek, where Sheridan arrived in time to rally his men after his famous ride. In 1888 he published a book giving the history of the last year of the Civil War, during which time he was in command of the Army of the Shenandoah.

Edmunds, GEORGE FRANKLIN, an American statesman, was born at Richmond, Vt., Feb. 1, 1828. He took an early and active part in Vermont politics, serving several terms in both houses of the Legislature; he was Speaker of the House of Representatives and President *pro tem.* of the Senate. In 1866 he entered the United States Senate as a Republican, and for many years was one of the foremost men in Congress. Towards the close of his career he was the author of the *Edmunds Acts* of 1882 and 1887 for the suppression of polygamy and the regulation of affairs in Utah. In 1886 he framed the act for the counting of the electoral vote. Senator Edmunds resigned his seat in 1891 at the conclusion of twenty-five years of uninterupted service.

Electrocution. The first person legally executed by electricity in the United States was

William Kemmler, convicted of murder at Buffalo, in 1889, and sentenced under the laws of the State of New York. It was claimed that this method of executing criminals was unconstitutional, being a violation of the clause forbidding cruel and unusual punishments, and an effort was made to save Kemmler's life on this ground. Its constitutionality, however, was affirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States, and the prisoner, after having been twice given a respite, was executed Aug. 6, 1890.

Evarts, WILLIAM MAXWELL, LL.D., an eminent lawyer and statesman, was born at Boston, Mass., Feb. 6, 1818; was graduated at Yale College in 1837; studied law, and was admitted to the bar, in the city of New York, in 1840, where he has resided and practised his profession ever since. He is one of the ablest and most eloquent members of the bar, and has held a foremost rank in his profession for many years. He was the leading counsel employed for the defence of President Johnson in his trial before the Senate in 1868. President Hayes appointed Mr. Evarts Secretary of State in March, 1877, and in January, 1885, he was chosen United States Senator for the State of New York. He retired from the Senate in 1891.

F.

Farmers' Alliance. Various associations for the mutual protection of the farmers of the country were formed during the seventies under the names of alliances, unions, and wheels. These alliances had a great development, and in 1889 a national organization—the Farmers' Alliance—was formed. Its convention at Ocala, Fla., in December, 1889, denounced the alien ownership of land and the dealing in futures, favored the abolition of national banks, and advocated the free and unlimited coinage of silver and the issuing of Treasury notes. The Alliance was particularly strong in the South and West. At first it worked within party lines, often influencing in the South the choice of Democratic candidates. In 1890 it elected several governors, other state officers, and a few Congressmen. In 1890 the Farmers' Alliance allied itself with the People's Party, and in 1897 the old name was no longer used.

Finances, UNITED STATES. Financial topics were uppermost in interest during the years immediately succeeding 1890. The demand for the free and unlimited coinage of silver increased in the southern and western portions of the country. Between 1891 and 1892 the expenditures increased and the receipts decreased. Part of the silver was coined, and the rest accumulated in the Treasury vaults.

The silver question, and with it the whole financial problem, was suddenly brought prominently to the front in 1893. On June 26 of that year the British government closed the Indian mints to the free coinage of silver. As this important silver market was thus barred, the effect was to accelerate the fall in the price of that metal. At this date the value of the

silver dollar was about sixty cents, and it fell below that point. The ratio of gold to silver, which in 1873 was 15+, was in 1886 20, and in 1893 25½. The amount of gold in the country was greatly decreased during the same period. The gold reserve in the Treasury, which had been above the \$100,000,000 limit, fell in August, 1893, to \$96,000,000, stood September 30 at \$93,000,000, and Jan. 13, 1894, had fallen to \$74,000,000. Many business failures occurred during the summer. The iron trade was depressed, various cotton and woollen mills closed in New England and the Middle States, and stocks suffered. Within the first eight months of the year 560 state and private banks and 155 national banks (mostly of small dimensions) failed. The great majority of these bank failures were in the region west of the Mississippi River. This section, especially the states intimately connected with the mining and smelting of silver, felt the "hard times" keenly. The general closing of silver mines in Colorado was attended with much suffering, and considerable bitterness was displayed. 15,000 miners were idle, and many men out of work came eastward, in some cases taking forcible possession of freight-trains.

Meanwhile in the East in midsummer an extraordinary stringency of money was developed. At one time in New York the premium on \$1000 in small bills reached \$25; many business establishments were hard pressed to meet the payments of their employés; checks and clearing-house certificates played for a short time a remarkable part. The premium on currency disappeared, however, in September, although money continued to be scarce. One of the features of the commercial trouble of 1893 was the

number of large railroad systems forced into the hands of receivers. In this number were included the Erie, Reading, Northern Pacific, Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé, and New York and New England.

As the forced purchase of silver was generally recognized as one cause of the disturbances, attention was called to the repeal of the Silver Purchase Act of 1890, and President Cleveland summoned a special session of the Fifty-third Congress to consider the matter. Congress assembled August 7; on August 28 the House passed the Wilson Bill, which went to the Senate; in the form of the Voorhees Repeal Bill the measure passed the Senate by a vote of 43 to 32, October 30; nearly all the "repealers" were from the East and North. On November 1 it passed the House by a vote of 193 to 94, and was promptly signed by the President. After passing this act, which repealed the purchasing clause of the so-called *Sherman Bill* of 1890, Congress adjourned.

The actual condition of the national Treasury on Jan. 12, 1894, is thus set forth in a letter of Secretary Carlisle: Assets—gold, \$74,108,149; silver dollars and bullion, \$8,092,287; fractional silver coin, \$12,133,903; United States notes, \$5,031,327; Treasury notes of 1890, \$2,476,000; national bank notes, \$14,026,735; minor coin, \$988,625; deposits in banks, \$15,470,863; total cash assets, \$132,327,889. Liabilities—Bank-note five-per-cent. fund, \$7,198,219; outstanding checks and drafts, \$5,653,917; disbursing officers' balances, \$28,176,149; Post-office Department account, \$3,897,741; undistributed assets of failed national banks, \$1,927,727; District of Columbia account, \$142,613; total agency account, \$46,996,366; gold reserve, \$74,108,149; net balance, \$11,223,374. Total liabilities, \$132,327,889. The average monthly deficiency in the last half of 1893 was shown to be about \$7,000,000. The estimated falling-off in revenue with other causes swelled the expected deficiency to a formidable amount.

To meet the rapid fall in the gold reserve, Secretary Carlisle, on Jan. 17, 1894, issued a circular, offering for public subscription an issue of \$50,000,000 of bonds, "redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the government after ten years, . . . and bearing interest . . . at the rate of five per cent." The minimum premium was fixed at 117.223, thus making the issue equivalent to a three-per-cent. bond. The Secretary issued the call by virtue of an act of 1875; but his authority was challenged by the House Judiciary Committee Jan. 26, 1894.

In spite of this issue of bonds the Treasury reserve soon fell below the mark again, and on November 13 of the same year a second issue of \$50,000,000 worth of bonds was made. They were all given to a syndicate of bankers at a bid of 117.077. So rapid was the drain on the

Treasury, however, that on Feb. 8, 1895, the government signed a contract with the Belmont-Morgan syndicate of New York to provide for the Treasury 3,500,000 ounces of standard gold coin, amounting to \$62,315,000. Payment was made to the syndicate in four-per-cent. bonds. The syndicate was also pledged to help retain all the gold in the Treasury. The business depression still continued, however, and on Jan. 6, 1896, the government advertised a sale of \$100,000,000 in bonds. It was at first planned to sell the entire issue to the Belmont-Morgan syndicate, but the proposition caused such a popular outcry that the public was allowed to bid for the bonds, and the \$100,000,000 was subscribed more than five times over. The Treasury received more than \$6,000,000 more than if the sale had been made to the syndicate. This successful sale seemed to restore the confidence of the nation, and up to July, 1897, the gold reserve in the Treasury remained far above the \$100,000,000 limit required. It was estimated at the beginning of 1897 that \$500,000,000 would be necessary to pay the expenses of the government for the next twelve months. Payments on account of Pensions, the Army and Navy, aggregate over \$240,000,000.

Fiske, JOHN, an American historian and philosopher, was born at Hartford, Conn., in 1842. He was educated at Harvard, and was subsequently identified with that institution as instructor, lecturer, assistant librarian, and overseer. He has also been professor of American history in the Washington University of St. Louis, and is a well-known lecturer on historical themes. Professor Fiske's works fall under two heads: philosophical, including the *Cosmic Philosophy*, *Idea of God*, etc., and historical.

Frelinghuysen, FREDERICK THEODORE, was born at Milltown, N. J., Aug. 4, 1817; was graduated at Rutgers College in 1836; became an eminent lawyer, and was attorney-general of New Jersey, 1861-66. He was chosen United States Senator in 1868, and was re-elected for a full term in 1871. He was a prominent member of the Republican party. In July, 1870, President Grant appointed him minister to England, but he declined the position. On Dec. 12, 1881, he entered the cabinet of President Arthur as Secretary of State, on the resignation of Secretary Blaine. He died May 20, 1885.

Fuller, MELVILLE WESTON, Chief-justice of the United States Supreme Court, was born in Augusta, Me., Feb. 11, 1833. Graduating at Bowdoin College in 1853, he became a lawyer in his native city, but soon removed to Chicago. Here he built up an important practice; he was a member of the Legislature, and a delegate to several Democratic national conventions. In 1888 he was appointed by President Cleveland Chief-justice of the Supreme Court.

G.

Geary Act. (See *Chinese, Exclusion of the*.)

Greely, ADOLPH W., was born at Newburyport, Mass., March 27, 1844. He was thoroughly educated. At the breaking out of the Civil War he joined the great army of volunteers, and served faithfully until the close of the strife, rising to the position of captain. In 1881 he commanded an expedition sent into the Arctic regions by his government to establish a series of circumpolar stations for scientific observations, in accordance with a plan of the International Geographical Congress held at Hamburg in 1879. He landed with his party of twenty-five at Discovery Harbor, in latitude 81° 44' N., on Aug. 12, 1881. They made their permanent camp at Cape Sabine in October, 1883, where they suffered intensely for want of supplies which had failed to reach them. There all but six of the twenty-five died of starvation. The six, of whom Lieutenant Greely was one, were rescued by a relief party under Captain Schley on the 22d of June, 1884. Had the rescuers been forty-eight hours later, not one of the party would have been found alive. The living, and the dead bodies, were brought home. Two officers of the party, Lieutenant Lockwood and Sergeant Brainerd, had penetrated to lat. 83° 24' N., and hoisted the American flag. It was the highest northerly point ever attained. On the death of

General Hazen (see *Hazen, W. B.*), Lieutenant Greely was appointed his successor at the head of the Weather Signal Bureau, with the rank of brigadier. (See *Weather Signals*, p. 1499.)

Gresham, WALTER QUINTON, was born in Harrison County, Ind., March 17, 1833. He attended the State University of Indiana, and in 1854 was admitted to the bar and began the practice of law. He had served in the Legislature when the Civil War broke out. As colonel of Indiana volunteers he served creditably in the Western army. After the war he was defeated as Republican candidate for Congressman, and from 1869 to 1882 he held the position of a United States District Judge in Indiana. In President Arthur's administration Gresham was Postmaster-general from 1882 to 1884, and Secretary of the Treasury from September to December, 1884. He then became United States Circuit Judge, and held that position until 1893. Meanwhile he was in 1888 a prominent candidate for the Republican nomination to the Presidency, and in 1892 he declined the Populist invitation to stand for the same office. His views on public questions had somewhat changed, so that his appointment by President Cleveland to the office of Secretary of State was not entirely a surprise. He died in Washington, May 28, 1895.

H.

Hamlin, HANNIBAL, Vice-President of the United States, was born at Paris, Me., Aug. 27, 1809. He taught school, and entered official life early. For many years he was a Democrat, as member of the Maine Legislature, Congressman from 1843 to 1847, and United States Senator from 1849 to 1857. Having joined the Republican party, he was Governor of Maine for a short time in 1857, and was again Senator from 1857 to 1861. In 1860 he was elected Vice-President on the ticket with Lincoln, and served from 1861 to 1865. President Johnson appointed him Collector of the Port of Boston. From 1869 to 1881 he was once more in the United States Senate, and his long political career closed with his occupancy of the ministry to Spain from 1881 to 1883. Mr. Hamlin died at Bangor, Me., July 4, 1891.

Harrison, BENJAMIN, the twenty-third President of the United States, was born at North Bend, O., Aug. 20, 1833. His grandfather was William Henry Harrison, the ninth President of the United States, and his great-grandfather was Benjamin Harrison, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and for three successive terms Governor of Virginia (see p. 619). Young Benjamin Harrison graduated at Miami University, O., in 1852, and soon after began the study of law in Cincinnati. In 1854 he settled in Indianapolis and entered upon the practice of his chosen profession. On the 23d of January, 1865, he was brevetted a brigadier-general

of volunteer forces; and when, soon afterwards, the war was brought to a termination, he returned to Indianapolis. In 1880 he was chosen United States Senator from Indiana, and took his seat in that body on the 4th of March following. At the Republican National Convention of 1888, Mr. Harrison was a prominent candidate, and on the eighth ballot he received the nomination for the Presidency. At the election in November he was chosen President, receiving 233 electoral votes to Grover Cleveland's 168. The popular vote was 5,440,708 for Harrison, and 5,536,242 for Cleveland.

Hawaii, Hawaiian Islands, or Sandwich Islands, are a group of eight large islands and some islets in the North Pacific Ocean, on the border of the tropics, something over two thousand miles southwest of San Francisco. Hawaii is by far the largest of the group, and Oahu contains the capital, Honolulu. These islands are mountainous, containing several well-known volcanoes, and are remarkably productive. Sugar leads as an article of export, followed by rice, bananas, and hides. The area is 6640 square miles, and the population was, in 1890, 89,990. About one-half of this number were natives or half-castes; there were several thousands each of Chinese, Japanese, and Portuguese; while the American, British, and German contingents, though smaller, were, of course, very influential.

Discovered by Captain Cook in 1778, this

island kingdom in 1819 renounced in form idolatry, and received American missionaries in 1820. A constitution was granted in 1840, revised in 1852, and superseded by another in 1887. (For an account of a former annexation movement, see p. 1247.) In 1891 Queen Liliuokalani succeeded to the throne. At that time the sovereign and cabinet held the executive power, and the Legislature consisted of a House of 24 Nobles and a House of 24 Representatives. The greater portion of the trade was with the United States, and a reciprocity treaty, admitting Hawaiian sugar free, had formerly existed. At this time Mr. Harrison was President, Mr. Blaine Secretary of State, and Mr. Stevens was the United States Minister to Hawaii. The queen was not in sympathy with the Reform party, which had been successful in the revolution of 1887. On Jan. 15, 1893, she attempted to proclaim a new constitution in the direction of absolute power. This was opposed by the Ministers. A Committee of Safety was formed, and a Provisional Government organized, which, on January 17, deposed the queen. Mr. S. B. Dole was at the head of the Provisional Government. While these events were occurring, the United States cruiser *Boston* reached Honolulu, and her commander, Wiltse, landed 300 marines and sailors. It is disputed whether the revolution was accomplished independently of the aid and encouragement offered by Minister Stevens and the American forces. The queen immediately issued a protest, declaring that she yielded "to the superior force of the United States of America," and that she waited "until such time as the government of the United States shall, upon facts being presented to it, undo the acts of its representatives, and reinstate me." She despatched agents to the United States, and the Provisional Government sent commissioners to negotiate a treaty of annexation.

In the United States these events naturally created great excitement. President Harrison's government arranged with the Hawaiian commissioners a treaty of annexation, which was submitted to the Senate; but the close of the administration was at hand, and the matter was left for a new Congress and President. Almost immediately President Cleveland withdrew the treaty, and despatched Mr. Blount as commissioner to the islands, with "paramount" authority, to report upon the course of events. He withdrew the protectorate established by Mr. Stevens (now recalled), and remained in Hawaii until August. In September, Albert S. Willis, of Kentucky, was appointed minister to the islands. Public attention, which had been somewhat diverted from Hawaiian affairs, was recalled to them by the publication, November 10, of Secretary Gresham's report, in which he dwelt upon the proof of a conspiracy which had overturned the queen's government in January. This report was followed, Nov. 21, 1893, by Commissioner Blount's report, which displayed the results of his investigations in Hawaii, and had served as the basis for President Cleveland's policy. This policy, as announced by message to Congress on December 18, op-

posed the annexation programme, and contemplated the restoration of the queen, inasmuch as a wrong had been committed towards her, so it was claimed, by the connivance of the United States. The restoration programme was variously received throughout the country. Meanwhile, in Honolulu, Minister Willis had in November attempted to extract from the queen a promise of amnesty for members of the Provisional Government, but failed. A few weeks later he succeeded, and on December 19 laid before the Provisional Government President Cleveland's desire for its abdication and restoration of the monarchy, coupled with the queen's offer of pardon. This proposal was a few days later rejected by Mr. Dole for the Provisional Government. These proceedings became known in the middle of January, 1894, and on January 13 President Cleveland transmitted the documents to Congress. Mr. Dole was not interfered with, and affairs in the islands quieted down at once. In 1897, when President Cleveland's term expired, commissioners from the islands arrived in Washington to again urge a treaty of annexation. President McKinley was favorable to the plan, and on June 16, 1897, the treaty of annexation was signed by Secretary of State Sherman for the United States, and Commissioners Hatch, Thurston, and Kenney for the islands. The treaty gives the islands to the United States. They are to be governed as a territory. The United States is to assume the debt of the islands to an amount not to exceed \$4,000,000. The treaty must be ratified by the Senate, and its fate in that body is in doubt, although there seems to be a majority favoring the treaty. Its opponents point to the small number of Americans on the islands as compared to other races. They claim that the islands are too far from the Pacific coast to have value as fortifications, and charge that the whole plan is engineered by the Sugar Trust (see *Trusts*), which wishes to make sure that there will be no duty on the product of the islands.

Hendricks, THOMAS ANDREWS, Vice-President of the United States, was born in Muskingum, O., Sept. 7, 1819; died Nov. 25, 1885. In 1822 his father settled in Indiana, where Thomas was educated at South Hanover College, and became a lawyer. He was an active member of the State Constitutional Convention of 1850, and was a member of Congress from the Indianapolis district from 1851 to 1855. He was Democratic United States Senator from 1863 to 1869, and was chosen Governor of Indiana for four years in 1872, and Vice-President of the United States on the ticket with Mr. Cleveland in 1884. He had second place with Tilden in 1876.

History in the United States. Many things combine to show the great increase in the study of American history within the last few years. The subject is taught more extensively and intelligently than in the past—in the schools, colleges, and institutes. Several universities publish regularly contributions to history in the shape of monographs by members and others;

among these may be mentioned the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, while other studies are issued under the auspices of Harvard, Columbia, etc. Not a few works of importance first see the light in the pages of the magazines; the number of periodicals in which history has the foremost or paramount place is large; such are the *Review of Reviews*, *Magazine of American History*, *Yale Review*, *Political Science Quarterly*, *Pennsylvania Magazine*, while such reviews as the *Forum* and *North American Review* devote much attention to history in the process of formation. Popular interest in the matter is also shown by an increased attention to the preservation of historical landmarks and by visits to famous localities.

Of elaborate works on American history, the great monument of Bancroft has been revised. Parkman filled in the gap in his department with his *Half Century of Conflict*. The co-operative method was adopted on a large scale in the *Narrative and Critical History*, edited by Justin Winsor. The extended works of Henry Adams, Schouler, and McMaster covered in part the same ground—the early history under the Constitution. Fiske has written studies of certain epochs like the *Discovery of America*, *Revolution*, and *Critical Period*. The history of the country by a series of connected volumes, each volume by a specialist on his period, has been attempted; of the works of these series Hart's

Formation of the Union, and Woodrow Wilson's *Division and Reunion* may serve as types. The series idea is carried out in the *American Statesmen and Makers of America* series, where, as in such studies as Hamilton, Jefferson, and Henry Clay, history and biography have been happily blended. Of biographies, more or less historical in character, the number is endless, and many of the chief actors in the Civil War have told their own stories. That Americans appreciate also the really informing views of outsiders on their history and institutions is shown by the repeated editions of Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, and Goldwin Smith's recent sketch of United States history.

Hobart, GARRET AUGUSTUS. Elected Vice-President of the United States in 1896. He was born in 1844, at Long Branch, N. J. After being graduated from the village academy Hobart entered Rutgers College in 1859, and completed a four years' course. In 1863 he taught school for a time in Paterson, but soon entered the law office of Socrates Tuttle, of that place. In 1866 he was admitted to the bar, and took up his practice in Paterson. In 1869 he married Miss Jennie Tuttle. They have one son living. At the age of thirty Mr. Hobart was elected to the State Legislature, and was Speaker of the House, and three years after he was elected to the Senate, and during two terms was its president. His nomination as the Republican candidate for Vice-President was unsought and unexpected.

I.

Immigration into the United States. The total number of immigrants to the United States during the years 1821–1896 was 18,200,150. The whole number of immigrants for the year ending June 30, 1896, were 343,267. This is less, with the exception of 1895, than in any year since 1879. Of those arriving in 1896, there were 91,262 laborers, 29,251 farmers, 38,926 servants, 5681 carpenters, 5021 tailors, 4021 shoemakers, 1393 blacksmiths, 40,000 skilled laborers, and the rest scattered.

On the 4th of March, 1891, Congress passed an act providing for the appointment of a National Superintendent of Immigration. One of the duties of this superintendent is to conduct, through his assistants, a careful inspection of all the immigrants arriving at the different ports of entry in the United States. Should any be considered unfit to enter, they are to be returned on the steamer which brought them, and at the expense of the steamship company. The classes of persons to be refused admission into this country are as follows: All paupers or persons likely to become a public charge, idiots, insane persons, persons suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, persons who have been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime, polygamists, and Chinese laborers. The object of this law was not to put an end to immigration, but to close the gates of the United States against a horde of criminals, paupers, and other objectionable persons of

whom their own countries would be only too glad to be rid. The custom had become established among the officers by 1897 to require each male immigrant to have \$50 in money on his arrival, and the women to come accompanied by a relative or to have some one in this country who would guarantee that the woman would not become a public charge.

Indian Affairs, BUREAU OF. The Bureau of Indian Affairs is a division of the Department of the Interior. It is under the superintendence of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, in whose charge the several tribes of Indians in the states and territories are placed. The Commissioner has control of all agents, special agents, and traders, to whom he issues instructions and from whom he requires reports. He also superintends the purchase, transportation, and distribution of presents and annuities, and reports annually the relations of the government with each tribe. (See *Indians, Present Condition*, p. 683.)

Itata, AFFAIR OF THE. (See *Chili*.)

Italy. The relations of the United States with Italy, as with other Continental countries, have usually been harmonious. In 1891, however, an incident occurred which temporarily strained the mutual good feelings. Several murders had been committed in New Orleans, which had been attributed by many to the influence of a secret Italian society—the *Mafia*.

A number of Italians had been arrested, but the normal procedure seemed to numerous inhabitants of New Orleans entirely inadequate. On March 14, 1891, eleven Italian prisoners were lynched in the city prison by an assemblage largely composed, so it was stated, of the "leading citizens" of New Orleans. This event created intense excitement. The Italians in this

country and Italy were greatly aroused. The comments of Americans varied from downright condemnation of the proceedings to partial praise. The government of the Quirinal recalled its minister, Baron Fava. Eventually, April 12, 1892, the United States government appropriated \$25,000 for the families of the victims, and diplomatic relations were resumed.

J.

Jefferson, JOSEPH. The most celebrated American actor living in 1897. He was born in Philadelphia Feb. 20, 1829. He is the fourth of his family, and the third of his name on the stage. He was born in a theatre and played a child's part when but three years of age. In 1856 he began to attract attention, and at the same time he managed several theatres in the South and Middle West. In 1858 he made a great hit in the play "Our American Cousin." His two favorite parts are "Rip Van Winkle," and "Bob Acres" in *The Rivals*. Jefferson is a comedian to the tips of his fingers. He has played in England and Australia with the same success as in America.

In 1893 he published a book, largely biographical.

Johnston, ALEXANDER, an American historian, was born in Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1849, and died in Princeton, N. J., in 1889. He graduated at Rutgers College, studied law, and became a few years later Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy in Princeton University. His contributions to American history were valuable. They include a *History of American Politics*, histories of Connecticut and the United States, the political articles in Labor's *Cyclopaedia of Political Science*, and the political sketch under the article "United States" in the last edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*.

K.

Knights of Labor, a name assumed by a labor league having a membership in all parts of the United States and in Canada, with an executive head styled "General Master Workman." Subservient to the central authority are numerous local organizations. The order claims the right and exercises the power of regulating the con-

ditions of labor between employers and the employed, having officers called "Walking Delegates," who enter industrial establishments and order men and women to quit work, unless the conditions between them and their employers are satisfactory to the order. (See *Labor Organizations in the United States*.)

L.

Labor Organizations in the United States. Organizations of laboring men for mutual protection and the advancement of their common interests are by no means new or peculiar to this country. Tradesmen's guilds and societies were common in London several centuries ago; but it was not until 1870 that such organizations began to be formidable and to have a national influence. The first trades-union in this country was established by the tailors in 1803. The first local union of printers was organized in 1831. The first organized movement against the employment of convict labor was made in a convention of mechanics in Utica, N. Y., in 1834. In 1845 the first Industrial Congress had a meeting in New York. From that time the progress of the labor movement, although at first imperceptibly slow, was assured. In 1869 a secret association of working-men, known as the Knights of Labor, was organized at Philadelphia. Within a few years this association had its branches in every state of the Union, and enrolled many thousands of members. Many efforts were made at different times to effect a political organization of working-men, but owing to dissensions and differences of opinion among

those engaged in these movements, but little was accomplished save indirectly through the influence brought to bear upon the great political parties already in power. In 1884 a Bureau of Labor was established at Washington by act of Congress. In 1888 a Department of Labor was created, to which the Bureau of Labor, with its officers and duties, was transferred. This department is under the control of a Commissioner of Labor, whose duty it is "to acquire and diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with labor, in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word, and especially upon its relation to capital; the hours of labor; the earnings of laboring men and women; and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual, and moral prosperity." He is also especially charged, in accordance with the general design and duties prescribed by the law, "at as early a date as possible, and whenever industrial changes shall make it essential, to ascertain the cost of producing articles, at the time dutiable in the United States, in leading countries where such articles are produced, by fully specified units of production, and under a classification

showing the different elements of cost of such articles of production, including wages paid in such industries," etc. The first Commissioner of Labor appointed under this act was Carroll D. Wright. Besides the National Department of Labor, there are Bureaus of Statistics and Labor in twenty-four states, the principal objects of which are to collect and disseminate information on all matters of practical interest and value both to employers and employed. In 1886 most of the trades-unions in the United States, through their representatives in a convention at Columbus, O., united in a national organization called the American Federation of Labor. In 1897 this organization comprised 7100 local unions, with a total membership of 650,000, and embraced more than seventy different trades.

At the same time the Knights of Labor claimed a membership of 200,000. These labor organizations have been instrumental in securing much legislation favorable to working-men. In seventeen states laws have been made fixing eight hours as the time of a day's labor. No man working for the United States can be compelled to work more than eight hours a day. Fourteen states have laws against the black-listing of men by employers. The unsuccessful strike of the American Railway Union at Chicago (see *Strike*) was a heavy blow to all labor organizations, but now (1897) they seem to have fully rallied, and to be actively at work securing recognition for the "nobility of labor."

Leland Stanford, Junior, University. This, the most generously endowed institution in the world, was opened for the reception of students in 1891. It is situated at Palo Alto, a short distance south of San Francisco, and was founded by Senator Leland Stanford as a memorial to his son, Leland Stanford, Jr. The property which Senator Stanford set apart for its maintenance was valued at \$20,000,000. The buildings were constructed without regard to their cost, and are nowhere surpassed in beauty and fitness. Many of them are of yellow sandstone, and the Moorish style of architecture has been followed in their construction. The courses of instruction embrace almost every department of study imaginable, and provide a complete system of education from the kindergarten to the post-graduate course. There are not only schools of agriculture, machine-shops, and laboratories for the study of the applied sciences, but there are colleges of art, of law, of medicine, and of music. The first president of the institution was Dr. David S. Jordan, formerly president of the State University of Indiana.

Li Hung-Chang. One of the events of 1896 was the visit of the Chinese viceroy Li Hung-Chang to this country. It was mysteriously hinted that his visit meant a great deal in the way of new trade relations with China, but nothing has as yet developed. The viceroy is a strange figure in history. He was born in 1822, and when twenty years old passed the highest examination among 40,000 Chinese students at the imperial examinations. He was then made

a noble, and gained great renown for putting down the Tai-Ping rebellion in 1851, during which it is estimated that 20,000,000 Chinese were killed. For this he was given the Peacock Feather and the Yellow Jacket. During the recent war with Japan he came into disgrace, but was restored to favor before he made his visit to this country. Earl Li was a great friend of General Grant, whom he met when the Union commander was on his trip around the world.

Liberty Enlightening the World, STAUTE OF. Soon after the establishment of the Republic in France, in 1870, a movement was inaugurated in that country for the presentation to the United States of some suitable memorial to testify to the fraternal feeling existing between the two countries. In 1874 an association, known as the French-American Union, was formed for the furtherance of this object, and most of the foremost men of France lent it their aid. It was decided to present to the United States a colossal statue of Liberty enlightening the world, and more than 1,000,000 francs were raised by popular subscription for that purpose. Of the various models submitted to the committee having the matter in charge, that of Frédéric August Bartholdi was selected as the best, and the statue was constructed by him. It is the largest statue ever made. On the 4th of July, 1880, it was formally delivered to the United States through its representative, the American minister at Paris. Bedlow's Island, in New York harbor, but lying within the boundaries of New Jersey, was selected by the government as a suitable place for its erection, and \$300,000 was raised by means of subscriptions, concerts, etc., to build a pedestal for it to rest upon. On the 28th of October, 1886, the statue was unveiled in the presence of distinguished representatives of France and the United States, and was formally dedicated with imposing ceremonies. It is a figure in bronze, representing the Goddess of Liberty holding aloft a torch with which she enlightens the world. The height of the statue from the base to the torch is 151 feet 1 inch. From the foundation of the pedestal to the torch it is 305 feet 6 inches. The figure weighs 450,000 pounds, or 225 tons, and contains 100 tons of bronze. Forty persons can stand comfortably in the head, and the torch will hold twelve people.

Lossing, BENSON J., was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., in 1813, and died in 1891. Self-educated, a watch-maker, editor, and wood-engraver, he devoted his attention to the pictorial side of history, especially to the antiquities of his own region, the Hudson Valley. Mr. Lossing's chief work was the *Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution*, published in 1850-52. He wrote also *Pictorial Field-Books of the war of 1812 and the Civil War*, an illustrated book on the Hudson, histories of the United States, historical biographies, and the present *Cyclopædia of American History*. His great service was the preservation of the "local color" in many noted episodes of the early history.

M.

Mayflower Log Returned. The Mayflower Society of Massachusetts, through Ambassador Bayard, petitioned the British government for the return to this country of the log of the ship *Mayflower*, upon which the Pilgrims sailed for this country in 1620. Queen Victoria favored the society's request, and the relic was returned to this country in June, 1897, and given into the keeping of the governor of Massachusetts.

McCloskey, JOHN, cardinal, born in Brooklyn, N. Y., March 20, 1810. He graduated at St. Mary's College, in Maryland, in 1827, when he was seventeen years of age, prepared for the ministry, and was ordained a priest in 1834. He was chosen the first president of St. John's College, at Fordham, and at the age of thirty-four was consecrated coadjutor to Bishop Hughes, whom he succeeded at the latter's death in 1864. On March 15, 1875, Archbishop McCloskey was elevated to the high dignity of cardinal, the first ever created for America. He exercised the office with great dignity, and died Oct. 10, 1885.

McKinley, WILLIAM, twenty-fifth President of the United States, was born in Niles, O., Jan. 29, 1848. He moved to Poland, O., when very young, and was educated at the Poland Academy. When sixteen years old he went to the Allegheny College at Meadville, Pa., and leaving there when eighteen years old, he taught a district school in Ohio for a time at \$25 a month. He answered the first call for troops, and in June, 1861, enlisted in the Twenty-third Ohio Infantry. Each of his promotions in the army was for "bravery on the field," and he was successively sergeant, second and first lieutenant, captain, and at the close of the war he was given a brevet as major. He was then twenty-two years old, and he began the study of law in the office of Judge C. E. Glidden, at Poland. He attended the law school at Albany for a year and a half, and was admitted to the bar at Canton, O., 1867. He took naturally to politics, and was, in 1869, elected prosecuting attorney. During the next few years he became noted as a platform speaker. In 1876 he was sent to Congress and served seven terms. His fourth election was contested and his democratic opponent seated. In 1890 his name became known throughout the nation in connection with a high-tariff bill. The same year he was defeated for Congress, but in 1891 was elected Governor of Ohio. He was re-elected in 1893 by a majority of 80,000. He became known as the foremost exponent of protection, and in 1888 and 1892 his name was presented as a candidate for the presidency to the Republican National convention. In 1896 he became the party candidate, and was elected by an overwhelming popular and electoral majority. His private life is stainless. When twenty-six years old he was married to Miss Ida Saxton. They had two children, both of whom died young. In 1893 he indorsed a note for an old friend in Poland, who defaulted payment. Mr.

McKinley gave all his property into the hands of trustees to settle the obligation and his home was saved for him.

The campaign which resulted in the election of Mr. McKinley was a memorable one. For several previous campaigns the leading issue had been the tariff. It was generally thought that it would be so in 1896, but when the Republican convention met at St. Louis on June 16, 1896, it was found that the money question was paramount. When the committee on resolutions reported in favor of maintaining the gold standard of currency until international bimetalism could be secured, Senator Teller, a delegate from Colorado, led a bolt of the silver delegates, and twenty-two of them, representing five Western states, left the convention. After their withdrawal William McKinley and Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey, were selected to head the national ticket.

The Democratic convention was held in Chicago July 7-11. In spite of the protests of Eastern Democrats, a platform was adopted declaring for the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, who made a thrilling address to the delegates, closing with the words: "We shall answer to their demand for a gold standard by saying to them, you shall not press down upon the brow of labor this thorn of crowns, you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold," was selected as candidate for President, and Arthur B. Sewall, of Maine, for Vice-President.

The Peoples party or Populist convention was held in St. Louis July 22-25. Bryan was indorsed for President, but Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, was nominated for Vice-President, the Populists believing that Sewall would withdraw in his favor, in view of their indorsement of Bryan. Sewall did not withdraw, and the anger this caused did much to offset the fusion on the head of the ticket. A so-called silver convention met in St. Louis at the same time as the Populist convention, and indorsed Bryan and Sewall.

When the Democratic delegates from the east returned, many of them openly repudiated the silver platform and announced their intention of voting for McKinley. Gradually, however, here began a movement for the formation of a new party, and on September 2, there met in Indianapolis a convention of "Gold Democrats." This convention nominated Gen. J. M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and Gen. S. B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The convention declared for the single gold standard.

With affairs in this condition the election resolved itself into a struggle between the East and the West. Throughout the East party lines were forgotten, and New York city, formerly a democratic stronghold, became a hot-bed of Republicanism, the sound-money parade in that city during September being a sight not easily to be forgotten. Two leading features of the cam-

paign were the speech-making tour of Candidate Bryan and the speeches made by Candidate McKinley to thousands of people who went to Canton to visit him. Bryan made over 475 addresses in twenty-nine states, while McKinley addressed over 150,000 excursionists.

McKinley received 271 electoral votes out of 447, and his popular plurality was over 700,000. The victory was regarded rather as a triumph over the theory of free-silver coinage than as a partisan success.

McKinley Tariff. (See *Tariffs, United States*.)

McMaster, JOHN BACH, an American historian, was born in Brooklyn in 1852, and educated in New York. For a number of years he has filled the chair of American history in the University of Pennsylvania. His chief work is a *History of the People of the United States*, three volumes, which traverses in part the same period as the works of Schouler and Henry Adams. McMaster, as the name of his history implies, lays especial stress on the social phenomena of the time.

Merchant Marine. At the close of the war of 1812, the United States was noted throughout the world for the excellence of its sailing-vessels. As the use of steamships increased, however, this supremacy was lost, and in 1870, when iron and steel vessels began to be needed, the ship-building industry in this country had almost vanished. In 1890 almost the entire carrying trade of American ports was done in British bottoms. Realizing that this was a serious condition, Congress in 1892 passed several acts for the encouragement of American ship-builders, and admitted to American registry two Inman Line steamers on condition that the owners should build at least two vessels of equal tonnage in American yards. On Nov. 12, 1894, the *St. Louis*, the first fruit of this law, was launched at Philadelphia. The vessel was wholly American in build and material, and was the second largest merchant vessel afloat. The *St. Paul*, a sister ship, was launched in the spring of 1895. There are eight steamers now in the American line, and their success is believed to mark a new era in American ship-building.

Mills, ROGER QUARLES, was born in 1832. He became a lawyer in Corsicana, Texas, and entered the lower house of Congress in 1873 as a Democrat. Having given especial attention to revenue questions, he was appointed, in the Congress of 1887-89, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, and reported in 1888 the so-called "Mills Bill." This measure, prepared in

the direction of tariff reform, passed the Democratic House and was defeated in the Republican Senate. Mr. Mills was defeated by Crisp in the contest for Speaker in 1891, and exchanged the House of Representatives for the Senate in 1892.

Mora Claim. This claim was the subject of diplomatic correspondence between the United States and Spain for nearly thirty years. Antonio Mora, an American citizen living in Cuba, was accused in 1869 of aiding the insurgents, and was put in prison for a year and his estate forfeited. This government made its first protest in Mora's behalf in 1870, but the claim was not settled until Sept. 14, 1895, when Spain paid the United States, for Mora, \$1,449,000. It was generally believed at the time that Spain paid this claim in order to quiet public opinion in this country, which was running high over reported outrages committed by the Spanish soldiers upon Cubans.

Morton, LEVI PARSONS, was born at Shoreham, Vt., May 16, 1824. He entered business life at an early age, and eventually settled in New York city, where he founded a banking-house in 1863. Besides attaining wealth as a banker, he had taken interest in politics, and was a Republican Congressman from New York from 1879 to 1881. In the latter year he accepted from President Garfield the position of Minister to France; he remained in that post until 1885, exerting his influence, among other things, to secure the entrance into France of American pork products. The nomination of Harrison for President in 1888 naturally called for the selection of a New-Yorker for the second place on the ticket. Mr. Morton received the nomination, was elected, and served from 1889 to 1893. In the fall of 1894 he was elected Governor of New York.

Mugwumps. The Republicans who in the summer of 1884 bolted the nomination of Blaine for President, and supported Cleveland. Their objections to the Republican candidate were founded partly on his conduct of foreign affairs when Secretary of State, and partly on the charges made against his character. The Mugwumps were especially numerous in New England and New York, and in the latter state they contributed signally to the Democratic victory. Afterwards many of them continued to act with the Democracy, or with the "Cleveland Democracy"; others returned to the Republicans. The term soon became applied to all independent voters.

N.

Naval Militia. This adjunct to the United States Navy was first organized in New York in 1895. By July, 1897, the militia had been organized in fifteen states bordering on the coast and Great Lakes. The duty of the naval militia in time of war will be to man the coast and harbor defence vessels, leaving the regular force for offensive work. The naval militia will also

operate in boat squadrons with torpedoes against any hostile fleet in our waters. The total enlisted force in 1897 was 3339 men. The militia is under the charge of the first-assistant secretary of the navy.

Navy of the United States, THE NEW. In 1891 the navy of the United States still contained several war-ships of the old style—all of

them practically useless. Of these there were seven steel and iron vessels, and one torpedo-boat—all propelled by steam; twenty-six wooden steam-vessels, three of which were used as receiving-ships; twelve steam-tugs, some wooden, some iron; one wooden sailing practice-vessel; two wooden sailing-vessels used as school-ships; one wooden sailing store-ship, and six wooden receiving-ships. The ordnance on all these vessels was antiquated, being chiefly old muzzle-loading guns. There are eleven navy-yards and stations—at Portsmouth, Boston, Brooklyn, New London, Washington, League Island, Norfolk, Pensacola, Port Royal, Puget Sound, and Mare Island. Brooklyn, Mare Island, Norfolk, and Portsmouth contain construction-yards, and Washington has a gun-factory for long-distance heavy cannon. The new navy was begun in 1883, but it was not until some years later that the vessels were completed and ready for duty. In 1891 there were sixteen of these vessels, which had been finished at a total cost of \$19,774,762. There were also, at that time, twenty-three other vessels in process of construction, the estimated cost of which would be \$49,881,974. All these new war-ships were built wholly of steel or iron, and have been aptly described as the most complicated machines of modern times. The ships of the old navy bore but little likeness to them, and could no longer be regarded even as nominal factors in naval warfare. The most important of the new vessels are the coast-line battle-ships, the *Indiana*, the *Massachusetts*, and the *Ohio*, the building of which was authorized by Congress in 1890. Each of these ships has a tonnage of 10,200, and its cost was estimated at over \$5,521,000. They are intended for purely offensive and defensive purposes. Their most characteristic feature is in their main batteries, which are designed to throw at a single discharge a weight of projectiles of 6800 pounds, or over 3 tons; and the energy of the projectile from the 13-inch gun is sufficient to perforate 22 inches of steel at a distance of a mile. Their secondary batteries, comprising sixteen 6-pounders and four 1-pounders, discharge 330 projectiles per minute. In addition to her guns, each ship has torpedo tubes so arranged as to give an all-round fire for the discharge of 18-inch torpedoes, each of which is charged with 250 pounds of a powerful explosive. The second class of war-ships includes those which may properly be called "commerce-destroyers." The *New York*, which belongs to this class, was completed in 1891. It is a powerful vessel of 8150 tons, and cost \$4,038,000. Besides being completely armored and protected, it has a large coal capacity, and its speed is such that it can easily overtake 75 per cent. of the swiftest vessels afloat. A peculiar type of the commerce-destroyer is represented by the vessel known as *Cruiser No. 12*, the building of which was begun in 1890. This is a triple-screw steamer of 7350 tons, with a full armament and ample protection against ordinary guns, costing \$3,104,355. Her capacity for coal is such that she might make a voyage around the world without stopping to replenish

her supply. Another class of war-ships is represented by the dynamite cruiser *Vesuvius*, a small vessel of 725 tons, completed in 1890 at a cost of \$325,575. The projectiles, charged with dynamite, are thrown by means of compressed air from pneumatic tubes, which have a fixed position in the vessel. This method of naval warfare was introduced chiefly as an experiment, and has not generally been regarded with favor. Two other classes of vessels in the new navy include respectively the gunboats, for use in inland waters, and the torpedo cruisers. The latter are adapted for either sea or river service, and combine lightness, speed, an equipment of rapid-fire guns, and a powerful torpedo armament. They are adapted for use as commerce-destroyers, blockade-runners, or auxiliaries of the larger battle-ships.

Upon the death of Admiral David D. Porter, in 1891, the rank of admiral of the navy ceased to exist.

Cruiser No. 12 (Columbia), launched 1892; attained on a trial trip in 1893 the extraordinary speed of about 25 knots an hour. The powerful commerce-destroyer *Minneapolis* was launched in 1893; she has a tonnage of 7350. During 1894-97 two first-class battle-ships—the *Kearsarge* and the *Kentucky*—were launched. Eight armored gunboats were begun during the same period, also six torpedo-boats and ten submarine torpedo-boats. This latter class of vessels have passed beyond the experimental stage, and their use promises to make naval warfare in the future an entirely new science. There are now (1897) fifty-eight vessels in commission in the new navy, and sixteen ships are in the course of construction. There are over 16,000 officers and men in the United States Navy which is now counted as fifth in strength in the world.

Nicaragua Ship-canal. In the article on the Darien Ship-canal it will be observed that a canal across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec from Lake Nicaragua had been reported perfectly feasible by United States engineers, who had made surveys, and that the whole matter was referred to a committee in 1872 to "continue investigation." Such investigations were carried on successfully for several years, chiefly under the direction of A. G. Menocal, of the corps of engineers, who spent most of the time in Nicaragua. In May, 1887, the government of Nicaragua granted liberal concessions for the construction of an interoceanic canal by a private American company. A dispute between Nicaragua and Costa Rica, which had long been an impediment, was finally settled, and the company were encouraged to prosecute the work with vigor. It is estimated that the canal, forty miles in length, can be built for from \$60,000,000 to \$75,000,000, and be ready for use in six years. The region is healthy and beautiful. The proposition that the United States government should guarantee the construction of the canal, and become a stockholder in the company, passed the Senate Jan. 25, 1895, but was never passed upon by the House, thus killing the scheme. The canal company made a report

to this government in December, 1895, stating that active work had ceased but that engineers were engaged in studying the Ochoa rock dam, which is the key-stone of the whole work, and that two years would probably pass before the engineers would report.

No Man's Land. When Texas was annexed to the United States, in 1845, its boundaries extended nearly 35 miles farther north than the parallel $36^{\circ} 30'$. By the conditions of the act known as the Missouri Compromise slavery was forbidden to exist in all new states north of that parallel, and hence that portion of Texas could not be admitted as part of a slave state.

Texas accordingly ceded it to the United States government—it being a strip of land $34\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide and $167\frac{1}{2}$ miles long. Although represented on the maps as a portion of Indian Territory, this tract of land was for more than forty years outside the jurisdiction of the courts, infested by desperadoes and refugees from justice—a veritable “no man's land”—in which no form of government existed. In 1886, however, there were 12,000 inhabitants, and an effort was made to organize it into the Territory of Cimarron, but without success. In 1890 it became a part of the Territory of Oklahoma. It embraces about 3,700,000.

O.

Oklahoma. During the Civil War many of the Indians belonging to the five civilized nations of Indian Territory espoused the cause of the Confederacy and took up arms against the United States. At the close of the war the government declared that by these acts of hostility the grants and patents by which the tribes held their extensive domains had become invalid, and a readjustment of the treaty acts under which these grants had been made was ordered. By the conditions of this new adjustment the Indians were permitted to sell to the United States a vast tract of unused lands in the central and western part of their territory. Several millions of acres were bought by the government, for the purpose of making a place of settlement for freedmen and wild Indian tribes. Included in this tract was Oklahoma, which originally consisted of about 2,000,000 acres in the centre of the territory. It remained for several years unoccupied, being closed to white immigrants because, as its former owners, the Creeks, claimed, it had been purchased for another purpose. In 1889 the government bought it a second time from the Creeks, paying a much higher price, but obtaining it without any restrictive conditions. For ten years companies of adventurers, called “boomers,” under the lead of Captain David L. Payne, had been hovering on the outskirts of the territory, and now and then stealing across the border for the purpose of making settlements on the forbidden lands. As often as they had thus trespassed, however, they were promptly driven out again by the United States troops. A proclamation was issued by the President, April 22, 1889, opening 1,900,000 acres of land for settlement. There was immediately a grand rush into the territory by the “boomers,” and by thousands of home-

seekers and speculators. In a single day the city of Guthrie, with a population of 10,000, sprang into existence, and all the valuable land was taken up. By subsequent proclamations other lands were opened, and the bounds of the territory were extended until in 1891 it embraced 39,030 square miles. A large portion of Oklahoma, however, remained under the occupancy of roving Indian tribes, who were under the control of the Indian Bureau and received regular supplies of clothing and food from the government. Among these tribes were about 500 Sacs and Foxes, nearly 400 Kickapoos, over 2000 Cheyennes, and 1200 Arapahoes. Civilization to these wild Indians seemed to offer but few attractions, and they retained their roving habits and treacherous, intractable character long after being brought into close contact with the whites.

Oklahoma when settled was a richly wooded country, except in the west, where there were extensive prairies. The climate is delightful, and the soil fertile and well adapted to agriculture. The first territorial governor was George W. Steele, of Indiana, appointed by the President in 1890. The name Oklahoma means “Beautiful Country.” Population in 1896, 181,270. The Cherokee Strip or Outlet towards Kansas was acquired from the Cherokee nation, and on Sept. 16, 1893, it was opened to settlers. The scenes attending the opening resembled those in 1889 and 1891. Ninety thousand intending settlers registered, and 20,000, it was estimated, encamped on the site selected for the chief town. The *Strip* contains about 6,000,000 acres, part of which is good farming land. May 23, 1896, another great section of territory, called the Kickapoo Strip, was thrown open to settlers, and again there was a wild rush of home-seekers.

P.

Panama Canal. In 1887 the people of the United States and France subscribed great sums towards a French company, headed by Engineer De Lesseps, of Suez Canal fame, which announced its intention of cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Panama. The French government authorized the company to begin the

work, and subscribed \$100,000,000 to begin. Work was begun with great display, and continued until 1889. By that time the canal had been cut for about twelve miles on the first section, but on two other sections but little had been accomplished, and the workmen found themselves trying to level great mountains. In-

tense feeling was aroused over the collapse of the company. Inquiry soon developed the fact that fully half a billion dollars had been absorbed by the company, and many claimed that the actual work done was merely a blind, and that the whole scheme was a swindle. The French government ordered an investigation, and amazing proofs of bribery and fraud were discovered. De Lesseps' reputation received a great blot, and the famous engineer died Dec. 7, 1894, it is said of a broken heart.

Pan-American Conference. By act of Congress in 1888 arrangements were made for a conference at Washington between representatives of the United States and other countries in America. The conference assembled accordingly, Oct. 2, 1889, and was attended by envoys from Brazil and from Spanish America generally, as well as from this country. Secretary of State Blaine presided. The delegates made a preliminary tour through the country, and settled down to work at Washington in November. Such subjects as banking, monetary union, commercial extension, and arbitration were discussed. In April, 1890, ten of the nations signed an international arbitration treaty. Secretary Blaine, who was deeply interested in the matter and in the extension southward of United States' interests, recommended an inter-continental railway.

Pendleton, GEORGE HUNT, an American statesman, was born in Cincinnati in 1825. Devoting himself to law and politics, he became in 1857 a Democratic member of Congress from Ohio, and continued in the House until 1865. During President Cleveland's first administration (1885 to 1889), Senator Pendleton represented the United States at Berlin. He died at Brussels in 1889.

Pensions (see p. 1079). The aggregate amount of pensions paid to the surviving soldiers of the Revolutionary War amounted to \$46,082,175.97. It is estimated that 278,021 men were engaged in this war, and of these only 57,623 were awarded pensions. The last survivor pensioned under the general laws was Lemuel Cook, of Clarendon, N. Y., who died May 20, 1866, aged 102 years. (See p. 321.) Two others, John Gray, of Brookfield, O., and Daniel F. Bakeman, of Freedom, N. Y., who were pensioned by special act of Congress (\$500 per annum), died in 1869, the former aged 105, the latter 109 years. These were the last of the soldiers of the Revolution. In 1890 twenty-three widows of revolutionary soldiers were still living and drawing pensions; the last one died in 1896. By the act of Feb. 14, 1871, a pension was awarded for 60 days' service to all survivors and widows of the War of 1812. Of these there were still living in 1896 seven survivors and 3287 widows. Of the 73,260 men enlisted in the Mexican War, 1800 have been pensioned as invalids. In 1861 there were 8636 persons drawing pensions from the United States government, and the total amount disbursed to them was \$1,072,461. Thirty-five years later, in 1896, the number of pensioners had increased

to 971,117, and the amount disbursed to them was considerably more than \$139,000,000. The aggregate amount paid out for the thirty-five years was nearly \$1,900,000,000, or about \$50,000,000 annually. The United States Bureau of Pensions, which, under the direction of Congress, has entire supervision of this matter, is a division of the Department of the Interior. It is controlled by a commissioner of pensions, who superintends the examination and adjudication of all claims under the laws of the United States. He is aided by two deputy commissioners and the chief clerk of the bureau, each of whom has supervision over business arising in divisions of the bureau assigned, under order of the commissioner, to his immediate charge. For the year ending June 30, 1896, there was paid for pensions \$139,280,075, nearly \$20,000,000 less than in 1893.

People's Party. The party which in 1884 nominated General Butler for President was called the "People's party," and later the "Populist party." The organization of this name which has attracted the most attention in American history is the party formed by a fusion of agricultural and labor elements. The Farmers' Alliance may be considered its nucleus. It was organized at Cincinnati in May, 1891, and in 1892 it nominated for President General Weaver of Iowa, and Field for Vice-President. The Populists, as its adherents have been generally designated, favored in their platform the free coinage of silver, tariff reform, a graduated income-tax, the subtreasury plan, postal savings-banks, an increase of the circulating medium, government ownership and management of railroads, telegraphs, and telephones; it denounced monopolies and alien ownership of land. In the ensuing election Weaver carried twenty-two electoral votes (in the West), and polled a popular vote of 1,122,045. Several Senators and Representatives in the later Congresses have been Populists. In the Presidential election of 1896 the People's party played a prominent part. It combined with the Democratic party in nominating W. J. Bryan for President, but nominated Thomas E. Watson for Vice-President instead of the Democratic candidate, Arthur Sewall. The bitterness caused by this partly offset the effect of the fusion. No figures of the People's party or Populist vote in this election can be given because of the fusion. Watson failed to receive one electoral vote.

Poe, EDGAR ALLAN, a poet of extraordinary genius, was born at Boston, Mass., Feb. 19, 1809. His father was a lawyer, and his mother was a beautiful English actress. They both died early. Edgar was adopted by John Allan, a rich merchant, who had no children of his own. Edgar was educated partly at an academy in Richmond, Va., and at the University of Virginia. In 1829 he published a volume of his poems. His foster-father procured him a cadetship at the Military Academy at West Point. There he neglected his studies, drank to excess, and was expelled from the institution. After that young Poe's conduct seems to have been so

obnoxious to Mr. Allan that he was left unmentioned in that gentleman's will. Thrown upon his own resources, young Poe turned to literature as a means for earning a livelihood, and was successful as a writer of both prose and poetry; but his dissipated habits kept him poor. He married a charming young girl, and removed to New York in 1837. His wife died in 1848. Poe's most remarkable literary production, "The Raven," was published in 1845. At Baltimore in October, 1849, he was discovered in the streets insensible. He was taken to Philadelphia, where he died in a hospital Oct. 7, 1849.

Presidency, VACANCY OF THE, HOW FILLED (see p. 1133). The method of temporarily filling the office of President in case of the death or inability of both President and Vice-President, adopted by Congress in 1792, was not without its objectionable features, and the necessity of some kind of change in the law was very generally acknowledged. It was not until the first session of the Forty-ninth Congress, however, that such change was effected. The presidential succession was fixed by that body as follows: In case of the removal, death, resignation, or inability of both President and Vice-President, then the Secretary of State shall act as President until the disability of the President or Vice-President be removed, or a President elected. If there be no Secretary of State, then the Secretary of the Treasury shall act as President.

And the succession passes in like manner to the Secretary of War, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the Navy, and the Secretary of the Interior, in the order here given. The acting President, upon taking office, convenes Congress in extraordinary session, if it is not then sitting, giving twenty days' notice. This act applies only to cabinet officers who shall have been appointed by the advice and consent of the Senate, and are eligible under the Constitution to the presidency.

Prohibitionist Party. The question of prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors was agitated in various sections of the country before a political party was formed distinctly on that issue. State legislation has at different times attempted prohibition in Maine, Kansas, Iowa, and other states. A distinctive national party was organized in 1869, and in 1872 it nominated a candidate for President. It has put a ticket in the field in all succeeding Presidential campaigns, among others St. John in 1884, Fisk in 1888, and Bidwell in 1892. It has received no electoral votes and has carried no Congressional districts, though it has polled a popular vote of several hundred thousand. Besides its characteristic plank, it has advocated in its platforms some principles held either by the Democratic or by the People's party. In 1896 there was a great falling off in the popular vote of this party.

R.

Randall, SAMUEL JACKSON, was born in Philadelphia, Oct. 10, 1828. He became an iron merchant, and was elected to the Philadelphia city council. In politics he was a Whig and afterwards a Democrat. He served as a captain in the Civil War, and in 1863 entered the national House of Representatives. This was the scene of his activity until his death. He died in Washington, April 12, 1890.

Raymond, HENRY JARVIS, an eminent journalist, was born at Lima, N. Y., Jan. 24, 1820; died of apoplexy at New York, June 18, 1869. He was graduated at the University of Vermont in 1840; studied law; became assistant editor of the New York *Tribune* at its commencement in April, 1841. He was the first editor of *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*; and in September, 1851, issued the first number of the New York *Daily Times*. In 1854 he was elected Lieutenant-governor of the State of New York, and was prominent in the organization of the Republican party in 1854-56. In 1861 he was elected a member and speaker of the New York Assembly, and was an unsuccessful candidate for the United States Senate in 1863. He was elected to Congress in 1864. He visited Europe a third time in 1868, and the next year his active career was suddenly terminated by death. He wrote a *History of the Administration of President Lincoln*.

Reciprocity. (See *Tariffs, United States*.)

Reed, THOMAS BRACKETT, was born at Portland, Me., Oct. 18, 1839, and graduated at Bow-

doin College in 1860. He studied law, served in both branches of the Maine Legislature, and from 1870 to 1873 was attorney-general of the state. Afterwards he was solicitor of the city of Portland. He entered the national House of Representatives as a Republican in 1877, and continued there uninterruptedly to 1894. He soon acquired reputation as a forceful debater, was Chairman of the Judiciary Committee, and received a complimentary nomination for Speaker. His party returned to control in the House in 1889, and Reed received the caucus nomination for Speaker over McKinley and others, and was elected. This Fifty-first Congress of 1889-91, besides passing the McKinley tariff, was noted for its code of rules ("counting a quorum"), which was adopted in February, 1890. In the succeeding Congresses ex-Speaker Reed was the leader of the Republican minority. In 1892 he was a candidate for the nomination for President. In 1896 he was the chief candidate in the convention which nominated McKinley. In 1896 Reed was re-elected to Congress and was re-elected Speaker of the House.

Reid, WHITE LAW, was born near Xenia, O., Oct. 27, 1837. Soon after graduating at Miami University in 1856, he began his connection with the press and with politics. As war correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette* he attracted attention by his graphic and accurate descriptions over the signature of *Agate*. After a short experience in cotton-planting, he began in 1868 his long association with the New York *Tribune*.

He succeeded Greeley in 1872 in the editorship, and soon became the chief owner. Though influential in party politics, he held no office until 1889, when he accepted the position of United States minister to France. Returning in 1892, he was associated with Harrison on the Republican national ticket as candidate for Vice-President.

Religion. America, being the land of religious freedom, presents a constantly increasing number of denominations or sects. In 1896 there were 23,205,901 people in the United States enrolled on various church lists. The Catholics numbered 7,501,439; the Baptists, 3,785,740; Christian Church, 109,421; Congregationalists, 580,000; Disciples of Christ, 871,017; Episcopalians, 600,746; Friends, 107,849; Jewish, 138,500; Latter-day Saints, 223,587; Lutheran, 1,327,134; Methodists, 5,121,636; Presbyterians, 1,416,204. There are 165 distinct sects in this country, each having a following of over 1000. Perhaps one of the most striking features in connection with church work of recent years is the formation of powerful young people's societies. The Baptist Young People's Union of America was organized in 1891. Yearly conventions are held, and the society now has a membership of 682,175. The Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor, a non-sectarian society, was organized in 1881. It now has branches in every country, there being in 1897 a total of 47,009 societies, with a membership of 2,800,000, the great majority being in this country. The Epworth League is a Methodist organization. It was formed in 1889, and in 1897 the league numbered 21,304 chapters, with a membership of 1,500,000.

Republican Party, LATER HISTORY OF THE. The origin and early history of the present Re-

publican party has been briefly sketched on page 1199. The party held control of the national Executive for twenty-four consecutive years, under the administrations of Presidents Lincoln, Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur. It had previous to 1885 lost control now of the Senate, now of the House of Representatives. After an interval of four years the Republicans in 1889 returned to power with full control of all departments; from the Executive they were displaced in 1893, having previously lost control of Congress. The Republicans in recent years have generally, but not universally, supported a high protective tariff and Federal supervision of elections. On other questions, like finance and civil-service reform, they have been less united. The election of 1893 appeared to indicate a reaction in their favor. In 1896 the Republican party won a great popular victory, the issue being financial. The Republican party stood for the gold standard of currency, the Democrats and Populists uniting for free silver. Besides electing a President, the House and Senate became Republican.

Russia. American relations with Russia, while not especially intimate, have been almost invariably amicable. The sympathy displayed by Russia with the American government at a critical period of the Civil War is well known; at a time when the attitude of Great Britain and France was doubtful, the appearance of Russian vessels in Northern waters was taken as an evidence of good-will. In 1867 Alaska was purchased from Russia. More recently, in the great famine prevailing in that country, American sympathy was manifested substantially by the shipment of a large quantity of grain. An extradition treaty between the two countries was negotiated, to take effect June 24, 1893.

S.

Salary Grab, THE (see p. 1244). The law passed by act of Congress, March 4, 1873, to increase the salaries of Senators and Representatives from \$5000 to \$7500 per year was long designated as the "Salary Grab." Although it was to go into force "on and after March 4, 1873," it was so worded as to include the members of Congress who passed it, and whose terms of office expired on that day. It was, therefore, so far as they were concerned, retroactive in its provisions, and gave to each of them \$15,000 instead of \$10,000 for his two years' services. The passage of the bill aroused a storm of indignation in all parts of the country, and all persons united in condemning the course of those who had supported it. Every act of Congress previously passed to increase the pay of its members had been in like manner retroactive in its operation, and had been regarded with similar but less intense disfavor. In this case, however, the feeling of popular indignation was such that the greater number of those who drew the increased salaries paid the excess back again into the United States Treasury. By act of the next

Congress, Jan. 24, 1874, the law was repealed, except in so far as it concerned the salaries of the President and of the Judges of the Supreme Court. The compensation of Senators and Representatives was, therefore, again fixed at \$5000 a year, and that of the Vice-President and of the cabinet officers at \$8000 a year; while the salary of the President remained at \$50,000, that of the Chief-Justice at \$10,500, and those of the Associate Judges at \$10,000 each. The Constitution of the United States provided that Congress shall determine the salaries of its own members. In accordance with this provision the First Congress passed an act (Sept. 24, 1789) fixing the compensation at \$6 a day while in attendance, and \$6 for each twenty miles of travel in going and coming. The Speaker of the House was to have \$12 a day. In 1866, the compensation of Senators and Representatives was increased to \$5000 a year, and mileage at the rate of 20 cents a mile going to and returning from each session. The pay of the Speaker was made \$8000 a year, the same as that of the Vice-President. The only country

in which the members of the legislative assembly receive neither salary nor perquisites is Great Britain.

Samoa, Samoan Islands, or Navigator's Islands. A group of fourteen islands in the South Pacific Ocean, including Upolu (with Apia, the capital), Savaii, and Tutuila. The islands are mountainous, and export chiefly copra, cotton, and coffee. The area is 1701 square miles, and the inhabitants—mainly native Samoans—number about 36,000. The group forms a monarchy, ruled by King Malietoa.

In 1873 a House of Nobles and a House of Representatives were established in Samoa. Two kings, Malietoa and Tupua, ruled jointly. The interests of the three nations—Great Britain, Germany, and the United States—had become important in the islands, and in 1879 a convention of representatives from these powers met and decided to intrust the administration of Apia to the consuls. Pango-Pango, with its fine harbor, had been the year before secured by treaty for the United States. There was considerable friction among the three powers and the natives; Apia was controlled by the Germans; and in 1887 Tamasese, a German protégé, claimed the throne. A civil war broke out in 1888; and Mataafa, a relative of Malietoa, was victorious over Tamasese. The disturbed condition of affairs led to a conference at Berlin between the three interested powers; the Bismarcks represented Germany, Malet Great Britain, and President Harrison appointed John A. Kasson, W. W. Phelps, and G. H. Bates as the American negotiators. Meanwhile an event of great interest occurred in the islands; they were visited March 15, 1889, by a terrific hurricane, in which the German ships *Adler* and *Eber* and the American *Nipsic*, *Vandalia*, and *Trenton* suffered; the British *Calliope* escaped from the exposed haven into the open sea, and hundreds of the distressed American seamen, helpless themselves, cheered the British sailors as they passed. This display of good feeling contributed not a little to the sentiment of comity between the nations.

At Berlin the conference, June 14, 1889, signed an act by which the islands were to be neutral, with equal rights for the citizens of the three nations; Malietoa was restored; and a court was provided for the settlement of various cases in which natives and foreigners should be involved.

Sault de Ste. Marie Ship-canal. Saint Mary's Strait or River, connecting Lakes Superior and Huron, is sixty-three miles in length, and but for the St. Mary's Falls, or Sault de Ste. Marie, would be navigable throughout its course for the largest vessels. These falls, or more properly rapids, are about a mile from Lake Superior, and have within the space of three-quarters of a mile a fall of about twenty feet. Until the construction of a canal around them, they completely prevented the passage of vessels from one lake to the other. On the 19th of May, 1855, the first ship-canal was opened, having been constructed at great expense by the

State of Michigan. This canal was afterwards transferred to the United States, and in 1881 the government opened another but larger one, parallel with it. The lock in the latter is the largest in the world. It is 515 feet long, 80 feet wide, and has a lift of 20 feet. It can be filled in fifteen minutes, and is roomy enough to admit two of the largest lake steamers at a time. It is built of granite, is furnished with every improved mechanism, and cost \$1,000,000. In 1888 the number of vessels passing through the canal was 7803—with a tonnage of over 5,000,000, and a freight tonnage of nearly 6,500,000. The value of the cargoes was estimated at \$80,000,000. Besides other merchandise, the products carried over this waterway included annually 25,000,000 bushels of wheat, 165,000,000 feet of lumber, and 2,500,000 tons of iron. The famous Suez Canal did not do so great a business. On recognition of the increased commerce of the lakes Congress passed an act for the construction of another and still larger lock, to cost \$4,000,000.

Schouler, JAMES, an American historian, was born in 1839, and graduated at Harvard. He studied law, entered on its practice, and has lectured in law schools and written several legal treatises. He is best known, however, for his *History of the United States under the Constitution*, in five volumes (to the outbreak of the Civil War). To the *Makers of America* series he recently contributed a biography of Jefferson.

Seymour, HORATIO. One of the most eminent and notable of the later governors of the State of New York, was born at Pompey, N. Y., May 31, 1816. He received an academic and partially military education, and fitted himself for the profession of law, but never practised it, having inherited an ample estate. In early life he became enamoured of politics, having served six years (1833–39) on the staff of Governor Marcy. He was elected a member of the Assembly in 1841; held the position by re-election four years, and was chosen Speaker in 1845. He had filled the office of mayor of Utica in 1842. In 1852 he was chosen governor of his state. He was again elected governor in 1862. He died at Utica Feb. 12, 1886.

Silver Legislation. The silver bill, which was adopted by act of Congress and approved July 14, 1890, provided that silver bullion to the amount of 4,500,000 ounces might be purchased monthly, or as much thereof as should be offered, and that silver notes should be issued on deposit of silver bullion, the same to be redeemed, upon demand, in gold or silver coin at the discretion of the secretary. The bill also declared it to be the settled policy of the United States to maintain a parity between the two metals, gold and silver, at such ratio as the law shall determine; and it required the monthly coinage into dollars of 2,000,000 ounces of the bullion purchased until July 1, 1891.

The purchasing clause of the silver bill of 1890 was repealed in 1893. The Republican party pledged itself to secure international recognition of silver if possible, and on that issue

won the general election of 1896. In the fall of 1897 Congress was expected to take action appointing commissioners to visit European countries, with power to act. Several commissioners were sent by the President during the early part of 1897, but none of these had power to do more than examine into financial conditions abroad and report. (See *Finances*, in the *Supplement*, and the *Silver Dollar*, p. 1295.)

Sioux Outbreak, THE. The advancement made by the Christian or progressive portion of the Sioux Indians in South Dakota had long been regarded with disfavor by the pagan and conservative element under the leadership of Sitting Bull, Red Cloud, and Kicking Bear, and the latter eagerly waited for some pretext to bring the question of civilization or non-civilization to a decisive issue. In 1890 there was a failure on the part of the government to meet promptly some of its obligations to the Sioux, especially in the payment of annuities and of moneys due to the Indians for certain lands which they had sold. The crops, too, had failed; Congress had cut down the supplies; and there was naturally a feeling of dissatisfaction among the half-famished Indians. Inefficient agents also had been sent out by the government who had little regard for anything save their own personal gain, and not much was done by them to allay the general discontent. All these circumstances combined to favor the designs of Sitting Bull and his associates. A wide-spread conspiracy was formed, and plans were made for a general uprising in the spring. In September a Shoshone Indian, a medicine man, began to predict the coming of an Indian Messiah. The Great Manitou had taken pity upon his suffering children. The Messiah would roll thirty feet of soil, timbered and sodded, upon their white oppressors, and all who escaped being smothered thereby would become buffaloes and catfish. But all the dead Indians would be restored to life; their hunting-grounds would be as in former days; herds of buffaloes and wild horses would again abound upon the prairies; the Indian millennium would be inaugurated. These glowing predictions were eagerly listened to and believed by large numbers of Indians. Late in October they began a series of "ghost dances" in anticipation of the Messiah's coming; and, to show their devotion, the dancing was continued without intermission for five days and nights. To this delusion Sitting Bull gave every encouragement. His adherents arrayed themselves in war-paint, and provided an ample supply of guns and ammunition. They refused to report themselves at the different agencies, and a few of the most desperate began burning and pillaging cabins near Wounded Knee, and afterwards escaped to the Bad Lands. On the 15th of December a body of Indian police, acting under orders from General Miles, attempted to arrest Sitting Bull in his camp, about forty miles northwest of Fort Yates, N. Dak. A skirmish ensued, and in it the noted chieftain, together with his son Crowfoot and six other Indians, was killed. The remnant of the band made its way to Bad Lands. On the

28th of December a battle occurred near Wounded Knee, S. Dak., between a cavalry regiment and the men of Big Foot's band. Thirty of the whites were killed, while the Indian dead numbered over two hundred, including many of their women and children. Over three thousand Indians now fled from the agency and encamped near White Clay Creek, where, on the next day, another encounter occurred. The result of this engagement was the dispersal of the Indians with heavy loss, and the death of eight soldiers of the Ninth Cavalry. Several other skirmishes occurred during the week which followed, with loss of life on both sides. On the 14th of January, 1891, two councils were held with General Miles, and the chiefs, seeing the hopelessness of their cause, agreed to surrender their arms and return to the agency. The war was practically ended, and on the 21st of January the greater part of the troops were withdrawn from the neighborhood of the reservation. On the 29th, a delegation of Sioux chiefs, under charge of agent Lewis, arrived in Washington for the purpose of conferring with Secretary Noble, of the Department of the Interior. The conference began on the 7th of February, and continued four days, at the close of which they were received by President Harrison at the White House. They were assured that the cutting down of the congressional appropriation was an accident, and that the government desired faithfully to carry out every agreement made. On their return home the chiefs stopped for a short time at Carlisle, Pa., where the children of several of them were attending school.

Smith, SAMUEL FRANCIS, the author of the national hymn "My Country, 'tis of thee," was born in Boston, Oct. 21, 1808. He graduated at Harvard College in 1829, in the same class with Oliver Wendell Holmes, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1832. In 1834 he was ordained minister of the Baptist Church at Waterville, Me., where he remained eight years, during a part of which time he was president of Waterville College. In 1842 he removed to Newton, Mass., and for six years, besides being pastor of the Baptist Church at that place, he edited *The Christian Review*, a religious periodical published in Boston. From 1848 to 1869 he was the editor of various Baptist publications, and during the same time performed a large amount of literary labor. In 1875-76, and also in 1880-82, he visited the Old World and made extensive tours, examining the chief missionary stations in Europe and Asia. Waterville College in 1854 conferred upon him the title of D.D. It was while a student at the theological school that he wrote the famous hymn, now known and sung in every part of America:

"My country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing;
Land where my fathers died,
Land of the pilgrims' pride,
From every mountain-side
Let freedom ring!"

It was written for a children's celebration of the 4th of July in Park Street Church, Boston,

in 1832, and was first sung there. Mr. Smith died in Boston, Nov. 16, 1895.

Stevenson, ADLAI EWING, Vice-President of the United States, was born in Christian County, Ky., Oct. 23, 1835. Before reaching middle life he had attained prominence in the state bar and had served as district-attorney. He early took an active part in politics as a Democrat, and from 1875 to 1877, and again from 1879 to 1881, he represented Illinois in the National House of Representatives. After the re-nomination of Cleveland in 1892, the honor of second place fell to Mr. Stevenson, and in the ensuing campaign he contributed by his speeches to the general result. He was elected, and took the oath of office March 4, 1893.

Stowe, MRS. HARRIET ELIZABETH BEECHER, one of the best-known women writers of America. She was born at Litchfield, Conn., June 14, 1812, and died at the same place July 1, 1896. She was educated at Hartford, Conn., and taught school there and at Cincinnati. She married at the latter place when twenty-two years old, and afterwards lived in Andover, Hartford, and Brunswick, Me., also spending much time in Florida. Her most famous work, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, was first published in the *Washington National Era* in 1851. This book is credited with having a most powerful bearing on the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln. Among her other successful works are *Dred*, *The Minister's Wooing*, *My Wife and I*, *We and Our Neighbors*, *Old Town Folks*, *Poganuc People*, *Agnes of Sorrento*, *Pink and White Tyranny*, etc.

Strikes. This is a term which is applied to concerted movements on the part of workmen to quit work unless their employers agreed to some demand made by the men. The earliest strike of which there is a record in this country occurred in Philadelphia in 1796, when 300 shoe-

makers struck for higher wages. The struggle was successful. In 1848 occurred a great strike of weavers at Fall River, and in 1877 occurred the first railroad strike. From 1888 to 1891 there were a great number of important strikes, including the street-car strike of New York city. In 1892 there were six great strikes, including the one at Homestead, Pa., during which ten men were killed, the militia was called out, and such destitution prevailed that the government ordered an investigation. In 1892 there were two great railroad strikes. Perhaps the most notable strike in the history of this country occurred in 1894 among the railroad employés of the roads centring at Chicago. Fully 100,000 men were affected. The strike originated among the 3000 employés of the Pullman-car Company, who demanded higher wages. Just as their strike was about to fail, the cause of the strikers was espoused by the American Railway Union, an organization numbering over 100,000 railroad men. These men refused to handle Pullman-cars, and a great tumult followed. An immense amount of rioting followed, and the militia being unable to cope with the thousands of strikers, the President was obliged to call upon the Federal troops to restore order, after first issuing two proclamations to the strikers. The railroads lost in property during this strike \$700,000, and in earnings \$5,000,000. The strikers lost in wages \$2,000,000. Twelve persons were killed and nearly 700 arrested. Eugene V. Debs, the leader of the American Railway Union, was arrested for refusing to obey an injunction, and imprisoned for six months. The strike was a total failure. President Cleveland appointed a commission to investigate the strike, and this commission blamed the railroads for the trouble, and advised Congress to pass a law providing for compulsory arbitration of all labor troubles.

T.

Tariffs, UNITED STATES. The question of tariffs in the United States has been a disputed point since the very formation of the nation. The overthrow of one political party has almost invariably been followed by a revision of the tariff. Gradually through all these changes the two great national parties have come to have a rather settled policy in regard to the tariff. In the early summer of 1897 Congress was in the midst of another tariff debate, and it is generally understood that the Republican party favors a high protective tariff while the Democratic party leans towards free-trade or a tariff for revenue only. The Democratic tariff bill of 1894 failed to supply sufficient revenue, and \$2,000,000 worth of bonds were issued to meet the deficiency: it was, however, rather the extravagance of appropriations which caused this deficiency. The history of the tariff struggle in this country will be shown.

The question of raising a sufficient national revenue was one of the first and most impor-

tant matters discussed by the Congress of 1789. The tariff which was passed on July 4 of that year was nominally protective. Specific duties were placed on spirits and fermented liquors, sugar, coffee, tea, and some other articles, while the remaining mass of imports bore *ad valorem* duties averaging about eight and one-half per cent. This tariff of 1789 was largely the work of Madison. Protection was not in the early years of the Republic a party measure, or indeed a vital question.

The effect of the restrictive actions of France and Great Britain in the Napoleonic regime and of the Embargo, followed by the War of 1812, was to make the United States more dependent on itself for manufactures. Soon after the close of the war the tariff of April 27, 1816, was adopted. The increase of manufacturing interests was shown in the increasing duties, which in the case of cotton reached twenty-five per cent. Shortly after the panic of 1819 came an attempted tariff measure in 1820. By 1824

the movement towards higher protection showed itself in the act of May 22, in which the average rate was thirty-seven per cent. Woollen goods, cotton goods, and iron were main subjects of debate from the early stages of the controversy. The tariff of 1824 was protectionist, but in 1828 a tariff was passed which, on account of its various eccentricities, received the name of the Tariff of Abominations. Opposition to this act was very bitter in the South, and led to the Nullification movement. The law was modified in 1832, and further in 1833 by the Compromise tariff engineered by Henry Clay. By this act duties were to be gradually reduced to twenty per cent. Parties had again crystallized; protection was a Whig doctrine, together with internal improvements.

High protectionism was revived by the tariff of 1842, in which the duties averaged about thirty-three per cent. But in 1846 the Democrats passed the low Walker tariff, named after the Secretary of the Treasury, Robert J. Walker. The average rate was about twenty-five per cent., and under this law the country continued until 1857 when, with an overflowing revenue, the rate was still further reduced to about twenty per cent. From 1846 to 1861, accordingly, there was an approach to a revenue tariff. The Morrill tariff, named after the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, was enacted in 1861, having a protectionist character; the Civil War broke out; expenses of government enormously increased; in 1862 a stringent internal-revenue act was passed. As the war developed, all financial experiments were tried, taxes on incomes and corporation receipts, on manufactures, also loans, and inconvertible currency; in 1864 a tariff bill was enacted which accorded a high measure of protection and produced a large amount of revenue. From 1866 to 1872 the internal-revenue taxes were mainly abolished, but a movement towards reforming the tariff failed in 1867. In 1870 the duties on purely revenue articles were lowered, and in 1872 tea and coffee were admitted free, and the protective duties received a ten per cent. "horizontal" reduction. Party lines were not drawn upon these measures, although the war tariffs had been passed by the Republicans. This ten per cent. reduction was in 1875 revoked, but the tariff was not generally discussed, although reform bills were introduced in 1876 and 1878. In the campaign of 1880 the Republicans made some use of protection, and the Democratic candidate, General Hancock, referred to it as a local issue. In 1882 the Republicans took up the matter seriously; a tariff commission was appointed, and in 1883 an act was passed; this measure was distinctly protective; some reductions were made in wool, iron, etc., and the duty on steel rails was reduced from \$28 to \$17. Almost immediately the Democrats gained control of the House. The Morrison bill of 1884 proposed a "horizontal" reduction of twenty per cent., with free iron ore, coal, and lumber. It was opposed by the Republicans and defeated, as 41 out of 192 Democrats antagonized it. Again in 1886 another low-tariff bill met the same fate, but the num-

ber of recalcitrant Democrats had fallen to 26 out of 169; free wool, salt, and lumber were offered.

In 1887 the protective contest entered on its last phase. The election of 1884 had not turned distinctively on the tariff. But in the December message of 1887 President Cleveland devoted his attention entirely to the surplus in the Treasury, and the cause of tariff reform. The following year the Democratic House passed the Mills bill, which provided for free lumber and wool, reduction on pig iron, and abolition of specific duties on cottons. The Democrats were now practically united on this side, and only 4 out of 169 votes were recorded against the bill. It failed in the Republican Senate. The same year the election for President occurred, with Cleveland and Harrison as opposing champions of tariff reform and protection respectively. The tariff was the main issue, and the Republicans were successful. As Congress was also Republican a revision of the tariff laws was made, and this measure bore the name of the McKinley tariff, from the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. Of this act, passed October, 1890, the following features are to be noted. Under the influence largely, it is claimed, of Secretary Blaine, reciprocity provisions were inserted when the bill was before the Senate. By these provisions the President could by proclamation impose fixed duties on sugar, wool, tea, coffee, and hides from other countries, whenever the duties imposed by such countries on American products shall be deemed unjust. Duties were accordingly laid on imports from Venezuela, Hayti, and the United States of Colombia; reciprocity treaties were negotiated with Brazil, San Domingo, Cuba and Porto Rico, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Trinidad, British Guiana, and several states of Central America; also some reciprocity arrangements were made with Germany and France. Other important features were the remission of the duty on sugar, a general increase in wool and woollen goods, dress goods, knit goods, linen, plush, velvets, etc.; tin-plates were protected; the tobacco tax was reduced; there was an increase on barley, eggs, potatoes, a decrease on some articles, and additions to the free list. On the whole the act was regarded as a high protective measure. It raised considerable Republican opposition, especially in the Northwest. A few weeks later the Republican party met a Waterloo in the elections throughout the country, and this result was ascribed to the tariff. In 1893 the Democrats, having regained possession of the executive and both branches of Congress, prepared to deal with the question. President Cleveland was elected in 1892 largely on this issue, and the party platform had condemned the principle of protection. The Wilson bill, framed by Chairman Wilson, of the Ways and Means Committee, and his associates, was presented to the House at the close of 1893, and provided for reduction of duties in some cases, and of some notable additions to the free list, including wool. On Feb. 1, 1894, it passed the House by

a vote of 204 to 140. Sixteen democrats voted against the bill.

The Wilson bill failed to provide sufficient revenue, as has been stated. After the election of McKinley and a Republican Congress in 1896, a strong effort was at once made to pass another tariff measure, entitled the Dingley bill. This bill somewhat resembles the McKinley bill, although the duties proposed are not as excessive. The duty on wool has been restored. The Dingley bill met with much opposition, but was passed at the close of July, 1897. This was chiefly due to Western Senators, who refused to aid the Republican tariff plans unless that party would support free silver legislation.

Considering the McKinley Tariff Law of 1890 as a representative Republican measure, and the Wilson bill of 1894 as a representative Democratic measure, a comparison of the rates of duty on leading articles is interesting.

Articles.	1890 McKinley Tariff.	1894 Wilson Tariff.
Alcohol.....	10 p. c. ad val.	10 p. c. ad val.
Aluminum.....	15c. per lb.	10c. per lb.
Animals.....	Free.	Free.
Bagging.....	2c. per lb.	Free.
Barley.....	30c. per bu.	30 p. c. ad val.
Beef, mutton.....	2c. per lb.	20 p. c. ad val.
Beer.....	20c. per gal.	15c. per gal.
Building Stone.....	11c. per cub. ft.	7c. per cub. ft.
Carpets.....	19c. per sq. yd. to 44c.	30c. per sq. yd. to 40c.
Cigars.....	\$1.50 per lb. and 25 p. c.	\$4 per lb.
Clothing.....	45 to 60 p. c. ad val.	40 to 50 p. c. ad val.
Coal.....	75c. per ton.	40c. per ton.
Cutlery.....	50c. per doz. and 50 p. c.	25c. per doz. and 25 p. c.
Diamonds.....	10 p. c. ad val.	40 p. c. ad val.
Earthenware.....	55 p. c. ad val.	30 p. c. ad val.
Fruits.....	30 p. c. ad val.	20 p. c. ad val.
Furniture.....	30 p. c. ad val.	25 p. c. ad val.
Hay.....	\$4 per ton.	\$2 per ton.
Horses.....	\$30 per head.	20 p. c. ad val.
India-rubber.....	30 p. c. ad val.	20 p. c. ad val.
Iron (manufactured).....	45 p. c. ad val.	35 p. c. ad val.
Jewelry.....	50 p. c. ad val.	35 p. c. ad val.
Jute.....	2c. per lb.	Free.
Lead.....	2c. per lb.	1c. per lb.
Leather.....	35 p. c. ad val.	30 p. c. ad val.
Linen (manufactures).....	50 p. c. ad val.	35 p. c. ad val.
Molasses.....	Free.	2c. per gal.
Foreign paintings.....	15 p. c. ad val.	Free.
Railroad ties.....	20 p. c. ad val.	Free.
Salt.....	8c. per 100 lbs.	Free.
Silk, raw.....	Free.	Free.
Spirits.....	\$2.50 per gal.	\$1.50 per gal.
Tin.....	4c. per lb.	Free.
Velvets.....	\$3.50 per lb.	\$1.50 per lb.
Wheat.....	25c. per bu.	20c. per bu.
Wool.....	11 to 40 cts. per lb.	Free.
Woolen (manufactures).....	44c. per lb.	50c. per lb.

The Wilson tariff was chiefly noted for its free wool (raw) provision, while one of the leading features of the McKinley law was its Reciprocity clause, the text of which was as follows:

SEC. 3. With a view to secure reciprocal trade with countries producing the following articles, and for this purpose, on and after the 1st day of July, 1892, whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied that the government of any country producing and exporting sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, raw and uncured, or any of such articles, impose duties or other exactions upon the agricultural or other products of the United States, which in view of the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides into the United States he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and un-

reasonable, he shall have the power, and it shall be his duty, to suspend, by proclamation to that effect, the provisions of this act relating to the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, the production of such country, for such time as he shall deem just; and in such case and during such suspension duties shall be levied, collected, and paid upon sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, the product of or exported from such designated country, as follows, namely:

All sugars not above number thirteen Dutch standard in color shall pay duty on their polariscope tests as follows, namely:

All sugars not above number thirteen Dutch standard in color, all tank bottoms, syrups of cane-juice or of beet-juice, melada, concentrated melada, concrete and concentrated molasses, testing by the polariscope not above 75 degrees, seven-tenths of one cent per pound; and for every additional degree or fraction of a degree shown by the polariscope test, two-hundredths of one cent per pound additional.

All sugars above number thirteen Dutch standard in color shall be classified by the Dutch standard of color, and pay duty as follows, namely: All sugar above number thirteen and not above number sixteen Dutch standard of color, one and three-eighths cents per pound.

All sugars above number sixteen and not above number twenty Dutch standard of color, one and five-eighths cents per pound.

All sugars above number twenty Dutch standard of color, two cents per pound.

Molasses testing above 56 degrees, four cents per gallon.

Sugar drainings and sugar sweepings shall be subject to duty either as molasses or sugar, as the case may be, according to polariscopic test.

On coffee, three cents per pound.

On tea, ten cents per pound.

Hides, raw or uncured, whether dry, salted, or pickled; Angora goat-skins, raw without the wool, unmanufactured; asses' skins, raw or unmanufactured, and skins, except sheep-skins with the wool on, one and one-half cents per pound.

OTHER PROVISIONS.—Among other provisions of the McKinley law, the following were especially noteworthy:

A bounty of two cents per pound was authorized for all sugar grown within the United States, testing not less than 90 degrees by the polariscope; and upon all sugars testing less than 90 and not less than 80 degrees, a bounty of one and three-quarters cents per pound. It was estimated that this provision would cause an annual expenditure of \$7,000,000, based upon the annual production of sugar at the time of the passage of the bill.

All packages or boxes containing articles of foreign merchandise imported into the United States must be plainly marked or stamped with the name of the country in which the articles originated.

When foreign raw materials have been made

into finished products in this country and exported, 99 per cent. of the duties paid on such raw materials was refunded.

All special taxes and licenses imposed upon the manufacture of tobacco, cigars, and snuff, and upon dealers in them, were abolished, thus reducing the tax on manufactured tobacco from about eight cents per pound to about four cents per pound. This is the only important change made in the internal-revenue laws.

Thurman, ALLEN GRANBERY, an American statesman, was born at Lynchburg, Va., Nov. 13, 1813. He practised law at Chillicothe, O., and became eminent at the bar. He was a life-long Democrat. From 1845 to 1847 he represented Ohio in the National House of Representatives. He was a judge of the State Supreme Court from 1851 to 1855. In 1867 he was the candidate for governor in opposition to the Republican Hayes, and the campaign was close and exciting, though Hayes won. During two terms, 1869 to 1881, Thurman was a member of the United States Senate; here he served on the Judiciary Committee, on the Electoral Commission of 1877, was a leader of the party, and an authority on constitutional questions. He had been a candidate for the Presidential nomination, and in 1888 he accepted the second place on the ticket with President Cleveland. In the election Cleveland and Thurman were defeated by Harrison and Morton. Mr. Thurman died at Columbus, O., Dec. 12, 1895.

Tilden, SAMUEL JONES, was born at New Lebanon, N. Y., Feb. 4, 1814. He entered Yale College, but his health failed, and he returned home. He finished his studies at the University of New York; studied law with Benjamin F. Butler, and entered upon its practice; became a journalist, and in 1844 established the *Daily News* in New York City. He soon returned to the bar, practised his profession with great success. In 1874 he was elected governor of the State of New York, and in 1876 was an unsuccessful candidate for the office of President of the United States, when he retired to private life, but exercised great influence in the councils of the Democratic party. He died at his beautiful country seat of "Greystone," near Yonkers, Aug. 4, 1886, leaving a fortune of several million dollars.

Tracy, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, was born April 26, 1830. He was an influential Republican politician, and a prominent lawyer in the State of New York, commanded a regiment in the Civil War, and was severely wounded at the battle of the Wilderness. Since the war General Tracy has served as United States district-attorney and associate judge of the Court of Appeals. His national importance belongs to the period of his holding the office of Secretary of the Navy in President Harrison's cabinet, 1889 to 1893. At the close of his term he returned to the practice of law.

Trusts. Within recent years there has arisen in this country a number of vast corporations styled trusts. A trust is a combination of lead-

ing manufacturers in a certain line of trade, who pool their businesses, accepting in lieu thereof stock in the trust. It is claimed that business can be conducted more cheaply this way, and that people are therefore benefited. On the other hand, it is claimed that trusts are ruining business by driving out all competition. A small dealer who refuses to join the trust suddenly finds the trust selling his line of goods in his neighborhood at prices below cost. The small dealer cannot compete with these prices, and so must either sell his plant to the trust at the trust's price or go out of business. Legislatures of various states, notably New York State, have tried to devise a law that will protect the rights of the capitalists in the trusts and also the rights of small dealers, but without success as yet. The managers of trusts have been put on trial charged with conspiracy in driving others out of business, but as yet there have been no convictions. The Standard Oil Trust is perhaps the best known. This trust controls practically every productive oil-well in the world. Its property is said to be worth a billion dollars. It absolutely regulates the price of oil. The sugar trade of the country is almost entirely in the hands of a trust, and the attempts of this trust to influence legislation at Washington in its interests gave rise to a great national scandal in 1894, when each senator was asked to make a declaration whether he had dealt in sugar stock during the tariff debate. There is a coffee trust, an iron and steel trust, a whiskey trust, a beef trust, and a tobacco trust, besides many minor trusts.

Tweed, WILLIAM MARCY, was born in New York City, April 3, 1823. He was brought up to the trade of chair-making, but finally studied law and was admitted to the bar. At different times from 1850 to 1870 he filled several public offices, metropolitan, state, and national, being a member of Congress in 1853-55, and a state Senator in 1867. Being appointed commissioner of public works for the city of New York in 1870, he succeeded, in connection with a "ring," of which he was the leader, in appropriating vast sums of public money to his own use. He was arrested on charges of malfeasance in office, but gave bail in \$1,000,000, and was released. Soon afterwards he was re-elected state senator, but did not take his seat. In 1873 he was found guilty of fraud, fined \$12,550, and sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment. In 1875 a suit was brought against him by the people of New York to recover \$6,000,000 which he had fraudulently appropriated. But on June 15 in the same year, the Court of Appeals decided that his imprisonment was illegal, because the court below had exceeded its powers in pronouncing a cumulative sentence against him. Being released from jail, he was at once ordered to find bail for \$3,000,000 in the civil suits then pending against him, and, failing to secure it, he was again imprisoned. On December 4, in charge of two keepers, he was permitted to visit his home, and while there he escaped from custody, and succeeded in making his way to Spain. His liberty, however, was of short duration; he was

arrested by order of the Spanish government, and delivered to the officers of the United States. Being returned to New York, he was again imprisoned in Ludlow Street Jail, and there he died in 1878. The operations of Tweed and his

associates—known as the Tweed Ring—during their five years' domination in New York added over \$100,000,000 to the bonded debt of the city, doubled its annual expenditures, and cost taxpayers the enormous sum of \$160,000,000.

V.

Venezuela Question. On Dec. 17, 1895, President Cleveland sent to Congress a special message on this question, which for a time caused great excitement and seemed to threaten to involve the United States in a war with Great Britain. This condition of affairs was caused by the sudden renewal by Great Britain of an old claim to territory adjoining British Guiana, but held by Venezuela. This territory contains about 500 square miles and is inhabited by over 100,000 people. It also contains rich gold-mines. The territory has been a subject of dispute ever since 1814, when Holland ceded her South American possessions to Great Britain. In 1841, Robert Schömburgk, acting for Great Britain erected a boundary-line, claiming for Great Britain the entire Atlantic coast as far as the Orinoco. Venezuela protested and forcibly removed this boundary-line. For fifty years after Great Britain made various claims. In 1887 diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Venezuela were broken off because of the dispute, and have never been renewed. In the United States the action of Great Britain was closely watched, it being believed that her attempt to extend her boundary-line was in violation of the Monroe Doctrine. On Feb. 20, 1895, the United States offered to arbitrate the dispute, but Great Britain refused. Late in 1895 information reached this country that Great Britain intended to land troops on the disputed territory. Then the President issued the message already referred to, the closing paragraph of which was as follows: "In taking this stand [insisting that England must submit the matter to arbitration], I am fully alive to the re-

sponsibilities incurred and keenly realize all the consequences that must follow. I am nevertheless firm in my conviction that while it is grievous to contemplate the two great English-speaking nations of the world as being otherwise than friendly competitors in the onward march of civilization, there is no calamity which a great nation can invite which equals that which follows a supine submission to wrong." In his message the President asked Congress for leave to appoint a commission to visit Venezuela and sift the claims of both parties. This Congress at once granted, voting \$100,000 for the purpose. In his stand for the Monroe Doctrine the President seemed to have the support of the entire country.

English statesmen were amazed at the message, and the people of Venezuela rejoiced. President Cleveland named a commission of five men, who at once began their labors. Fortunately no overt act was committed by either nation, and soon from both countries came a cry for arbitration. Many diplomatic letters were exchanged between the United States and Great Britain, and in the latter part of 1896, when it became plain that the American Commission would report in favor of Venezuela, Great Britain agreed to arbitrate the matter. Venezuela agreed to this disposition of the case on Dec. 25, 1896. June 14, 1897, the final arbitrators were appointed. They are Chief-Justice Melville W. Fuller, representing Venezuela; Justice David J. Brewer, representing this country; Lord Herschel and Sir Richard Collin, representing Great Britain; and Baron Courcel, of France. Their report will not be made until 1898.

W.

Waite, MORRISON REMICK, LL.D., was born at Lyme, Conn., Nov. 29, 1816; graduated at Yale College in 1837; became a lawyer, and a judge of the Supreme Court of Errors of Connecticut. He settled at Maumee City, O., and was chosen a member of the Ohio Legislature in 1849. In 1850 he made his residence at Toledo, and became very prominent at the bar in Ohio. He declined an election to Congress and a seat on the bench of the Superior Court of Ohio. He was one of the counsel for the United States at the General Tribunal of Arbitration (which see); was president of the Ohio Constitutional Convention in 1873, and on March 4, 1874, he was appointed Chief-Justice of the United States Supreme Court. Died at Washington, D. C., March 23, 1888.

Washington's Inauguration, THE CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION OF. On April 29 and 30,

1889, the city of New York celebrated the centennial of the inauguration of George Washington as the first President of the United States. The occasion was also observed quite generally throughout the country, but nowhere in so imposing a manner as in the city in which that inauguration had taken place. The celebration was opened with a naval parade in the harbor on the morning of April 29. President Harrison, following as nearly as possible the same route of travel as President Washington, was conveyed by water from Elizabethport to New York, being escorted by a committee of governors, commissioners of states, and other distinguished personages. Upon his arrival in the East River he was transferred to a barge manned by a crew of ship-masters from the Marine Society of the Port of New York, and by them rowed to the shore. The crew of the barge

that rowed President Washington from Elizabethport to the foot of Wall Street were members of the same society. A reception was afterwards held by the President and the governors of the states in the Equitable Building, and in the evening the Centennial Ball was given in the Metropolitan Opera-house. On April 30 a special service of thanksgiving was held in St. Paul's Chapel, being conducted in the same manner as that held in the same place on the day of Washington's inauguration, one hundred years before. Literary exercises then took place at the corner of Wall and Nassau Streets, the scene of the first inauguration ceremonies. These exercises consisted of an invocation by the Rev. Dr. Richard S. Storrs, a poem by John Greenleaf Whittier, an oration by Chauncey M. Depew, and an address by President Harrison. The remainder of the day was given to a grand military parade, ending with a free open-air concert of vocal and instrumental music and a general illumination of the city. On May 1 a great industrial and civic parade, under command of Major-General Daniel Butterfield as chief marshal, took place, and was witnessed by 500,000 spectators. The celebration was conducted* with complete success throughout, and not only reflected great credit upon its managers, but accomplished great good in strengthening the patriotic sentiment of the people of New York and of the entire country.

Washington Monument. On Feb. 22, 1885, the Washington Monument was formally dedicated by Robert C. Winthrop, the man who laid its corner-stone in 1848. The first movement towards the erection of this monument was made as early as 1783, when the Continental Congress passed a resolution recommending the erection of an equestrian statue of Washington, supported by four marble pedestals showing the principal events in the war which he had successfully conducted. After his death in December, 1799, the House and Senate passed a joint resolution for the erection of a monument under which his body should be placed; but Congress failed to provide for the execution of the work, and the matter was allowed to drop. In 1816 an unsuccessful effort was made by James Buchanan, then a young Congressman from Pennsylvania, to revive an interest in the monument which should lead to its construction. Twenty-five years later (1841) an association known as the "Washington Monument Society" was formed, and \$87,000 was collected in sums of \$1, each person so contributing being enrolled as a member of the society. The corner-stone was laid and the erection of the monument was begun July 4, 1848. The building progressed slowly until 1855, when, owing to the failure of the Senate to concur in the passage of an appropriation bill giving \$200,000 to the enterprise, all work upon it ceased. The Civil War broke out, and the Washington Monument was for the time forgotten. In 1876 Senator Sherman introduced a resolution providing that whatever was returned from the government appropriation for the Centennial at Philadelphia should be refunded and appropriated to the completion

of the Washington Monument. This resolution was amended by the Appropriation Committee of the House, and \$1,000,000 was appropriated, to be paid in annual instalments of \$30,000 each. A commission was appointed to examine the work already done, and the foundation was declared insufficient. A new foundation was accordingly constructed at a cost of nearly \$100,000, and the work was pushed actively forward until its completion, nine years later. The entire cost of the monument was about one and a half million dollars. Its base is 55 feet square—the base of the foundation being 126 feet square. Its height is 555 feet, being 30 feet greater than that of the cathedral at Cologne, and 75 feet greater than that of the Great Pyramid.

Wilson, JAMES HARRISON, a distinguished engineer and cavalry officer, was born in Illinois about 1838; graduated at West Point in 1860; became captain of topographical engineers in May, 1861, and served on the coasts of South Carolina and Georgia. Brevetted major in 1862; was aide-de-camp to General McClellan at the battles of South Mountain (which see) and Antietam (which see); was assistant engineer and inspector-general of the Army of the Tennessee in the campaign against Vicksburg in 1863, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers, Oct. 31. He was brevetted lieutenant-colonel of the United States army for gallantry at Chattanooga. In April he was made major-general of volunteers. He captured Selma and Montgomery, in Alabama, and Columbus and Macon, in Georgia; and captured Jefferson Davis, May 10, 1865. He left the army at the close of 1870, became vice-president of a railway company in the West, chief engineer of the Metropolitan Elevated Railroad in New York, and president of the New York and New England Railroad Company in 1881.

Wilson Bill. (See *Tariffs, United States*.)

Windom, WILLIAM, was born in Belmont County, O., May 10, 1827. He studied law, settled in Minnesota, and served that state in Congress as Representative from 1859 to 1869, and as Senator from 1870 to 1881. He attained prominence on the Republican side, especially in financial matters. Three times, in 1880, 1884, and 1888, his name was presented to Republican national conventions. Senator Windom was a member of President Garfield's cabinet, holding the Treasury portfolio. Retiring after Garfield's death, he was chosen again to the Senate, where he remained until 1883. With the return of the Republicans under President Harrison in 1889, Windom was called to take his former cabinet office. He was in the middle of his term when, on Jan. 29, 1891, he was an invited guest at the annual banquet of the Board of Trade in New York; at this dinner the Secretary dropped dead just after finishing an impressive address on his own topic—finance.

Winthrop, ROBERT CHARLES, LL.D., was born at Boston, Mass., May 12, 1809, and is a descendant in the sixth generation from Governor John Winthrop (which see). He graduated at Har-

vard in 1828; studied law with Daniel Webster; was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, 1836-40, and was a member of Congress, 1841-42, and 1843-50. From 1847 to 1849 he was Speaker of the House. He was president of the electoral college of Massachusetts in 1848, and in 1850 was appointed United States Senator to fill the unexpired term of Daniel Webster.

Woman's Suffrage. For fifty years past this subject has been agitated in the United States. The National American Woman's Suffrage Association was established in 1855. This association has for its present officers: Elizabeth Cady Stanton, honorary president; Susan B. Anthony, president; Rev. Anna Shaw, vice-president; Alice Stone Blackwell, treasurer. The names of these women have always been prominently identified with the movement. In 1870 Wy-

oming adopted a complete woman's suffrage law. Utah and Colorado passed similar laws in 1893. In 1896 a woman's suffrage amendment to the Constitution was adopted in Idaho. A similar amendment was lost in Massachusetts the same year. Women have partial suffrage, generally, in regard to taxes or school committees in fifteen states.

Woolsey, THEODORE DWIGHT, D.D., LL.D., was born in New York City, Oct. 31, 1801; graduated at Yale College in 1820; studied theology at Princeton; was licensed to preach in 1825, and became professor of Greek in Yale in 1831. He was elected president of Yale College in 1846, and resigned the office in 1871. He resided in New Haven ever afterwards, giving instruction in the law-school. Dr. Woolsey was the author of several valuable works, and editor of classical volumes. Dr. Woolsey died July 1, 1899.

X.

X, Y, Z Letters. The correspondence bearing this name was made public in 1798, and nearly resulted in the United States declaring war against France. Louis XVI. had just been overthrown in France, and a Republic established in charge of the Directory and Council. The French envoys to America, Genet, Adet, and Fouchet, annoyed Washington and President Jefferson exceedingly by their arrogance. Then the French Directory authorized French war vessels to seize American merchantmen and "detain them for examination." Fully 1000 vessels, carrying the United States flag, had been thus stopped in their course when Jefferson appointed Pinckney, Marshall, and Gerry as a commission to visit France and negotiate a treaty that would save American vessels from further annoyance. The commission was met in France by three unofficial agents, who told the Americans that the Directory would not listen to them unless suitable bribes were given; and that, if the commission were received, France

would expect a loan from the United States, as French finances were then at a very low ebb. The American envoys indignantly rejected these proposals, and were ordered out of France. They at once published their report in the United States, but, instead of giving the names of the three French agents, they were styled X, Y, and Z, and the correspondence took its name from this fact. The disgraceful action of France aroused the whole country. Congress at once ordered an increase in the army and navy, and war seemed imminent, but at this moment the young Napoleon assumed charge of French affairs. He saw the folly of the course of the Directory, and at once wrote to Jefferson, asking that another commission be sent. These men were well received, and orders were at once issued to French cruisers to refrain from molesting vessels of the United States, and a cordial understanding between the two countries began, which terminated in the cession of Louisiana two years later.

Y.

Yachts—America's Cup. This is the leading trophy for international sports in existence to-day. The cup was originally called the Queen's Cup, and was offered by the Royal Yacht Squadron of England in a competition open to the yachts of all nations in 1851. The cup was won by the Boston built schooner-yacht *America*. Nine times have English yacht-clubs sent over boats to try and carry back this trophy, but it has always been defended by American yachts, with success. In 1895 Lord Dauraven's yacht, *Valkyrie*, after having been defeated in one race, won the second but was deprived of the victory because of a foul. The Englishman claimed that he had been cheated and refused to race again. He charged the American yachtsmen with unsportsmanlike conduct and visited this country to press his charges. His complaints were dismissed and

he was dropped from the list of members of the New York club, under whose auspices the races had been held.

Yosemite Valley is in the Sierra Nevada of California, 150 miles in a direct line S.E. from San Francisco, and nearly in the centre of the state. Its scenic attractions are most remarkable. It was discovered in 1851, a party of settlers near the mining-camp of Mariposa having visited it that year. The Indian residents of that region are said to be a mixed race. They were troublesome to the white settlers, and were chased to this stronghold, and thus it was discovered. The name "Yosemite" signifies "a full-grown grizzly bear."

By act of Congress in 1864 the valley, with a small adjacent region, was intrusted to the state of California as a state park. This was followed by the reservation of other regions.

THE TARIFF LAW OF 1897.

("DINGLEY" TARIFF ACT.)

On March 18, 1897, a bill to "provide revenue for the Government and to encourage the industries of the United States" was introduced into the House of Representatives by Hon. Nelson Dingley, Jr., of Maine. The Treasury had suffered since 1893 from yearly deficits, and the finances had been further deranged by the growing conviction that the currency system was not as perfect as it should be. Many believed the aggravating cause to be a want of a sufficient revenue, and the new tariff was framed to produce this revenue. By raising all existing duties to the rates collected under the law of 1890, and by subjecting to duties a large number of articles, raw materials of industry, imported free under the laws of 1890 and 1894, the framer of the measure estimated that the new scheme of duties would produce an annual revenue of \$273,500,000, or nearly \$50,000,000 more than had been obtained from customs in any one year since 1867. The measure passed the House, almost without debate, and the Senate Finance Committee prepared a bill of its own, as a substitute, differing in many important particulars from the House measure. After many conferences the two bodies came to an agreement, and the bill received the signature of the President on July 24, 1897. This tariff is one of the most detailed and extensive ever framed by Congress. The first two sections enumerate 705 articles and classes, of which 463 are 'subject to duty. Provision is made in Section 3 for reciprocity agreements with such nations or countries as will make adequate concessions on the products and manufactures of the United States; but the list of foreign products on which reduction of duty may be made by the United States is too limited to offer much scope for reciprocal agreements. In Section 5 the Secretary of the Treasury is directed to ascertain the net amount of any bounty, direct or indirect, paid by a foreign government on the exportation of any article or merchandise, which amount is to be added to the duty imposed on such articles or merchandise imported into the United States from the bounty paying country. By Section 22 a discriminating duty of 10 per cent., in addition to the duties imposed by law, was imposed on "all goods, wares, or merchandise which shall be imported in vessels not of the United States, or which being the production or manufacture of any foreign country not contiguous to the United States, shall come into the United States from such contiguous country." This section was at first believed to have the unlooked-for effect of imposing a discriminating duty on foreign goods brought into the United States through Canada—a commerce of some importance. The Attorney-general decided that such was not the effect. A further important provision is contained in Section 32 permitting appraising officers, in determining the dutiable value of imported merchandise, to take into consideration the wholesale price at which such or similar merchandise is sold or offered for sale in

the United States. This permits "home market value" to be considered where "foreign market value is in doubt."

Free List. The more important articles left on the free list are :

Animals for breeding purposes.
Binding twine.
Books, over twenty years old, or printed exclusively in languages other than English, or for public libraries, or in raised print, used exclusively by the blind.
Coal, anthracite.
Cocoa and coffee.
Copper, in bars, ingots, or pigs.
Cotton.
Precious stones, uncut.
Drugs, crude.
Fertilizers, guanos, manures.
Horns, hoofs, and hair, unmanufactured.
India-rubber and gutta-percha, crude.
Manganese, oxide and ore of.
Needles, hand-sewing and darning.
Newspapers and periodicals.
Philosophical and scientific apparatus.
Professional books, implements, instruments, etc.
Quinia, sulphate of, and all alkaloids or salts of cinchona bark.
Rags.
Silk, raw, and silk cocoon.
Skins, raw, except sheepskins with the wool on.
Tea.
Tin, in ore or bars or pigs.
Works of art, the production of American artists residing temporarily abroad.

The only two articles transferred from the dutiable to the free list were cocoa-nuts in the shell and sheep-dip.

The list of articles transferred from the free list to the dutiable by the law of 1897 is a long one. The leading items are :

Acids : Lactic, salicylic, gallic, and all others not provided for.
Argol.
Bleaching powder, or chloride of lime.
Blue vitriol, or sulphate of copper.
Mineral oils.
Chicle-gum.
Opium, crude.
Ochre, sienna, and umber.
Caustic potash.
Sulphate of soda.
Gypsum, crude.
Asphaltum and bitumen.
Ties for baling cotton.
Cabinets of old coins, and medals and other collections of antiquities.
Boards, planks, and deals.
Railroad-ties.
Clapboards.
Telephone and telegraph poles.
Laths.
Staves.
Shingles.
Cabbages.
Fruit plants, tropical.
Fish, fresh.
Tallow.
Grease of wool, degrass.
Chicory root, raw.
Salt.
Mineral waters, not artificial.
Flax and hemp.
China matting.
Burlaps.
Rags for grain and bagging for cotton.
Wool, raw.
Wool wastes, noils, and rags.
Braids of straw, chip, for ornamenting hats.
Feathers and downs, crude.
Hides of cattle.
Paintings in oils or water-colors.
Statuary.
Hatters' plush.

As the intention of the framers of the act was to go back to the law of 1890, a comparison is made with the rates imposed by that act :

RATES INCREASED OVER ACT OF 1890.

Statement of articles on which the rates of duty have been increased over those of the act of October 1, 1890.

Articles.	Rates of duty under—	
	Act of October 1, 1890.	Law of 1897.
Acids:		
Lactic	Free	3c. per lb.
Galic	Free	Do.
All other, not specially provided for	Free	25 per cent.
Alcoholic perfumery, including cologne water and other } toilet waters	\$2 per gal. and 50 per cent.	60c. per lb. and 45 per cent.
Compounds, alcoholic, n. s. p. f.	\$2 per gal. and 25 per cent.	Do.
Chloride of lime	Free	1-5c. per lb.
Camphor, refined	4c. per lb.	6c. per lb.
Chalk preparations, all other, n. s. p. f.	20 per cent.	25 per cent.
Chicle	Free	10c. per lb.
Oil, fusel-oil or amylic alcohol	10 per cent.	1-4c per lb.
Opium:		
Crude or unmanufactured, etc.	Free	\$1 per lb.
Morphia or morphine, etc.	50c. per ounce.	\$1 per ounce.
Spirit varnishes	\$1.32 per gal. and 35 per cent. ..	\$1.32 per gal. and 35 per cent.
Paints:		
Crayons	25 per cent.	30 per cent.
Spaults and frostings	Do.	Do.
Spanish, Indian red, etc.	Do.	Do.
Potash, chlorate of	Free	2c. per lb.
Preparations of which alcohol is a component part, etc.	50c. per lb.	55c. per lb.
Soda, chlorate of	Free	2c. per lb.
Soda ash	1-4c. per lb.	3-8c. per lb.
Plaster rock or gypsum	Free	50c. per ton.
Plaster of Paris, ground	\$1 per ton.	\$2.25 per ton.
Pumice-stone:		
Wholly or partially manufactured.	Free	\$6 per ton.
Unmanufactured	Free	15 per cent.
Asphaltum and bitumen:		
Not dried or advanced	Free	\$1.25 per ton.
Dried or advanced	Free	\$2.50 per ton.
Bauxite or beauxite, crude	Free	\$1 per ton.
Chemical glassware, for use in laboratory, n. s. p. f.	45 per cent.	60 per cent.
Plate-glass, fluted, etc., above 16 by 24 ins. and not above } 24 by 30 ins.	8c. per sq. ft.	10c. per sq. ft.
Plate-glass, cast, polished:		
Not exceeding 16 by 24 ins.	5c. per sq. ft.	8c. per sq. ft.
Above 16 by 24 and not above 24 by 30 ins.	8c. per sq. ft.	10c. per sq. ft.
Plate-glass, cast, polished, silvered:		
Not exceeding 16 by 24 ins.	6c. per sq. ft.	11c. per sq. ft.
Above 16 by 24 and not above 24 by 30 ins.	10c. per sq. ft.	13c. per sq. ft.
Cylinder and crown glass, polished, silvered:		
Not exceeding 16 by 24 ins.	6c. per sq. ft.	11c. per sq. ft.
Above 16 by 24 and not above 24 by 30 ins.	10c. per sq. ft.	13c. per sq. ft.
Cylinder and crown glass, polished, silvered, when ground, obscured, frosted, etc.:		
Not exceeding 16 by 24 ins.	6c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.	11c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.
Above 16 by 24 and not above 24 by 30 ins.	10c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.	13c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.
Plate-glass, cast, polished, silvered, when ground, obscured, frosted, etc.:		
Not exceeding 16 by 24 ins.	6c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.	11c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.
Above 16 by 24 and not above 24 by 30 ins.	10c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.	13c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.
Plate-glass, cast, polished, unsilvered, when ground, ob- scured, frosted, etc.:		
Not exceeding 16 by 24 ins.	5c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.	8c. per sq. ft. and 5 per cent.
Above 16 by 24 and not above 24 by 30 ins.	8c. per sq. ft. and 10 per cent.	10c. per sq. ft. and 5 per cent.
All other manufactures:		
Paste, manufactures of	25 per cent.	45 per cent.
Glass, broken, and old glass, etc.	Free	20 per cent.
Manufactures of:		
Agate	20 per cent.	50 per cent.
Alabaster	25 per cent.	Do.
Jet	Do.	Do.
Freestone, granite, sandstone, etc.		
Undressed or unmanufactured	11c. per cu. ft.	12c. per cu. ft.
Hewn, dressed, or polished	40 per cent.	50 per cent.
Polishing and burnishing stones	Free	20 per cent.
Scissors and shears and blades for the same, finished or un- finished:		
Valued at not more than 50c. per dozen.	35 per cent.	15c. per doz. and 15 per cent.
Valued at more than 50c. and not more than \$1.75 per } dozen	Do.	50c. per doz. and 15 per cent.
Valued at more than \$1.75 per dozen.	Do.	75c. per doz. and 25 per cent.
Tinsel wire, lame or lahn	Free	5c. per lb.
Mica	35 per cent.	5c. per lb., etc.
Chronometers, box or ship's, and parts thereof.	10 per cent.	40 per cent.
Watches	25 per cent.	Do.
Watch-cases, movements, etc.	Do.	Do.
Jewels for use in the manufacture of watches or } clocks	Free	Free.
Railroad-ties	Free	20 per cent.
Clapboards	\$1 per M.	\$1.50 per M.
Shingles	20c. per M.	25c. per M.

Statement of articles on which the rates of duty have been increased over those of the act of Oct. 1, 1890—Continued.

Articles.	Rates of duty under—	
	Act of October 1, 1890.	Law of 1897.
Molasses:		
Testing above 40° and not above 56°.....	Free.....	3c. per gal.
Above 56°.....	Free.....	6c. per gal.
Sugars:		
All not above No. 16 Dutch standard.....	Free.....	Testing not above 75°, 95-100c. per pound; for each additional degree, 35-1000c. per lb. additional.
Sugar above No. 16 Dutch standard.....	5-10c. per lb.....	1 95-100c. per lb.
Sugar, maple, and sirup.....	20 per cent.....	4c. per lb.
Glucose or grape sugar.....	3-4c. per lb.....	1 1-2c. per lb.
Saccharine.....	25 per cent.....	\$1.50 per lb. and 10 per cent.
Orchids, lily of the valley, azaleas, palms, etc.....	Free.....	25 per cent.
Straw.....	30 per cent.....	\$1.50 per ton.
Fruits preserved in their own juice.....	do.....	35 per cent.
Currants.....	Free.....	2c. per lb.
Olives, green or prepared.....	Free.....	20c. per gal.
Dates.....	Free.....	1-2c. per lb.
Oranges, lemons, and limes.....	10c. per cu. ft.....	1c. per lb.
Orange and lemon peel, not preserved.....	Free.....	2c. per lb.
Cocoanut meat or copra, etc.....	20 per cent.....	Do.
Pineapples.....	Free.....	7c. per cu. ft.
Meats, dressed or undressed, etc.....	10 per cent.....	25 per cent.
Chocolate and cocoa, prepared or manufactured.....	2c. per lb.....	5c. per lb. and 10 per cent.
Dandelion root, etc., prepared.....	1 1-2c. per lb.....	2c. per lb.
Ginger-ale or ginger-beer.....	13c. per doz.....	18c. per doz.
Mineral waters, natural.....	Free.....	Estimated 30 per cent.
All other manufactures of cotton not specially provided for.....	40 per cent.....	45 per cent.
Hemp, tow of.....	\$11.20 per ton.....	\$20 per ton.
Hemp and jute carpets.....	6c. per sq. yd.....	10c. per sq. yd. and 35 per cent.
All manufactures of other vegetable fibre except flax, hemp, and ramie.....	40 per cent.....	45 per cent.
Gunny-bags and gunny-cloth, old or refuse.....	Free.....	10 per cent.
Carpets, treble ingrain, 3-ply, etc.....	19c. per sq. yd. and 40 per cent.....	22c. per sq. yd. and 40 per cent.
Carpets, wool, Dutch, and 2-ply ingrain.....	14c. per sq. yd. and 40 per cent.....	18c. per sq. yd. and 40 per cent.
Cards, playing.....	50c. per pack.....	10c. per pack and 20 per cent.
Other manufactures of paper.....	25 per cent.....	35 per cent.
Beads of glass, loose, unthreaded.....	10 per cent.....	Do.
Beads, beaded or jet trimmings, etc.....	35 per cent.....	60 per cent.
Braids, plaits, laces, willow sheets, etc.....	Free.....	15 per cent.
Coal, anthracite.....	Free.....	67c. per ton.
Corks.....	15c. per lb.....	15c. per lb.; 25c. per lb.
Feathers and downs, crude:		
Ostrich.....	10 per cent.....	15 per cent.
All other.....	do.....	Do.
Feathers and downs for beds.....	Free.....	Do.
Haircloth, known as crinoline cloth.....	8c. per sq. yd.....	10c. per sq. yd.
Jewelry.....	50 per cent.....	60 per cent.
Precious stones and imitations of, set, not specially provided for.....	25 per cent.....	Do.
Pearls, set.....	do.....	Do.
Hides of cattle, raw or uncured, etc.....	Free.....	15 per cent.
Leather:		
Band or belting.....	10 per cent.....	20 per cent.
All leather, not specially provided for.....	do.....	Do.
Coral, manufactures of.....	25 per cent.....	50 per cent.
Spar, manufactures of.....	do.....	Do.
Musical instruments and parts of:		
Metal, chief value.....	45 per cent.....	45 per cent.
Wood, chief value.....	35 per cent.....	45 per cent.
Umbrellas, etc., covered with other material than silk, wool, etc.....	45 per cent.....	50 per cent.
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